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THE

AMERICAN

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA

AND

REGISTER OF IMPORTANT EVENTS

OF THE YEAR

1869.

EMBRACING POLITICAL, CIVIL, MILITARY, AND SOCIAL AFFAIRS; PUBLIC DOCUMENTS; BIOGRAPHY, STATISTICS, COMMERCE, FINANCE, LITERATURE, SCIENCE, AGRICULTURE, AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRY.

VOLUME IX.

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PREFACE.

THIS volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, for the year 1869, presents the United States in a condition of peaceful development. The armies have entirely disappeared, the wounds of the recent conflict are healing, the angry passions are calmed, legitimate authority exerts its powerful sway, institutions are moulded to the new order of affairs, industry is everywhere active, improvements of every conceivable kind are projected, and a buoyant spirit inspires the nation with vast anticipations of future prosperity. A change in the persons who administered the Federal Government took place during the year, which secured unanimity and coöperation in all departments. Immediate steps were taken to hasten the work of reconstruction in the three States then unrepresented at Washington. Conventions were held, constitutions drafted and discussed, amended and submitted to the people, and adopted; State officers were chosen, and the entire organization of local governments completed. The progress of the other reconstructed States, under the joint rule of the white and colored man, as a citizen, a legislator, and a judicial officer, the contests of factions, the disturbances of citizens, the relaxation of restraints upon those active in the late hostilities, and the recuperative power of the people, socially and financially, are herein presented. The proposition to throw open the ballot of the country to every citizen, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition; the debates in Congress upon the measure, the arguments in its favor, and the objections against it; the numerous aspects of the question presented and discussed, with the final action of that body and the formal submission of the question to the Legislatures of the States, are also contained in these pages.

The details of the internal affairs of the United States comprise the revenue and expenditures of the Government, the measures taken to reduce the public debt, the modifications of its currency, and the discussions relative to the same; its fluctuations, the changes in the system of taxation to promote the relief of the people, with its effects upon their industrial interests and prosperity; the banking system, with its expansions and contractions; the fruits of agriculture, and the spread of internal trade and commerce; the proceedings in the Southern States to establish securely their social affairs; the various political conventions

of the year, both national and State; the results of elections; the acts of State Legislatures; the rapid improvement of educational and charitable institutions under the care of the State governments; the surprising extension of the facilities of transportation, especially of railroads; the resources of the several States, and all those facts which manifest their rapid progress.

In Europe, the progress of the peaceful reconstruction of the Government of France, under the control of Napoleon, has awakened unusual interest. The improvements in Turkey and the unsettled relations with Egypt; the movements in Spain, under the conduct of a provisional government, to inaugurate popular institutions; the modifications in the relations existing between England and Ireland; the unsettled state of affairs in Italy, together with other events of less importance, and the movements among the nations of Eastern Asia for a more free and friendly intercourse with the civilized world, are very fully narrated in these pages.

The progress of mechanical industry was displayed by the completion of the Pacific Railroad, and the opening for navigation of the Suez Canal, besides many other works less extensive and important, which are herein noticed.

The diplomatic relations of the Federal Government were of a most friendly character during the year, and the discussions or efforts to arrange every vexed question were, by common consent, as it were, laid aside. Negotiations for authority to construct a canal across the Isthmus of Darien, and for the acquisition of San Domingo, were successfully made, and are stated in these pages.

The advance in the various branches of Astronomical, Chemical, and other sciences, with new applications to useful purposes, are extensively described.

Geographical discoveries have been actively pushed forward in various quarters of the globe, with interesting results.

The record of Literature and Literary Progress is as extensive as during any previous year. The titles of all the more important works have been presented, with some remarks on the nature of their contents.

The history of the religious denominations of the country, with an account of their conventions, plans of union, branches, membership, views on public affairs and progress of opinions, are presented from official sources. The preliminary proceedings and opening of the Œcumenical Council in Rome are also fully narrated.

A brief tribute has been given to the memory of deceased persons of note in every department of society.

All important documents, messages, orders, treaties, and letters from official persons, have been inserted entire.

THE

ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

A

ABYSSINIA (Arabic, *Hâbesh*), an empire in Eastern Africa, consists of the three former kingdoms of Amhara, Shoa, and Tigré. It has an area estimated at 158,392 square miles, and a population of from three to four millions. The inhabitants are mostly Ethiopian Christians, but there are many Mohammedans in the towns, the most important of which are the following: Adoa, with a population variously estimated at from 3,500 to 10,000 inhabitants; Aliya Amba, 2,500; Aouzienne (Tigré), 2,000; Dixan (Sarae), 2,000; Gondar, 5,000 to 12,000; Methemmeh, 1,200 to 5,000; Mota (Godjam), 3,000; Tchelenkot (Tigré), 3,000; Kurata has become the most important town since the destruction of Gondar.* The soil of Abyssinia is exceedingly fertile; but the population is subject to exorbitant taxes and continued plundering, and thereby reduced to wretched poverty.

The great interest which the civilized world has for several years taken in Abyssinia has nearly come to an end with the close of the English expedition. The Emperor Theodore II., whose life and tragic death have been narrated in the preceding volumes of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, was, by his superior statesmanship and barbaric energy, on the point of consolidating the incongruous tribes which inhabit that country into one, of creating an Abyssinian nationality, and of securing for his country a recognized rank among the nations of the earth. No more conclusive proof of the exceptional ability of Theodore could be given, than a comparison of his administration with the anarchy into which Abyssinia is now relapsing for want of a man who can follow in his footsteps. In fact, the whole history of Abyssinia from December, 1868, to October, 1869, the date of our latest advices, has been an uninterrupted civil war. Three princes are aspiring to the inheritance of Theodore. Kassai, Prince of Tigré, who last year concluded friendship with Sir Robert Napier, keeps at his court at Adoa two German missionaries, and an English officer, Colonel Kirkham, who renders him important services as instructor of his army; and he intends, as soon as his troops shall have been well drilled, to begin a campaign against Gobazie, the ruler of Amhara, and Menilek, the Prince of Shoa, the former of whom last year caused himself to be proclaimed Emperor of Ethiopia. The occasion for this imminent war has been furnished by the expected arrival of a new Abuna, or head of the Abyssinian Church, who, as usual, is sent by the Coptic Patriarch of Cairo, and for the reception of whom Kassai has sent an embassy to Egypt with costly presents. Gobazie disputes with his neighbor the possession of the Abuna, who generally resides in Amhara; for it is the privilege of the Abuna to crown the Emperor of Ethiopia.

Prince Kassai, one of the three competitors for the throne, has abolished the slave-trade, and the export and import duties. His chiefs have been ordered to assist foreign merchants. Kassai has also established a market for foreign goods at Adoa, and offers large tracts of uncultivated land for the culture of cotton, coffee, indigo, and sugar.

The people of Abyssinia are so well aware of the great loss which their country has suffered by the death of Theodore, that they have begun to venerate him as a saint. The German missionaries in Abyssinia report that thousands of pilgrims visit his grave, where a number of miracles are said to have occurred. A greater influence, however, upon the destinies of Abyssinia, than by the miracles of St. Theodore, is likely to be exercised by the progress which neighboring Egypt cannot fail to make in consequence of the opening of the Isthmus of Suez.

There still are in Abyssinia a few distinguished Europeans who hold a high position. A German naturalist, Wilhelm Schimper, who

* For a fuller account of the topography of the country, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

had left for the East in 1834, settled, after several years' travelling, in Abyssinia, married a native woman, and won the confidence of the Prince Ubié, of Tigré, to such a degree, as to be intrusted by him with the administration of the district of Antilecho. Another German, Eduard Zander, went to Abyssinia in 1847, and obtained likewise an influential position with Ubié. After the decisive battle, in 1855, Zander entered the service with Theodore, was appointed commander of the fortified island of Gorgora in the Lake Tsana, and rose to the highest military rank. He still was with Theodore in February, 1868, but has not been heard from since. Dr. Munzinger, a native of Switzerland, has been for many years English consul at Massowah, near the Abyssinian frontier, where he still resides. He is also married to a native woman, and author of some of the best works on the country and its languages. The Lutheran Church of Sweden, a few years ago, established a mission in Abyssinia, which remained undisturbed by Theodore, and new German missionaries were sent to the country in 1868. The continuance of civil war made, however, the life of foreigners in Abyssynia very insecure. An Englishman, Mr. Powell, his wife, his son, a Swedish missionary, Mr. Elfbold, and several attendants, were, in April, 1869, murdered by the natives. A brother of Mr. Powell, and another relative, Mr. Jenkins, succeeded, subsequently, in tracing the mutilated bones, which, by certain infallible proofs —such as peculiar stoppages of teeth—they were able to identify as the remains of their murdered relatives. Moreover, they avenged the murder by marching with an armed force, placed at their disposal by Prince Kassai, of Tigré, against the Shangalla tribe, the perpetrators of the cruel deed. The Shangallas, however, were informed of the expedition before the followers of Mr. Powell were ready for the attack, and the greater portion escaped free through the jungle, which in this neighborhood is very high. Eight Shangalla savages were killed in the affray, one of whom wore the murdered Mr. Powell's coat, and had, it subsequently transpired, been the chief instigator of the crime. Five villages, numbering fifty-two houses, in which two guns and other relics were found, were ignited and razed to the ground. Fourteen hundred head of cattle were captured, and, in short, every thing was done to show the Shangalla tribe the punishment they had laid themselves open to.

In England, the interest in the Abyssinian question was somewhat kept up by the discovery that the actual cost of the war exceeded all previous calculation. The work already mentioned by Captain Hozier, who was Assistant Military Secretary to Lord Napier, gives on this point some new information, which supplements our previous accounts of the English expedition. If Captain Hozier's statements can be relied upon, in the long records of English blunderings in former wars, nothing can be found to surpass the absurdity of the preparations for the Abyssinian war made in Bombay. The following is a specimen of the complaints of the author: Every thing depended on land transport, and this, according to Captain Hozier, was intentionally crippled. The early difficulties of the expedition were traceable to defective organization, which Sir Robert Napier had to remodel after he took the field. The first of the series of posts by which the British line of march was secured was Senafe, about seven thousand feet above the sea-level, and sixty-five miles from Zulla. The road between these two places was made by the army, and it was liable to be interrupted in the rainy season, so that it was absolutely necessary to accumulate supplies in Senafe sufficient to feed the army in the event of communications being temporarily severed. The only food that could be obtained in the country was meat, and, in order to maintain the health of the troops, vegetables, tea, sugar, and spirits, had to be carried on every day's march. The supplies of these articles required by an army of even moderate dimensions quickly swell up to an enormous amount, and demand a large quantity of carriage. In this requisite the force was still deficient at the end of January, nearly a month after the commander-in-chief and a large part of his army had landed at Zulla. Sufficient time had not yet elapsed to repair an originally defective organization, and the ravages of epidemic among the animals. At Adigerat, in February, an alteration was made in the general organization of the Transport Corps. It was separated into two divisions. One, called the lowland division, carried supplies from Zulla to Adigerat. The other, called the highland division, worked between Adigerat and the army advancing on Magdala. The highland train consisted of four divisions, of two thousand mules each, which were subdivided into troops of one hundred and fifty mules. Its organization was entirely military, and it worked under the department of the quartermaster-general. The two Punjab mule-trains were the nucleus of the highland trains. The muleteers were armed, and under strict discipline, and, consequently, the highland train was independent of the regular army for escorts or convoys, or for guards for grass-cutters. In fact, this train had now become what Sir Robert Napier had wished to have originally. The cold nights of the highland region rendered blankets and warm clothing necessary, and thus increased the baggage necessarily carried by the troops; but, on the other hand, the followers, which are indispensable in India, were left behind at Zulla as an encumbrance.

The English expedition, which was accompanied by a large number of able scholars, has, as was to be expected, called forth many able works on Abyssinia, which have considerably added to our knowledge of the country. Among them we mention: Graham, "Glimpses of Abyssinia" (London, 1867);

Dufton, "Narrative of a Journey through Abyssinia;" the works of Hotton, Chandler, Plowden, Peacock, Abbadie, Lejean, Dr. H. Blanc's "Narrative of Captivity in Abyssinia," etc. (London, 1868); Markham, "A History of the Abyssinian Expedition" (London, 1869. Mr. Markham accompanied the expedition as official geographer); Prideau, "A Journey through the Soudan and Western Abyssinia" (London, 1869); Stern, "The Captive Missionary" (London, 1869); Hozier, "The British Expedition to Abyssinia" (London, 1869).

The following works of German missionaries and *savants* on Abyssinia are the most important: Heuglin's "Reise nach Abyssinien," in 1861–'62 (Jena, 1868); also his "Reise zu Kaiser Theodorus" (1862); R. Andree's "Abyssinia" (Leipsic, 1868); Th. Waldmeier (pilgrim-missionary), "Erlebnisse in Abyssinien in 1858–'68," prefaced by Dr. L. Krapf (Basle, 1869); T. M. Flad, "Zwölf Jahre in Abyssinien, oder Geschichte des Königs Theodor's II. und der Mission unter seiner Regierung" (Basle, 1869); Rohlf's "Im Auftrage sr. Maj. des Königs von Preussen mit dem Englischen Expeditions-corps in Abyssinien" (Bremen, 1869); Count of Seckendorff, "Meine Erlebnisse mit dem Englischen Expeditions-corps in Abyssinien" (Potsdam, 1869); Lieutenant F. Stumm, under the same title (Frankfort, 1868).

An interesting work on the Abyssinian Jews (Falasha) has been published by the German missionary, Flad, "Kurze Schilderung der bisher fast ganz unbekannten Abessinischen Juden" (Basle, 1869). The author, by a long sojourn among the Falashas, was fully competent to give trustworthy information on the life, the manners, and customs, of that interesting tribe. The chief subjects of the book are their origin, country, physical constitution, food, and occupation, religious service, sacrifices, monks, nuns, priests, prophets, magicians, festivals, purification-laws, books, betrothals, wedding, marriage, death, and burial. The Falashas, according to Flad, inhabit the following fourteen provinces: Semia, Vogera, Armatshoho, Valkait, Tchelga, Dembea, Daguaa, Tankel, Atafa, Kunsula, Wandigio, Atschafer, Agau-meder, and Quara. Since 1862, a few hundred families have been living in Shire, and, after the plundering of Dembea, in 1863, many families have emigrated to Begemder, Lasta, and Bellessa. As to their number, only an estimate can be given; according to Flad, they may amount to two hundred thousand souls.

AFGHANISTAN, the Persian name of the land of the Afghans. This country is acquiring a great importance in consequence of its connection with the approaching solution of the Central Asian question (*see* ASIA). It has an area estimated at 225,000 English square miles; it rises toward the northeast to more than 6,000 feet above the sea, and sinks to 1,600 feet toward the southwest. It is bounded on the north by the Hindoo Koosh, the Kohi-Baba, and the Ghoor mountain-ranges. On the east the desolate range of Takht-i-Suleiman separates Afghanistan from India. The river Cabool flows through the eastern mountains, and empties into the Indus. Owing to the diversified elevation of the land, its climatic character offers striking contrasts; the protected valleys producing various fruits, tobacco, and cotton, while snow-storms rage in the northern highlands. Bears, wolves, and foxes, are found, besides lions, tigers, and camels. The mountains seem to abound in valuable minerals and metals, such as iron, lead, gold, and sulphur. The number of inhabitants is variously estimated at from 5,000,000 to 9,000,000. The Afghans belong to the Iranic race, and are divided into an eastern and a western group. Of a vigorous and proud temper, they appear disinclined to amalgamation, though they have been, of late, politically united. War is their element.

The present ruler of Afghanistan, Shere Ali, is the son of the powerful and energetic Dost Mohammed, the ally of England, and the conqueror of Herat, the key to India. Shere Ali succeeded him in 1863. He concluded peace with Persia, but Afghanistan soon fell again a prey to discord and civil war, which ended in January, 1869, after Shere Ali had completely routed his adversaries.

Afghanistan is not so much threatened by the savage tribes of Central Asia as by England and Russia, both of which desire the possession of Herat. Shere Ali owes his success in part to English subsidies in money and arms, for the fall of Samarcand, and the Russian advance toward the Oxus, made it an imperative necessity for England to acquire a trustworthy ally and friend at the gates of India. The grand reception of the Afghan ruler in British India, and his conference with Lord Mayo at Umballa, in March, 1869, created a great sensation in Persia and Russia. England recognized him formally as the sovereign of Afghanistan. In order to strengthen his power in the interior, Shere Ali introduced various changes, the most important of which is the reduction of his former allies to the status of subjects. It would seem, however, as if the plans of Russia had a greater chance of success. The conquests of the generals Kaufmann and Abramow have changed the Emir of Bokhara from a bitter enemy to a devoted vassal to Russia, and opened the way to the very gates of Afghanistan. The relations of Russia to Persia secure to her the influence of Nasredin-Shah, who recently concluded a kind of compromise with Shere Ali by which a portion of Afghan Sûstan has been ceded to the Persians, who erected, immediately, some forts on the eastern shore of the Lake Zare, while the Russians are building roads to Budukshan and Balkh. Iskender-Khan, the legitimate heir of Herat, has been taken to St. Petersburg by General Kaufmann, and entered the Russian army, in the hope of reobtaining his paternal inheritance by Russian assistance.

The literature on the history and geography

of Afghanistan is not very copious. Among the best works are: Raye, "History of the War in Afghanistan," London, 1861; Bellew, "Journal of a Political Mission to Afghanistan," London, 1862; the reports of travels by Conolly, Burnes, Masson, Ferrier, Bellew, Vambéry, etc.

The Afghan language (Pukhtu) belongs to the Iranic group of the Indo-Germanic languages; it is mixed with Persian, Arabic, Syriac, and Chaldean elements, and written in Persian characters. It has an eastern and a western dialect.

Recent works on Afghan language and literature are scarce; among them are, Raverty, "Grammar of the Pukhtu," "Dictionary of the Pukhtu," and the reader "Gulshan-i-rôh" (Selections from the Poetry of the Afghans), together, 3 vols., London, 1860–'61. Müller, "Die Conjugation des Afghan. Verbums" (Vienna, 1867). There exists, besides, a translation of the New Testament and the historical books of the Old into the Pukhtu, made by T. Lõwenthal, and edited by the Serampore Bible Society in India.

AFRICA. The year 1869 will remain in the history of Africa of prominent importance. Not only for many years, but for many centuries, no event has occurred which could stand any comparison with the opening of the Suez Canal, in November, 1869. It was one of the great sensations of the year, and not of late has an equal solemnity on African soil been witnessed. The attendance, at the festivities, of the Empress of France, the Emperor of Austria, the Crown-prince of Prussia, and the representatives of the chief newspapers of Europe and America, gave a brilliant and weighty expression to the belief of the whole Christian world that the opening of the Suez Canal signifies an entire revolution in the relation of this part of Africa to the family of the civilized nations. It is now the common expectation that a revolution of trade and commerce must commence; that Egypt must rise from its past lethargy; that it cannot much longer remain a vassal of Turkey, but must become the seat of a new and great empire, with an extensive commerce, on the one hand, with Turkey, Greece, Italy, France, Spain, Portugal, Great Britain, and the remainder of Europe, and, on the other, with Hindostan, Persia, the western and southern coast of Asia, and the eastern coast of Africa. The annual progress of Egypt will henceforth command in the annals of contemporaneous history a much more prominent place, and its natural influence upon its weak neighbors cannot fail to lead, ere long, to considerable changes in the map of Africa. From a religious point of view, the transformation which Egypt, under the influence of European ideas, is sure to undergo, and the effect this may have upon the Mohammedan world at large, will be a problem well worthy to be watched. In Egypt as well as in Turkey, both the government and the people anticipate that a struggle for the independence of Egypt is near at hand. Throughout the year 1869 the Government of Egypt was involved in an open diplomatic war with the Sultan, and several times the outbreak of hostilities appeared imminent. At the close of the year the submission of the Khedive of Egypt to the ultimatum of Turkey was announced. (*See* EGYPT.)

The celebrated constructor of the Suez Canal, Ferdinand de Lesseps, is meditating another project, equally grand in its conception, and which, if carried out, cannot fail to have, likewise, a great influence on the future destinies of the African Continent—the conversion of the Desert of Sahara into a great inland sea. The plan is seriously studied and prepared, but no steps to its realization have yet been taken.

Abyssinia has lost again the transient importance which the English expedition imparted to it. Civil war again reigns supreme, and there appears to be no immediate prospect of the establishment of a strong and consolidated Abyssinian empire. The effects of the war were, however, still visible during the year in the production of a large number of able works, by English, German, and other scholars, which have greatly improved our knowledge of the people and the country, and facilitated the way for the establishment of a closer intercourse between Abyssinia and the civilized world. (For some interesting details of these literary researches, *see* ABYSSINIA.)

An event which cannot fail to have a considerable influence upon the progress of civilization in Africa is, the conversion to Christianity of the Queen of Madagascar. For about half a century the rulers of this important island have been vacillating between Christianity and paganism, between civilization and barbaric isolation. Now the victory of Christianity and civilization seems to have been forever decided. Paganism had long been undermined, and was only upheld by the influence of the court. Now there is a rush of the civil officers of all classes, and of the leading men of the island, to solicit admission into the Christian Church, and the utter collapse of paganism is drawing near with remarkable celerity. Madagascar, with its five million inhabitants, will be the largest among the independent Christian states, the others being Abyssinia, Liberia, the Orange Free State, and the Transvaal Republic. (*See* MADAGASCAR.)

In September the town of Bonny, on the coast of Western Africa, was almost wholly destroyed in a fight, lasting thirty-six hours, between two rival chiefs, Oko Jumbo and Ja Ja. These native conflicts are becoming much more sanguinary than formerly, because the parties are supplying themselves largely from the Europeans with guns, rifles, and munitions of war. Under the treaty between Great Britain and the king and chiefs of Bonny, they undertake not to go to war so long as they are indebted to the merchants trading for goods, under the penalty of a fine of two hundred puncheons of

palm-oil (worth about six thousand pounds), besides all damages and expenses. This is the only safeguard white men have against a disturbance like the present becoming most disastrous.

The population of Africa is estimated, by the best authorities, at about one hundred and eighty-eight millions. A real census of the population is only made in the European colonies, and even there it is, in most cases, based, not upon an actual count, but upon taxes and hearths. In the dependencies of Turkey nothing but estimates are made; only Egypt has taken a few censuses, but the method of taking them has inspired but little confidence in their accuracy. As to the interior, the vague statements of travellers are the only source of our information. This source has, of late, however, become much more abundant than in former years. If we do not know yet the actual number of the population, we already have a tolerably trustworthy picture of the density of the population in the different sections of the country. The densest population is to be found on the land-girdle encircling the Gulf of Guinea. The territory to the north of this girdle is but thinly settled, even Nubia, Kordofan, Taka, and Abyssinia, not excepted. In the countries of the Gallas, and the shores of the White Nile, the population is again more numerous; farther south, down to Sofala, the population again declines; Livingstone found it on the Zambesi small in comparison with what the country would be able to support. British Kaffraria has about twenty-two men to a square mile, but the southern extremity of Africa is, again, thinly peopled. Only on the Cunene we again find an increase in the density of the population, which from there increases steadily in Benguela, Angola, up to the equator.

AGRICULTURE. The necessity of issuing the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA early in the year succeeding that whose date it bears, renders it impossible to obtain accurate and complete returns of the crops of the preceding year, agricultural statistics being always very slow of collection. We are compelled, therefore, in this, as in the last volume, to give the complete returns of the year before the last in a condensed form, which have just been published by the Agricultural Department, and then to make our estimates of the principal crops for 1869 from the data furnished by the monthly reports. This is the less to be regretted, because these monthly reports have now attained to such a measure of accuracy as to approximate with sufficient nearness to the official returns, to answer all practical purposes. The final returns of the principal crops for 1868, and the comparative crops of 1860 and 1867, were as follows:

CROPS.	1860.	1867.	1868.	Value of Crops of 1868.
Corn ..... bushels....	838,792,740	768,320,000	906,527,000	$569,512,460
Wheat ..... "	173,104,924	217,875,400	224,036,600	319,195,290
Rye ..... "	21,101,380	23,490,000	22,504,800	28,683,677
Oats ..... "	172,643,185	275,098,000	254,960,800	142,484,910
Barley ..... "	15,825,898	25,727,000	22,896,100	29,809,931
Buckwheat ..... "	17,571,818	21,359,000	19,863,700	20,814,315
Potatoes ..... "	111,148,867	67,783,000	106,090,000	84,150,040
Tobacco ..... pounds....	434,209,461	323,724,000	320,982,000	40,081,942
Hay ..... tons....	19,033,896	26,277,000	26,141,900	351,941,930
Cotton ..... bales of 400 pounds....	5,387,052	2,300,000	2,500,000	225,000,000
Wool ..... pounds....	60,264,913	112,000,000	104,000,000	51,500,000
Aggregate value of principal crops in 1868				$1,862,674,495

How much should be added for the crops of sugar (cane, sorghum, maple, and beet-root), honey, and wax, peas, beans, rice, hemp, flax, hops, sweet potatoes, beets, turnips, parsnips, squashes, melons, cucumbers, onions, silk, fruits of all kinds, and dairy products, is, of course, a matter of conjecture; but, basing our estimates on the census of 1860, with the known increase in many particulars, both in quantity and price, we are satisfied that $400,000,000 is not an over-estimate, which would give for agricultural products, aside from live-stock, or the meat and skins of slaughtered animals, $2,262,674,495 as the agricultural productions of the year 1868.

The following table shows the number, average price, and total value, of the domestic animals in the United States, in February, 1869, together with the number of cattle, sheep, and swine, in Great Britain and Ireland, in 1868:

LIVE-STOCK IN UNITED STATES, FEBRUARY, 1869.	Number.	Average Price.	Total Value.	Cattle, etc., in Great Britain and Ireland in 1868.
Horses	6,332,793	$84 16	$533,024,787	.....
Mules and Asses	921,662	106 74	98,386,359	.....
Milch Cows	9,247,714	39 11	361,752,676	3,625,137
Oxen and other Cattle	12,185,385	25 12	306,211,473	5,458,279
Sheep	37,724,279	2 17	82,139,979	35,607,812
Swine	23,316,476	6 26	146,188,755	3,189,167
Total value of live-stock in United States			$1,527,704,029	

We now proceed with our usual summary of the crops of 1869.

Wheat.—The crop was in most sections better than in 1868, and a large acreage was sown. Had the spring-wheat been equal to the winter-wheat, the crop would have been unprecedented; but floods in some sections injured the spring-wheat seriously, and the long wet season caused it to smut and to lodge. The average improvement on the previous year is 11 per cent., and some of the great wheat States do even better than this. The aggregate cannot vary greatly from 260,000,000 bushels.

The *Corn* crop was in some of the largest corn-growing States very much below that of 1868. A greater breadth was sown, and some of the new States and Territories raised larger quantities than ever before. We put this crop at 846,000,000 bushels.

Rye was on the average about six per cent. better than in 1868, and did not vary much from the crop of 1867. We estimate it at 23,850,000 bushels.

Oats were materially better, both in quantity and quality, than in 1868, averaging 16 per cent. advance in quantity, and a considerably greater weight. We estimate the crop at 295,750,000 bushels.

Barley is never a large crop, and its use for malting purposes is decreasing, from the substitution of cheap sugars. Still we have every year imported considerable quantities from Europe. The crop of 1869 was about 12 per cent. better than that of 1868, amounting to 25,640,000 bushels.

Buckwheat was worse than in 1868 by about 7½ per cent., and the crop did not probably exceed 18,400,000 bushels.

The yield of *Potatoes* was large, but the quality was not so good as the previous year. We estimate the crop at 114,600,000 bushels.

Tobacco fell off slightly from the high average of the previous year. The yield is estimated at 319,377,000 pounds.

The *Hay* crop has varied but little for three years past. It approximates very closely to that of 1867, being not less than 26,250,000 tons.

The *Cotton* crop was larger than in any year since 1860, amounting to not less than 2,700,000 commercial bales, of 466.8 lbs. average weight, or fully 3,000,000 bales of 400 lbs.

The *Root* crops generally were large—as were also the melons, squash, pumpkin, and cucumber crops—and of excellent quality.

Of *Fruits*, the small fruits, owing to the wet and cool season, were not as plentiful or of as good quality as usual. Grapes were abundant, and generally of fine quality. Peaches were very plentiful, but not quite as large as usual. Apples were not abundant, but of good quality. Pears were of fine size and flavor, and moderately plentiful. Of most other fruits there was a deficiency.

The *Hop* crop was not so large as the previous year, but of better quality, and commanded somewhat better prices.

Wool is still laboring under a considerable degree of depression, but there are indications of improvement. The failure of several heavy manufacturers of woollen goods, early in the year, and the very low price at which foreign wools were thrown upon the market, have contributed to increase the discouragement of the wool-growers, but these difficulties are now receding, and a considerable number of new woollen mills have been put in operation, especially on the Pacific coast. The price of wool in the later months of 1869 advanced slightly, but at the close of the year there was again a declension in price. The entire wool product of the year, including both the clip and pulled wool, did not probably exceed 100,000,000 pounds, of which nearly one-fifth was grown on the Pacific coast.

The *Wine* product of the year was very large, and every year increases it. The California vineyards produced nearly ten million gallons, aside from the large quantity of spurious wines which, we are sorry to say, are manufactured in San Francisco; and the vineyards on the Hudson River, on the shores of Seneca and Crooked Lakes, on Lake Erie, at Cincinnati and its vicinity, and in Missouri, have added not less than six million gallons more to the supply. A considerable amount of brandy is also distilled from these wines.

The production of flax and hemp has fallen off of late years. Flax is grown largely for the seed, but the greater part of the lint is wasted, because jute, a greatly inferior but easily manufactured fibre, can be imported more cheaply than the flax can be produced. Less than one-fourth of the quantity of hemp is now grown in Kentucky and Missouri which was produced there in 1860, because manilla and other Eastern fibres can be imported more cheaply than hemp can be raised.

The number of *Hogs* slaughtered for the pork-packing trade up to March 1, 1869, were about 2,400,000, against 2,781,180 the previous year, a falling off of 14 per cent., caused largely by the prevalence of hog-cholera, and perhaps influenced to a slight extent by the alarm in regard to the presence of trichinæ and the germs of tape-worm in pork.

We give below two tables: the first showing the number of acres devoted to each of the principal crops in the United States in 1867 and 1868 (the acreage for 1869 will not be made up for several months to come), and the space devoted to the same crops, or a part of them, in Great Britain and Ireland, together with the average yield per acre of each crop, and its average value per acre, in the United States; the second giving the average yield of farm products to the acre in each State in 1868, and the average value of all crops per acre in each State the same year. This last table will be an excellent guide to the comparative value of farming-lands in different States.

PRODUCTS	No. of Acres, 1867.	No. of Acres, 1868.	Average yield per Acre in United States.	Average value of farm products per acre in the United States.	Acreage in 1868, United Kingdom.	Average yield to Acre, 1868, United Kingdom.
			Bushels.			*Bushels.*
Indian Corn or Maize.....	32,529,249	34,887,246	25.9	$16.32	.....	....
Wheat.....	18,321,561	18,460,132	12.1	17.29	3,951,018	36
Rye.....	1,689,175	1,651,321	18.6	17.37	54,827	....
Oats.....	10,746,416	9,665,736	26.3	14.74	4,469,887	65
Barley.....	1,181,217	937,438	24.4	31.79	2,348,068	38
Buckwheat.....	1,227,826	1,113,933	17.8	18.68	.....	....
Potatoes.....	1,192,195	1,181,552	93.7	74.36	1,584,218	....
Tobacco.....	494,333	427,189	751 lbs.	93.82	.....	....
Hay.....	20,020,554	21,541,573	1.21 tons.	16.33	5,690,318	....
Cotton	7,000,000	7,000,000	160.7 lbs.	32.14	.....	....
Total	94,343,326	96,816,240				

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE CASH VALUE OF FARM PRODUCTS PER ACRE FOR THE YEAR 1868.

STATES.	Corn.	Wheat.	Rye.	Oats.	Barley.	Buckwheat.	Potatoes.	Tobacco.	Hay.	Average value per Acre, of all crops.
Maine.....	$41 12	$24 00	$24 15	$18 04	$20 28	$22 08	$101 40	.....	$12 24	$16 72
New Hampshire..	50 05	28 31	20 22	20 14	31 75	18 60	93 72	.....	13 50	18 03
Vermont.....	51 59	36 16	21 16	22 50	33 12	13 44	81 00	.....	14 79	19 54
Massachusetts ...	48 84	37 20	26 72	21 69	31 35	14 25	107 88	$299 00	25 16	29 96
Rhode Island....	44 55	31 46	30 71	21 56	36 80	19 89	108 07	.....	22 40	32 79
Connecticut.....	45 90	31 00	21 46	22 71	25 20	21 84	106 47	362 50	19 83	24 79
New York.....	35 84	30 36	20 68	19 24	38 09	19 89	71 44	100 00	15 00	21 49
New Jersey.....	37 12	29 32	20 25	15 45	35 49	21 37	94 09	73 50	26 60	28 46
Pennsylvania....	35 00	25 34	17 42	17 79	35 09	17 98	81 84	66 00	21 60	23 58
Delaware.....	21 25	22 80	9 38	4 80	29 28	25 00	75 00	54 00	25 00	14 91
Maryland.....	24 09	21 31	16 33	11 52	28 67	22 44	87 42	60 48	21 46	21 16
Virginia.....	14 66	15 96	9 79	9 61	15 00	18 03	54 76	66 55	15 86	16 59
North Carolina...	11 15	11 80	9 54	8 45	19 50	12 94	67 64	109 71	18 75	13 92
South Carolina...	10 20	12 60	7 90	8 24	17 10	.....	156 55	85 00	16 15	10 93
Georgia.....	11 55	12 32	11 73	9 87	33 32	.....	150 96	175 50	21 90	12 13
Florida.....	14 80	24 75	17 50	11 50	28 60	.....	187 00	148 40	21 00	15 50
Alabama.....	9 28	12 07	9 80	10 29	18 48	.....	92 11	158 48	32 00	9 97
Mississippi.....	12 65	19 92	20 68	15 45	14 00	.....	94 25	260 78	21 25	13 17
Louisiana.....	16 50	18 25	21 85	24 00	.....	.....	288 50	210 00	20 00	17 30
Texas	15 50	13 50	18 76	23 94	23 76	.....	91 50	149 12	12 50	16 11
Arkansas.....	19 21	27 00	14 09	18 00	23 10	.....	83 16	104 40	20 00	20 18
Tennessee..	12 39	12 40	11 25	10 96	26 16	13 79	54 75	133 66	19 37	14 48
West Virginia....	26 25	20 11	16 59	12 59	31 99	22 01	62 10	104 48	18 75	22 19
Kentucky.....	15 36	15 81	14 03	10 56	26 72	18 45	53 60	89 53	16 82	17 20
Missouri.....	17 27	20 86	17 76	14 14	42 10	17 81	81 00	89 94	15 40	17 92
Illinois.....	14 70	13 80	15 06	12 44	35 08	17 76	57 51	68 88	14 00	14 52
Indiana.....	17 68	16 80	15 79	12 19	32 18	18 33	66 00	74 02	14 97	17 01
Ohio	20 40	21 45	15 50	14 50	33 07	18 51	66 36	61 86	17 94	20 10
Michigan.....	25 08	20 50	19 72	15 05	36 34	15 90	52 64	231 00	18 75	21 00
Wisconsin.....	19 14	13 00	16 74	15 68	32 40	14 98	55 44	150 00	13 20	14 84
Minnesota	21 44	12 45	14 00	17 28	28 50	19 98	92 11	140 00	9 80	14 62
Iowa.....	13 69	13 77	16 15	11 55	32 24	18 06	60 48	178 25	9 75	13 28
Kansas.....	17 82	21 06	21 42	14 25	22 54	22 22	79 90	143 00	11 83	18 62
Nebraska.....	15 80	14 88	18 30	16 41	35 25	14 12	69 30	115 50	10 09	16 35
California.....	45 00	20 60	19 60	21 00	28 84	18 00	50 40	.....	19 95	22 86

The diseases among cattle and live-stock generally have not been as prevalent as in 1868. There has been, however, in the West a considerable amount of the Spanish, or, as Prof. Gamgee calls it, "splenic fever," and it seems to be traced to the Texas cattle. Just at the close of the year a disease, bearing resemblance to rinderpest, made its appearance in some of the Hudson River counties of New York, but has not as yet spread to any extent. Notice has been sent to our Government by some of our consuls in Europe of the existence there of a new disease of cattle, known as "the foot and mouth disease," contagious and debilitating, but not generally fatal, and precautions have been taken to prevent its introduction here. The "hog cholera" has greatly diminished in its prevalence, and severity, but still destroys a considerable number of swine. The treatment of the foot-rot

in sheep with the cresylic foot-dip, a cheap carbolic-acid soap, has proved effectual wherever it has been tried.

Considerable attention has been paid to the testing of new fibrous vegetables, not so much for the making of woven fabrics as for the supply of material for making paper, though both have been considered in the investigations which have taken place. The new demands for paper, not only for books and newspapers, but for collars, and cuffs, for stereotyping, for papier maché goods of all kinds, for boats, the walls of houses, for roofing and sheathing purposes, as a substitute for leather, etc., etc., have quite outrun the old supply of material for it, raised the price of rags so high as to make them too costly for the paper-maker's use, and compelled him to turn to other fibrous materials for the production of this indispensable article. Straw and husks answer a very tolerable purpose for binders' boards, and the coarser papers generally, but the paper made from them is too brittle and tender, and often too variable in color, for many purposes. The bamboo, the giant rush or cane of the Southern coast, the large *malva* or mallow of the Jersey swamps, basswood shavings, and a variety of other articles, have been used. All these will make paper, and most of them paper of good quality; but the practical question is, can they be furnished in sufficient quantity, and at a price sufficiently low, to make paper-making profitable? The English paper-makers have been using for some years past a fibrous grass, known as *esparto* grass, growing upon the barren heath-lands of Spain, and gathered by the poor there. There are two genera of this, the true and the bastard *Atocha*, known botanically as *Macrochloa tenacissima*, and *Lygeum spartum*. This material makes an excellent paper, and the English manufacturers consumed, in 1868, 95,000 tons of it. At first it was used in connection with rags, but after a time it was found to make better paper alone than with rags, and the process was materially simplified. The present duty on the *esparto* grass prohibits its importation here at such a price as would make it profitable; but an effort, which promises to be successful, has been made to encourage its growth on the waste and sandy lands of the sea-coast in the Southern States, which are now unimproved, but are well adapted to the crop. Meantime, attention has been attracted to a species of grass found abundantly in river-bottoms and marshy lands, especially in the Mississippi Valley. It is called marsh or cord grass, and, by the botanists, *Spartina cynosuroides*. It can be mowed in September or October, and brought to a market near at hand for about five dollars a ton. There are no joints in the stalk, and experts pronounce it a better fibre for paper than the *esparto*. A Mr. Woodruff, a paper-manufacturer of Quincy, Illinois, has used many hundred tons of it for making a fine quality of wrapping-paper, and has recently changed his mill into a print and book paper-mill, in which he purposes using this stock only. On the Pacific coast the manufacturers are beginning to utilize the *tule* rushes for the same purpose. Still more recently, the paper-makers of the Atlantic States have been making experiments to ascertain the practicability of using the okra-plant for paper-making. Its fibre is sufficiently strong to answer the purpose, and it is contended that it will yield such immense quantities to the acre, that it will prove a profitable crop to cultivate for paper pulp. For this purpose, as well as for the production of fibres for cordage and for bagging, it has been proposed to bring cargoes of the textile fibre (*Bromelia sylvestris*) from the Isthmus of Tehuantepec; or of some of the agaves, from Yucatan, Campeachy, or the Mexican coast. The fibrous portions of these may be easily extracted, and they cost little besides the transportation. From some of these sources, or those indicated in previous volumes of the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, it is probable that an ample supply of material for paper-manufacture will be obtained.

FISH-CULTURE has made great progress in most of the Eastern States within a few years past, and in every State on the Atlantic slope there are numerous ponds and hatching-houses for the rearing of brook and lake trout, salmon, whitefish, black bass, etc., while the rivers are fast becoming better stocked with the finny tribes. An effort is now making to introduce the system of oyster cultivation which has proved so successful and profitable in France. The whole business of oyster-planting on our coasts has been conducted in a careless, wasteful, hap-hazard way, which has involved a great loss of the valuable bivalves from overcrowding, silting over, and the needless destruction of millions of the *spat* or embryo oysters; and, though the oysters of the American coast are the finest in the world, a few more years of the reckless mismanagement of past years would enhance their value above the means of the common people. Oyster-breeding is a very simple and easily-acquired art, and the oyster is so prolific, two million ova being often found in a single female at the breeding-season, that there is no difficulty with ordinary care in obtaining a largely-remunerative crop. About three years are required to bring the oyster to perfection, but, by planting them in successive years, there can be always an ample crop each year after the first is ready for the market.

The culture of the beet for sugar, though not proving so successful as was expected, at Chatsworth, Illinois, owing to the lack of skilled workmen, or some other cause, has been taken up and prosecuted largely and with most admirable results, in Wisconsin, in California, where it bids fair to attain a great success, and become a leading article among the agricultural products of that fertile State, and in New Jer-

sey, where some of the light and sandy loams have proved well adapted to the production of a superior quality of the white sugar-beet. It will doubtless become in a few years one of our most valuable articles of produce. The methods of extracting, reducing, and clarifying the syrup, have been much cheapened and simplified within a year or two past, and there seems to be no good reason why beet-sugar should not be produced as cheaply as that from the cane. The rearing and feeding of silk-worms, and the sale of their eggs and cocoons, are becoming a very considerable business, and will hasten the period now fast approaching when the silk consumed in this country shall be wholly manufactured here. California is admirably adapted for silk culture, and is embarking in it extensively. She is already exporting very largely both of silk-worms' eggs and cocoons, and her cocoons command the highest prices of any in the world. The silk-worm is not affected with disease there, nor is it killed by the thunder-storms which prove so fatal in Europe.

The Agricultural Colleges and agricultural departments of previously-existing colleges, established under the agricultural land-grants of Congress, have not as yet achieved the success which was expected of them. This has resulted from several causes: there were, previously to the establishment of these institutions, no schools in this country in which a thorough training in many branches of agricultural science could be acquired, and the European agricultural schools and colleges were intended to supply intelligent agriculturists for a different climate, soil, and circumstances, and the sudden demand for so many agricultural professors could not readily be met by men competent for the work which they undertook. There has been also a great degree of ignorance on the part of many of the trustees of these institutions of what was required for an agricultural college. The model farms have been very far from what ordinary farms could or should be made; and the whole course of instruction lacked clearness and definiteness of purpose. There are, in all, twenty-one of these colleges or collegiate departments organized, and in a few of them there is the prospect of a better state of things; but, as most of them are at present constituted, we believe the young man who aspires to become a skilful and successful farmer would do better to hire himself out, at no matter what wages, for three years, to some clear-headed, intelligent farmer, and learn by actual experience the practical value of his plans of farming, studying meanwhile at all intervals of leisure those sciences which have a direct bearing upon agriculture. He would in this way acquire fewer theories, but more and better practical knowledge. A very important question to agriculturists and those intending to become farmers is, how long it will be possible to obtain land at any reasonable price. Already in most, even of the newer States, the Government lands, except the most sterile and worthless, are already taken up, and farming lands advantageously situated are not to be obtained below ten, fifteen, or twenty dollars the acre. The tendency to accumulate large landed estates is greatly on the increase; and farms, ranches, or estates, of from 50,000 to 800,000 acres are by no means uncommon in the regions west of the Mississippi River and on the Pacific slope. It is not too much to believe, what is roundly asserted by many of the most intelligent land-owners at the West, that by the year 1900 there will be no Government lands worth having (except perhaps in Alaska) to be purchased, and that no good farming-lands will be purchasable under a hundred dollars per acre in our vast domain. There is, indeed, a large amount as yet professedly unsold; but of this the greater part is as yet unsurveyed, though its available tracts are staked for preëmption, location with land-warrants, or under the homestead act, or destined to be secured by some of the land-grant railroad companies, or set apart for educational or charitable purposes. Vast tracts, too, especially in the Rocky Mountain and Pacific regions consist of mountain-summits, or desert and uninhabitable lands, like the bad lands (*mauvaises terres*) of Nebraska and Dakota, or covered with extensive lakes like much of Minnesota and Wisconsin, or great masses of primitive rock. Mr. Ezra Cornell, the wealthy and shrewd founder of Cornell University, though employing for three years past one of the best land-buyers in the West, and expending money very freely to secure good opportunities for locating land-warrants, has found it impossible to locate the whole amount of the agricultural land-grant of New York (990,000 acres) advantageously, and is still securing lands wherever he can find those which are available for his purpose. The farmer who has ample capital, and farms on a large scale, with the improved methods of ploughing, cultivating, sowing, reaping, mowing, thrashing, and packing his products by machinery, driven by steam or other motive power, has greatly the advantage of the small farmer, and can reckon up his profits each year by scores of thousands of dollars; this style of farming may be expected therefore almost wholly to monopolize agriculture as it is already doing manufacturing, commerce, mining, and trade. This tendency to land monopoly is a great evil; for land differs from other descriptions of property in giving to its owner a greater measure of independence, as well as a more permanent interest in the national welfare. Especially is this the case in a country where suffrage is free. Were every voter a landholder, our legislation would be far more thoughtful and judicious than it now is. A nation, the large overwhelming majority of whose voters are dependent upon others, and have no tie binding them to the soil, is on the high-road to ruin.

ALABAMA. During this year there was no election for State officers held, except in one or two districts, to fill vacancies in the Legislature. On the first Tuesday in August there was held an election for representatives to the Forty-first Congress, resulting in the choice of Messrs. Buck, Buckley, Heflin, and Hays, the Republican candidates in the first, second, third, and fourth districts respectively; and Dox and Sherrod, Democrats, in the fifth and sixth districts respectively.

In December, 1868, a resolution was passed by the Legislature, directing the Executive to initiate proceedings for the annexation of the territory of Western Florida. Accordingly Governor Smith appointed three commissioners, who, in May, met three commissioners appointed by the Governor of Florida, and terms were agreed upon for the proposed transfer. The leading features of the contract are as follows: 1. It conveys to the State of Alabama jurisdiction over all the country west of the Appalachicola River. 2. It vests the State with a title to all the lands belonging to the State of Florida west of the Appalachicola, which are estimated at over two million acres, and are supposed to be of the average value of $1.25 per acre; and with the right to five per cent. of the proceeds of the sale of public lands. It is provided that these lands shall continue subject to the trusts imposed by the act of Congress donating them. 3. The contract requires that the State of Alabama shall issue its bonds in favor of the State of Florida for $1,000,000, payable in thirty years and bearing eight per cent. interest; and that two railroads, radiating from Pensacola, one in the direction of Appalachicola, and the other in the direction of Pollard, shall receive the benefit of the indorsement law of the State of Alabama, approved September 22, 1868, and entitled "An Act to amend the law to establish a system of internal improvement in the State of Alabama." If this contract is consummated, it will add to the State of Alabama the eight counties of West Florida, which are represented to have contained, in 1867, a white population of 17,813, and a black population of 8,858, and paid a revenue to the State of $31,245.92. By the adoption of the contract, Alabama will acquire about 10,000 square miles (6,400,000 acres) of territory, with a water front on the Gulf of Mexico of about 180 miles, including the harbors of Pensacola, St. Joseph, St. Andrews, and Appalachicola. The harbor of Pensacola is unquestionably the best on the Gulf of Mexico, as it affords a safe anchorage, and an entrance for vessels drawing twenty-four feet of water. The question was submitted to a popular vote on the 2d of November, in those counties of Florida to be transferred. There were 1,162 votes cast in favor of annexation to Alabama, and 661 against it.

Before taking effect, it is provided that the agreement shall be approved by the Legislatures of both States and by Congress.

On the 2d of June an Immigration Convention met at Montgomery to adopt measures for the encouragement of immigration into the State. A committee of five was appointed to prepare an address to the people of the United States and of Europe, setting forth the advantages offered by the State, and the true feeling of the people toward immigrants from any and all sections. After stating the agricultural, mineral, commercial, manufacturing, and railway advantages, the address concludes:

But, one and all, this convention of the State of Alabama declares with no dissentient voice:

1. That all new population, from whatever country or section, coming among us to aid in the recuperation and development of our material interests, is heartily and honestly welcome.

2. That all latitude of opinion, thought, and expression, will be found to obtain among us; and that neither nationality, sect, nor political views, will be found to injure any man in his business interests, or subject him to social annoyance in any degree—far less to cause him the least danger of any outrage whatever.

3. That any and all immigrants, who come from any point whatever for the purpose of aiding their own material interests—and, through them, of benefiting the State at large—not only meet encouragement, but hearty welcome, and every facility we can offer.

Exertions have been made during the year to connect Northern and Southern Alabama by means of the South and North Alabama Railroad, the charter of which provides for its extension from Montgomery to Decatur. On the 16th of February the Board of Directors met and elected ex-Governor R. M. Patton as president, *vice* John Whiting, deceased. Under the contract, closed in April, work was to be commenced at Montgomery, and the road completed to Lime Kiln by the 1st of October, 1870, to Elyton by the 1st of April, 1871, and to Decatur by the 1st of December, 1871. The contracting parties are to receive for building the road, in round numbers, $5,014,000. One-fourth of this amount is payable in State indorsed bonds, and the remainder is payable in cash so far as the remaining indorsed State bonds, the city bonds, and the three per cent. fund, will go. If the cash realized from these sources does not complete the payment, the remainder is payable in second-mortgage bonds at 66⅔ cents, convertible into stock within ten years.

On the 1st of December a meeting of the stockholders of this road was held, and F. M. Gilmer, Jr., elected president for the ensuing year. During the year there has been fair progress in the construction of the Montgomery and Eufaula and the Montgomery and Selma railroads. The latter road runs along the southern bank of the Alabama River to Selma, there connecting with roads to Vicksburg, Memphis, Rome, Dalton, etc., and will establish a continous railroad line between the Mississippi and the Atlantic.

The Executive, in his message to the Legislature, having called the attention of that body

to the policy of railroad management, whereby there was an unjust discrimination between the through and local freight tariffs, operating to the prejudice of Alabama merchants, a convention of the officers of the various railroad companies in the State was held at Montgomery on the 6th of November, and a committee appointed to confer with a joint committee of the Legislature for the adoption of a plan securing the best interests of the State.

In accordance with the law requiring the indorsement of railroad bonds by the State to the amount of $16,000 per mile, indorsements from September, 1868, to the meeting of the Legislature, November 15, 1869, were made as follows:

For the Alabama and Chattanooga Railroad	$1,800,000
For the Montgomery and Eufaula Railroad	480,000
For the Selma, and Marion, and Memphis Railroad	320,000
	$2,600,000

The aggregate number of convicts in the penitentiary on the 15th of November was three hundred and seventy-four, of whom less than forty were mechanics, over two hundred were common laborers, and the balance farmers, cooks, barbers, waiters, etc. Under the lease made in 1866 with Messrs. Smith and McMillan, for the period of six years, they are authorized to employ the convicts anywhere in the State, in coal-fields, iron-mines, and in the building of railroads. The policy of employing the convicts in this way seems to have been adopted mainly as a means of avoiding the expense that would have been entailed upon the State if they had remained within the prison.

The finances of the State are in a sound condition. For the fiscal year ending September 30th, the expenditures amounted to $1,412,857.81, of which the sum of $380,453.39 was for expenses incurred during the previous year. The receipts from all sources during the year amounted to $686,451.02, which, with the balance in the treasury at the beginning of the year, made a total of $902,238. The surplus remaining in the treasury at the end of the fiscal year was $127,136.15. The present bonded indebtedness of the State amounts to $5,370,400, on which the annual interest amounts to $307,854.

The school-lands in Nebraska given to Alabama, in exchange for the sixteenth sections embraced in the twelve miles square reservation in this State, realized by sale $20,480.

The eighth annual fair of the Alabama State Agricultural Society was held at Montgomery on the 23d to the 26th of November. The amount of the premiums exceeded $5,000, and the contributions in the various departments were indicative of the general industrial prosperity of the State.

The Legislature assembled at Montgomery on the 15th of November; Governor Smith submitted the usual message. After congratulating the Legislature on the favorable auspices under which it had assembled, he stated that the removal of political disabilities was a wise measure, and hoped that Congress would pass a general law for the removal of all those which were imposed by the fourteenth amendment; he spoke favorably of the freedmen in their exercise of the elective franchise, argued in favor of immigration as a means of developing the material resources of the State and advancing its prosperity, and recommended a repeal of the law requiring the indorsement by the State of railroad bonds to the amount of $16,000 per mile. He regarded the registration law as too complicated and too easily manipulated by designing men, and recommended a simplification of the system so as to provide against the abuses to which it was liable. A reduction of the rate of taxation was recommended to one-half, or at most six-tenths of one per cent., instead of three-fourths of one per cent. He transmitted also, with his approval, the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

The Legislature at once proceeded to the consideration of this important measure, which was ratified by both Senate and House without delay. The vote in the Senate was yeas 24, nays none; in the House it was yeas 69, nays 16. A bill was presented for the reorganization of the municipal-government of Mobile. This bill provided for vacating the municipal offices of the city, and constituted the Lieutenant-Governor, the Speaker of the House, and the Attorney-General, a board of commissioners, whose duty it should be to appoint a mayor, twenty-four aldermen, and eight members of the Common Council. It was made the duty of the Executive immediately to commission such appointees, who should continue in office until the election and qualification of their successors. It was further provided, that an election should be held in Mobile on the Tuesday after the first Monday in December, 1870, and every year thereafter, for the election of municipal officers, who should hold office for one year, from the first of January next following their election.

In consequence of the movements in the State during this year, in favor of immigration, considerable attention has been attracted to the material resources of Alabama. With reference to its physical and industrial features, the State may be divided into five great divisions, viz.: The timber region, containing 11,000 square miles; the cotton region, 11,500; the agricultural and manufacturing region, 8,700; the mineral region, 15,200; the stock and agricultural region, 4,322. Total, 50,722 sq. miles.

The timber region, bordering on the Gulf of Mexico and the State of Florida, extends across the southern portion of the State, and northwardly one hundred and thirty-two miles from the Gulf, and forty miles from the Florida line. This section, covered with forests of long-leaf yellow pine, yields excellent timber, tar,

pitch, and turpentine. On the low lands along the rivers is found white, black, and Spanish oak, also bald and black cypress, the timber of which is noted for its durability. The soil, composed largely of sand and clay in its natural condition, is best adapted to the cultivation of grapes, apples, peaches, and pears; but, by manuring, may be made productive of cotton and corn. The mild climate and the natural pastures of the pine-forests afford unusual advantages for profitable stock-rearing. Fish and oysters in great abundance are supplied from the waters of the Gulf of Mexico and the Bay of Mobile. This section is watered by the Alabama and Tombigbee rivers, and has good railroad facilities in all directions. It has long been a popular summer resort for families from all parts of the State. Land here is increasing in value, but good locations may be obtained at prices ranging from $1.50 to $4 per acre.

The cotton region joins the timber region on the north, and has a width of about one hundred and two miles on the western, and sixty miles on the eastern line of the State. This belt of land, interspersed with large prairies, with an unsurpassed climate, and having a stiff, black soil, remarkably rich, from two to twenty feet deep, is especially adapted to the cultivation of cotton, corn, and provisions, and is considered one of the most healthy and fertile agricultural tracts in the South. Its railroad and river facilities afford easy access to markets. Prior to the late war, this section was much sought after by planters, on account of its great advantages of soil and climate, and plantations commanded prices ranging from $30 to $50 per acre. Now, rich, cultivated plantations, convenient to rivers and railroads, may be obtained for from $5 to $10 per acre. This land will produce from fifty to sixty bushels of corn, or 800 to 900 pounds of seed-cotton per acre.

Immediately north of the cotton region lies the agricultural and manufacturing district, extending eastwardly and westwardly across the State, and having an average breadth of about thirty-five miles. The soil, being sandy, is poor; but there are numerous streams, affording good water-power for manufacturing purposes. This is a healthy section of country, and has good railroad facilities.

The mineral region occupies the northeastern corner of the State, extends in a southwesterly direction about 160 miles, and has an average width of about eighty miles. In the southeastern corner of this section, white marble of remarkable brilliancy is found, some of it not inferior to Carrara marble, and has been successfully worked. Soapstone, flagstones, graphite or plumbago, and granite, of good quality, are also quarried here. In this region there are three distinct coal-fields, covering an area of 4,000 square miles, namely, the Warrior, Cahawba, and Tennessee fields. The beds of these fields are from one to eight feet thick. The coal is bituminous, generally soft, and well adapted for generating steam, and for the manufacture of gas, coke, and iron. Near these coal-fields are extensive beds of limestone, sandstone, and iron-ore; the iron mines have been worked with good results, the ores producing from 36 to 58 per cent. of metallic iron. There are also abundant materials, of good quality, for the manufacture of bricks, lime, and millstones. In the mineral region are numerous fertile valleys, well adapted to the production of wheat, corn, and cotton, and the rearing of stock. Lands in the mineral district may be bought at prices ranging from 12½ cents to $2 per acre.

The stock and agricultural region occupies the northwestern portion of the State; its products are cotton, corn, grains, grapes, and stock. The climate is mild and healthy, and the soil rich. Previous to the war, there were many valuable plantations here, and extensive stock-farms; cultivated lands were valued at from $30 to $50 per acre. Present prices vary from $5 to $10 per acre.

Alabama is a valuable timber country, which produces in abundance nearly every kind of useful timber. Besides the long-leaf yellow pine, there grow here the different varieties of oak—white, red, black, Spanish, port-pin, and overcup; also sweet and black gum, poplar, ash, walnut, hickory, locust, chestnut, red and white cedar, dogwood, maple, and elm. By its great advantages of soil and climate, Alabama has always held a high rank as an agricultural State; and, from the above exhibit of its industrial resources, it will be seen that good advantages are offered to those wishing to engage in the raising of cotton, corn, or stock, fruits or vegetables; making wine; manufacturing cotton, iron, or lime; or supplying coal, marble, or granite.

ALASKA. As yet there has been little increase in the white population of this Territory, which is still under the military government of the United States. Time enough has not elapsed for the acquisition of much information in regard to its industrial resources. Our knowledge is confined mostly to its shores, comparatively little being known of the interior. Since Alaska became a part of the United States, an Anglo-Russian newspaper has been projected, and is carried on with success. It is reported that game abounds, but none except Indians hunt it. Ducks are abundant, and the grouse are of excellent flavor. There is a large variety of fish, of which the salmon is said to be most delicious; but no oysters have yet been discovered by the whites. Of shell-fish, there is the crab, enormously large, and whose sweetness increases with its size, the clam, and the muscle. During the past summer there was an abundance of berries, principally a berry called the salmon-berry, from its strong resemblance to the roe of that fish, both in color and in its collection of little globules like fish-eggs; it is very palatable,

and lasts during nearly the whole summer. Cranberries are plentiful, and of excellent quality. The potatoes are small and watery; cabbages will not generally head, while tomatoes and peas do not thrive. Corn, wheat, barley, oats, and such grains, will not ripen, as there is too little sunshine and too much rain.

During this year Alaska has been visited by two distinguished observers, the accounts of whose observations materially differ. One of these, William H. Seward, arrived at Alaska in August, by way of the Portland Canal, passed through the Prince of Wales Archipelago, Peril, and Chatham Straits, and Lynn Channel, up the Chilcat River to the base of Mount Fairweather, thence returning through Clarence Straits to Sitka. According to his account, given in a speech at Sitka in August, the skies were bright and serene, and, during his visit, there were more clear than cloudy days. The scenery of the southwestern coast was full of grandeur. The Coast Range of mountains, which begins in Mexico, is continued into the territory and "invades the seas of Alaska, rising to an exalted height, and clothed with eternal snow and crystalline glaciers." The plains between the mountains, as well as the sides of the mountains themselves, almost to their summits, are covered with forests so dark and dense as to be impenetrable, except to wild beasts and savage huntsmen. On the lowest intervale cotton-wood grows. The birch-tree sometimes appears upon the river-side, upon the level above the cotton-wood, and is generally found a comely and stately tree. The forests of Alaska consist mainly of the pine, the cedar, the cypress, the spruce, the fir, the larch, and the hemlock. These forests begin almost at the water's edge, and they rise with regular gradation to a height of two thousand feet. The cedar, sometimes called the yellow cedar, on the coasts of the islands and rivers, attains an immense growth both in height and circumference. The cultivation of gardens, fields, and meadows, has been attempted by natives and soldiers with most encouraging results. The native grasses preserve their nutritive properties, and the climate is so mild that cattle and horses require but slight provision of shelter during the winter. There is reason to believe that, beyond the Coast Range of mountains in Alaska, there is an extension of the rich and habitable valley-lands of Oregon, Washington Territory, and British Columbia.

In regard to the animal productions of the forests, he says the elk and deer are so plenty as to be undervalued for food or skins by both natives and strangers. The bear of many families, black, grizzly, and cinnamon; the mountain-sheep, inestimable for his fleece; the wolf, the fox, the beaver, the otter, the mink, the raccoon, the marten, the ermine, the squirrel, gray, black, brown, and flying, are among the land fur-bearing animals. The furs thus found here have been the chief element for more than a century of the profitable commerce of the Hudson Bay Company. This fur-trade, together with the sea fur-trade within the Territory, was the sole basis of Russian commerce, and the present supply of furs in Alaska is not diminished. It has not yet been proved that the supply of ice may be made a source of wealth, since it is obtained chiefly upon the small lakes and ponds; and it is not yet ascertained that glacier ice is pure, and practical for commerce. The range of hills, nearly two thousand feet high and thirty miles long, extending along the Chilcat River, abounds in iron, while limestone and marble crop out on the banks of the same river, and in many other places. Coal-beds, accessible to navigation, are found on Kootznoo, but the concentrated resin in the coal renders it too inflammable to be used by steamers. What seems to be excellent cannel-coal is also found in the Prince of Wales Archipelago.

The natives are the only laborers at present in the Territory, the whites going there as traders and soldiers. Considering how greatly most of the tribes are reduced in numbers, and how precarious their vocations are, they are neither indolent nor incapable, but they are vigorous, energetic, docile, and gentle in their intercourse with the whites. The Indian tribes here must do as they have done in Washington Territory and British Columbia—retreat before the advance of civilization. The citizens of Sitka are the pioneers—the future population of Alaska. The resources of the Territory, its singularly-salubrious climate, and sublime scenery, must attract immigrants from our own States, Europe, and Asia. Such is Alaska, as seen by the ex-Secretary of State of the United States.

The other account is by General George H. Thomas, the commander of the military district of the United States which embraces Alaska. His report of his observations in this Territory was made to the War Department, and dated at San Francisco on the 27th of September. On the 22d of July he reached Sitka, formerly the headquarters of the Russian-American Fur Company, now the military headquarters of the Territory. According to General Thomas's report, the Indians are treacherous, warlike, and, until recently, discontented with the change of governments. It will be necessary, he thinks, to maintain a large garrison at Sitka to protect the traders from Indians, and to preserve order and good behavior among the whites and half-breeds.

General Thomas left Sitka on the 25th of July, and arrived at Kenay, about one hundred miles up Cook's Inlet, on the 30th. This is the old Russian-American trading-post of St. Nicholas, and is now occupied by one company of artillery. There is a village of Aleuts, numbering about two hundred, near by; another small village, a few miles below; and a settlement of some half-dozen Russian families

thirty miles below. There are no other settlements, either white or Indian, near. On the eastern shore of the inlet, about sixty miles below Kenay, General Thomas examined a coal-deposit, and found in it a fine quality of cannel-coal, in veins of from four to eight feet thick. About twenty miles below this point another deposit was observed; mining works were established here a few years ago by the Russian-American Fur Company, but were subsequently abandoned, because the coal proved to be comparatively worthless. On the 3d of August Kodiak was reached. Near this place, which is garrisoned by a company of artillery, is the establishment of the ice company which supplies San Francisco with ice, and it is the most southern point on the coast where ice can be produced with certainty. General Thomas did not think there was any necessity for the continuance of this post or the one at Kenay, but did not deem it wise to disturb them until regulations should be established to govern intercourse with the natives. On St. Paul's Island he found a post established to secure the enforcement of the law of Congress regulating the killing of seals, to support the revenue officers, and to preserve order on the islands. The revenue officers restrict the killing of seals to the smallest number necessary for the maintenance of the natives. General Thomas was not favorably impressed with the moral condition of the Aleuts: "Though nearly all members of the Greek Church," he says, "they seem to have no control over their passion for ardent spirits, nor have they very correct ideas in regard to chastity; consequently the effects of contact with the stronger-willed Americans are apparent, as venereal diseases and scrofula are quite common, and there are scarcely any, either male or female, who will not get intoxicated if they have the opportunity; almost the first thing they ask for is whiskey." He saw no evidence of dissipation among the people of Kenay and the islands of St. George and St. Paul, but was favorably impressed with their intelligence and honesty, and found many of the men skilled in mechanical arts.

The fur-bearing seals, he reports, are found only on St. Paul and St. George's Islands, and are killed for their furs and oil. Here, from April to September or October, are seen immense numbers of these animals—estimated at from five to fifteen millions—lying in the rookeries, and covering hundreds of acres. During the season between fall and spring they are not seen, nor is it known where they pass the winter. He thinks that legislation regulating the hunting and killing of these animals is necessary, to prevent the destruction of the rookeries; that with such legislation, and with a wholesome superintendence of the Indians and Aleuts, one garrison of two hundred or three hundred men, and a revenue-cutter, will be all the forces needed in Alaska. The fur-trade of the interior, on account of the fatigue and hardship attending it, will never be carried on by white men. He recommends that a mail-route be established between Port Townsend, Washington Territory, and Sitka, touching at San Juan Island, Tongass, and Wrangle, all of which ports are immediately on the route to Sitka. In regard to the settlement of Alaska, General Thomas says: "I see no immediate prospect of the country being settled up. The climate is too rigid; there is too much rain and too little sun for agricultural purposes. At most of the posts there are gardens, in which are raised radishes, turnips, lettuce, and other watery vegetables, and fair potatoes, though they will not keep any time. The moisture of the climate is so great that these vegetables continue to grow, but do not ripen. The same difficulty has attended all attempts to raise barley, oats, or wheat; the stalk grows green and rank, but the seed does not come to maturity or ripen. There is comparatively little land suitable for agriculture; the largest tract and best climate known is the plateau on the east side of Cook's Inlet, extending from Kenay to Chogotshaik Bay. The soil is an alluvial sandy loam, very rich and deep, but the summer, though pleasant while it lasts, is not long enough for successful farming. Though the timber is of the finest quality, and in many places conveniently located, still the supply in Oregon, Washington, and British Columbia, is equally good and abundant, and much better located for a market. The fishing-banks along the northeastern coast of the Aleutian Peninsula and islands are very extensive and bountiful, and salmon abounds in all the streams. In addition to the coal mentioned as being at Chogotshaik, there are many other known localities of coal."

Congress has as yet taken no steps for the formation of a Territorial government for Alaska, and this outlying possession will probably remain under the control of the military authorities of the nation for the present.

ALLEN, CHARLES, LL. D., an eminent jurist of Massachusetts, born in Worcester, Mass., August 9, 1797; died in Worcester, August 6, 1869. He was a graduate of Harvard College, studied law in his native town, and was admitted to the bar in 1821. In 1829 he was elected to the State Legislature, and again in 1833, 1834, 1836, and 1840, and was a member of the State Senate in 1835, 1838, and 1839. He was a commissioner to negotiate the Webster Treaty in 1842, and judge of the Court of Common Pleas from 1842 to 1844. In 1848, he took an active part in the Free-Soil movement, and that year was elected to Congress from the Worcester District, and reëlected in 1850. His political views, and his known hostility to slavery, placed him to a considerable extent under the ban in Congress; but he displayed marked ability in all that he had the opportunity of doing. In 1849 he had the editorial charge for some time of the Boston *Whig*, or, as it was subsequently called, the Boston *Re-*

publican, a paper owned and sustained by his friend Charles Francis Adams. In 1858, he was appointed Chief Justice of the Superior Court of Suffolk County, and, on the abolition of that court in 1859, he was appointed Chief Justice of the Superior Court of the State, which office he held until 1867, when he resigned in consequence of his age. He was a delegate to the Peace Congress of 1861, but maintained there a firm and statesmanlike position. Judge Allen received the honorary degree of LL. D. from Yale College in 1836, and from Harvard in 1863. His decisions in the Superior Court were regarded as very able, and as evincing his profound legal knowledge. In private life he was highly esteemed.

ALLIANCE, EVANGELICAL. The meeting of the Evangelical Alliance, for holding which in New York, in 1869, arrangements had been made, has been postponed to 1870, for reasons which were explained by Dr. Schaff, at a meeting of the American Branch of the Alliance held in New York, on the 4th of November. Dr. Schaff had just returned from a visit to Europe, where his mission had been to consult upon the holding of the proposed meeting. At the meeting of the British Branch of the Alliance held on the 6th of May, the subject of the contemplated meeting was a prominent topic. Serious difficulties concerning the expense of the conference had arisen in the course of correspondence between the American committee and the British council. These difficulties were entirely removed after a full and frank discussion, and terms of satisfactory coöperation on a fraternal basis of perfect equality were unanimously agreed upon. The programme for the meeting is drawn up on the basis prepared by the New York Executive Committee, but is considerably changed, in conformity to the wishes of the English and Continental brethren. It embraces the leading religious questions of the age, such as Christian unity and coöperation, Christianity and its antagonists, Protestanism and Roman Catholicism, Christianity and civil government, Christian union and Christian life, foreign and domestic missions, Christianity and social evils; also reports on the Society of Protestant Christendom by the delegates.

The Congregational Union of England and Wales, which Dr. Schaff subsequently attended, passed unanimously a resolution in reference to the meeting, expressing the hope that they might send a delegate, and desiring that events might continue to favor its arrangements, and that the Divine blessing may crown its accomplishment. Dr. Schaff also attended the two General Assemblies of the Established and of the Free Churches of Scotland, and a number of meetings specially held for the objects of the Alliance, all of which returned a unanimous response to the invitation. The Archbishop of Canterbury would not commit himself, but expressed himself very happy to correspond on the subject. The Dean of Canterbury is to prepare a paper, and, from the position of the Church of England, extend the hand of brotherhood to all evangelical nations. Several eminent Evangelical clergymen of England have promised to attend, and "in Germany, France, Holland, and Switzerland," said Dr. Schaff, "the subject has been greatly agitated, and they have promised us their best men, who have truly a representative name and character. The conditions and the circumstances are very favorable. I am confident that, if a meeting had been held this year, it would have been a failure." After hearing the remarks of Dr. Schaff, the New York meeting adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we have listened with feelings of lively interest and grateful satisfaction to the report of Rev. Dr. Schaff, and, while gladly welcoming home the distinguished representative of the American Branch of the Evangelical Alliance, beg to exchange with him our warm congratulations upon the successful issue of his mission, and thank him for the important and efficient service he has rendered.

Resolved, That as we heartily approve, so we are prepared to second, with Christian zeal, the steps which have been taken in furtherance of our cherished purpose, and, as we believe, the general desire, to hold a Conference of the Evangelical Alliance in the United States; and, therefore, be it further

Resolved, That we hereby extend a whole-hearted American invitation and welcome to the several branches of the Evangelical Alliance in the various parts of Christendom, to meet in General Conference in the city of New York, at a date hereafter to be agreed upon, during the autumn of the year 1870.

Resolved, That we are eminently gratified to learn, by the report of Rev. Dr. Schaff, that the preliminary invitation of the American Branch, conveyed through him, to our brethren in Europe, has been so kindly received that we have already good reason to expect the attendance of a number of distinguished delegates, and that we have pleasing encouragement to anticipate a large representation from Great Britain and the Continent.

Resolved, That, in offering to our brethren abroad the hospitalities of New York, we propose, under God, more than open doors and hearts full of welcome, looking forward as we do to such communion in Christ, and such "sweet counsel together" touching the interests of His Kingdom, as shall bring down upon our churches and the world we seek to evangelize a fresh baptism of blessing, and help us all, who now labor in Christian unity and spiritual fellowship, to the achievement, through Christ, of a heavenly fellowship when labor shall cease and love be inthroned forever.

ALMONTE, JUAN N., a distinguished Mexican general, statesman, and diplomatist, born about the year 1812; died in Paris, March 22, 1869. He was the reputed son of the priest Morelos, the famous partisan chief, who was shot in 1813. His youth was spent in the United States, where he managed, by the energy of his character, to support himself while obtaining an education. Returning to his native land, he entered upon a military career, and was chosen by Santa Anna one of his aides-de-camp, in which capacity he served in the Texas campaign against General Houston, being made prisoner with his chief at the battle of San Jacinto. On regaining his liberty he was made Secretary of State, and was subsequently appointed minister plenipotentiary at Wash-

ington; but, when the annexation of Texas was resolved upon, he demanded his passports, protesting at the same time against that measure. In 1845 he was a candidate for the presidency of the Republic of Mexico, but failed; and was afterward, upon the elevation of Paredes to power, appointed, first, Minister of War, and then ambassador to Paris. He was on his way to France when he heard, at Havana, of the return of Santa Anna to power, upon which he immediately went back to Mexico, and, joining Santa Anna, took part in the war against the United States, distinguishing himself at the battles of Buena Vista, Cerro Gordo, and Churubusco. After the close of the war he entered the ranks of the Liberal opposition, and for the second time became a candidate for the presidency, but again without success. He was solaced, however, with an appointment as Mexican minister at Paris, which office he held at the period when President Miramon was overthrown by Juarez. He returned to Mexico with the allied expedition in 1862. Juarez protested against his presence in the French camp, and demanded that Almonte should be delivered up to him; but, although General Prim and Sir Charles Wyke, the English commissioner, were willing to comply with this demand, the French commander refused, and shortly after a proclamation was issued by General Taboada, declaring Juarez deposed, and Almonte invested with supreme power in his place. He found himself, however, unable to organize a government; and General Forey, on his arrival in Mexico, annulled Taboada's decree, and announced to the Mexicans that they were free to choose a new government. After the decisive victory of the French arms, Almonte became one of the triumvirate to whom they intrusted the management of affairs in Mexico, assigning him the Foreign Department and the Finances. He was appointed Lieutenant of the Empire by Maximilian in April, 1864, and some weeks later Marshal of the Empire. He adhered to the fortunes of his imperial patron throughout his short reign, and, when Maximilian fell, left his country for Europe, spending the last days of his restless life in exile.

AMERICA. No territorial change affected the map of America during the year 1869. The Senate of the United States took no action upon the purchase of the two Danish islands, St. Thomas and St. John, which had been negotiated by Mr. Seward, and had been ratified by an almost unanimous vote of the population of the two islands, and this scheme of annexation may therefore be regarded as having for the present failed. At the close of the year, the project of an annexation of San Domingo to the United States again assumed a more tangible shape, having received the full approval of President Baez. In Cuba, the war for establishing the independence of the island continued throughout the year, and in the course of the year the Cubans were recognized by a number of the South American republics as belligerents. In British North America, the scheme of consolidating all the colonial possessions, inclusive of British Columbia, into one empire, received the open and emphatic indorsement of the British Government; but the dissatisfaction of the people of Nova Scotia remained unabated, and a party openly advocating annexation to the United States gained in the course of the year considerable strength.

The war in Paraguay was in October, 1869, not ended, although a provisional government had been established in Asuncion. The strength of President Lopez had been greatly impaired, but, driven from one stronghold, he always had another ready to fall back upon. (*See* PARAGUAY.)

In other parts of South America the number of civil wars and revolutions was somewhat smaller than usual. The lawful government was overthrown in Ecuador, and in San Domingo, Hayti, and Venezuela, civil war raged almost without interruption; but in many of the other States the reign of order appears to be fortified, and the beginning of a new era of peaceful development and progress to be secured. Besides Chili, the model republic of Latin America, Mexico, Colombia, Peru, and especially the Argentine Republic, under the wise administration of President Sarmiento, enjoyed a year of peace, and in many respects a year of real progress.

The Pacific Railroad was pushed forward in the latter part of the year 1868, and in the first months of the year 1869, with a rapidity heretofore unknown, and thus it was completed long before the time heretofore anticipated. The final tie was placed on the 10th of May, 1869, with as much display as possible. Many deficiencies were complained of in the first transcontinental road, but the intercourse between the Atlantic and the Pacific remained uninterrupted. The important influence which this connection of the two oceans by means of railroads must have upon the development of the resources of the continent, was everywhere recognized. Numerous schemes of a similar character are under consideration; among them is one connecting the Atlantic and Pacific coasts of British North America, and another connecting Chili and the Argentine Republic across the Andes.

While transcontinental railroads are bringing into closer contact West with East, and North with South, new transatlantic cables are strengthening the electric communications between the Old and the New World, and placing their uninterrupted intercourse beyond any danger from accidents. To the English-American cable, which has now been in successful operation for several years, a French-American was, in 1869, added; besides, a contract for the laying of a Belgian-American cable was concluded, and negotiations for laying one between Portugal and South America were in active progress.

The immigration from Europe to America by far exceeded, in 1869, that of any of the preceding years. The great bulk continues to go to the United States, but in several South American republics there has also been for years a considerable increase. A new feature in the history of immigration is the extraordinary rush to America of the Chinese, who, it seems, may now come not only in as large numbers as the Europeans, but much larger. It is now certain that this new immigration of people from Asia will greatly enhance the rate of increase of the population of the American Continent, but, on the other hand, grave dangers are feared by some economists from a large admixture of Mongolians with the present population of America, and the dangers of a coming Chinese question are discussed.

Censuses were taken, in 1869, in Mexico and the Argentine Republic, both of which showed a considerable increase of population over the previous official statements. The population of America, at the present day, certainly exceeds 85,000,000, of which, at least, 78,000,000 are inhabitants of independent American States.

ANGLICAN CHURCHES. The *Church Almanac* for 1870 gives the following statistical summary of the Protestant Episcopal Church in the United States* for the year 1868–'69:

Dioceses			39
Bishops			51
Bishops elect			1
Priests and Deacons			2,711
Whole number of Clergy			2,762
Parishes			2,512
Ordinations—Deacons,	in 26 Dioceses		115
Priests,	in 24 "		85
Total,	in 28 "		200
Candidates for Orders,	in 20 "		208
Churches consecrated,	in 18 "		47
Baptisms—Infants,	in 26 "		20,749
Adults,	in 26 "		5,030
Not specified,	in 6 "		3,760
Total,	in 32 "		29,539
Confirmations,	in 36 "		20,798
Communicants—increase in 23 Dioceses during past year			7,186
Number reported in 33 Dioceses			176,696
Present number in the whole Church			200,000
Marriages, in 30 Dioceses			7,647
Burials, in 30 "			12,475
Sunday-School Teachers, in 27 Dioceses			18,644
Scholars, in 30 "			185,975
Contributions,	in 31 "		$4,205,029,41

The following table exhibits the number of clergymen, parishes, baptisms, communicants, teachers and scholars of Sunday-schools, and the amount of missionary and charitable contributions for each diocese:

DIOCESES AND MISSIONS.	Clergy.	Parishes.	Baptisms.	Communicants.	Sunday-Schools. Teachers.	Sunday-Schools. Scholars.	Contributions for Missionary and Church purposes.
Alabama	28	26					
Albany	86	104	1,343	7,897	915	6,708	$186,242 58
California	43	40					
Central New York	65	98	945	8,093	925	6,795	181,425 84
Connecticut	158	137	1,833	16,609	1,713	11,780	471,194 97
Delaware	26	31	346	1,576	318	2,981	23,738 13
Easton	25	33	351	1,581	140	904	
Florida	†16	†14					
Georgia	30	31	378	2,616	223	1,823	24,239 96
Illinois	89	84	1,211	5,815	943	6,968	215,473 11
Indiana	36	32	505	2,418	437	3,491	42,039 82
Iowa	35	54	368	1,931	365	2,596	60,205 67
Kansas	15	14	112	486	61	418	8,126 87
Kentucky	48	35	758	3,468	463	3,759	89,005 53
Long Island	87	70	1,950	10,307	1,488	12,780	318,786 70
Louisiana	29	48	610	2,351	295	2,397	29,107 92
Maine	19	21	440	1,751	218	1,765	64,767 01
Maryland	135	107					
Massachusetts	122	85	1,347	10,965	....	8,902	139,531 95
Michigan	67	78	1,241	6,021	807	5,673	89,813 87
Minnesota	42	42	518	2,400	256	2,053	45,666 42
Mississippi	†27	†44					
Missouri	34	34	571	2,509			
Nebraska	23	16	186	843	....	.....	6,429 53
New Hampshire	23	23	106	989	111	778	4,600 70
New Jersey	123	116	1,950	9,499	1,271	10,950	338,325 31
New York	287	170	3,644	20,000	1,894	20,867	565,329 69
North Carolina	†49	†73					
Ohio	105	106	1,168	8,310	1,053	8,793	200,772 18
Pennsylvania	209	177	3,775	20,196	2,808	41,176	613,890 70
Pittsburg	47	51	751	3,012	412	2,814	98,455 00
Rhode Island	40	35	514	4,533	601	4,786	134,867 85
South Carolina	†57	†59					
Tennessee	38	39	556	2,066	....	.....	16,798 42
Texas	20	35	375	1,520	188	1,321	12,959 60
Vermont	28	42	368	2,421	200	1,502	16,984 88
Virginia	135	173	....	8,600	....	6,500	62,747 00
Western New York	†78	†82					
Wisconsin	70	58	1,128	5,580	564	4,342	106,696 74
Oregon and Washington	12	13	120	233	....	526	13,835 80
Montana	7	5	77	130	37	316	12,014 67

* It will be seen, on examination, that the above summary does not include, in some of its items, the statistics of *the whole Church*. Several of the convention journals were not published when the *Church Almanac* went to press, and of those published and received by the editor, *two contained no abstract of the parochial reports, and no summary of statistics for the conventional year.*

† The statistics marked with daggers are taken from the Convention Journal of 1868.

The total statistics of the bishops and clergy of the Anglican Church in Great Britain, Ireland, and the British Colonies, were, in 1869, as follows:

England and Wales.—Archbishops, 2; bishops, 26; deans, 30; archdeacons, 71; benefices, 12,837; curates, 5,678; rural deaneries, 613; church sittings, 5,643,492.

Ireland.—Archbishops, 2; bishops, 10; deans, 32; archdeacons, 34; benefices, 1,560; curates, 599.

Scotland.—Bishops, 8; clergy, 169; parsonages, 72; churches, 168; schools, 101.

The Colonies.—Dioceses (including those in process of formation), 51; bishops, 49; clergy, 2,400.

The contributions to the Board of Missions for the year ending October 1, 1869, were $127,710.35. There is a deficit of funds of over $19,000. The mission to Greece is in a condition of financial embarrassment. Dr. Hill's resignation of his position there was to take effect in November. Bishop Paine, of the African mission, has returned to the United States to recover his health. The China mission is in a promising condition. A translation of the Bible into the Mandarin dialect is being made. No agent has been appointed among the freedmen since the death of Mr. Gillette.

The anniversaries of the Low-Church party were held in November, in Philadelphia. The total receipts of the American Church Missionary Society were $98,172.39: of which $49,-824.89 were for its own purposes; $38,837.98 for objects kindred to the work, but not under the control of the committee; and $9,509.52 for foreign missions. The year was reported the first in which the payments exceeded the receipts. The society has had 108 missionaries in the field. At the twenty-second annual meeting of the Society for the Promotion of Evangelical Knowledge, the receipts of the society were reported at $51,583; the expenditures at $49,443; the property, at $82,000. The "Evangelical Education Society" held its third anniversary. Its receipts during the year were $31,659; its expenditure, $41,881. The close of the year leaves the society with 112 students wholly or in part dependent upon it.

The Church of England is divided into two convocations, Canterbury and York. The Upper House of Canterbury consists of the archbishops and the bishops (21 in number) of the several dioceses. The Lower House consists of 24 deans attached to the several dioceses, 58 archdeacons, 25 proctors for the chapters, and 42 proctors for the clergy; in all, 149 members.

The Upper House of the province of York consists of the archbishops and bishops of the dioceses (7 members). The Lower House consists of 6 deans, 15 archdeacons, 7 proctors for the chapters, and 31 proctors for the clergy; in all, 59 members.

The two great schools of the Church of England are the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. The twenty-six colleges and halls of the University of Oxford had in January, 1868, 4,190 "members of convocation," and 7,535 "members on the books." The number of professorships was 41. The seventeen colleges and halls of the University of Cambridge had (including 127 members not on the college books) 5,435 members of the senate; 1,927 undergraduates; and 8,974 members on the books. The number of professors was 35.

The Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in Foreign Parts report a general fund of £76,784 12s. 1d.; appropriated funds, £12,-108 8s. 5d.; special fund, £14,238 19. 6d.; making a total of £103,132. The receipts of other church societies during the year closing May, 1869, were as follows: Church Missionary Society, £157,330; South American Missionary Society, £10,551; Colonial and Continental Church Society, £35,445; Colonial Missionary Society, £4,030; Church Pastoral Aid Society, £51,845; Bishop of London's Fund, £49,608; Additional Curates' Society, £30,588; Irish Church Missions to Roman Catholics, £24,445; Incorporated Church Building Society, £13,757; Church of England Scripture Readers' Association, £11,732.

The religious homes, houses of mercy, missions, religious houses, and institutions of similar character, of which a considerable number have sprung up within a few years past, are various in organization, from voluntary parochial and benevolent associations, to societies approaching the character of monastic institutions. The *Kalendar*, published by the "English Church Union," enumerates fifty-five homes, penitentiaries, missions, and orphanages; twenty guilds and brotherhoods, and twenty institutions and societies. The last are open associations. Many of the religious homes have a number of institutions under their charge. Thus, the "Sisters of All Saints," Margaret Street, London, have the care of twelve subordinate institutions, dispensaries, homes for aged women, industrial schools, orphanages, etc. Many of these homes, which generally are sisterhoods, in the larger towns, have established reformatories for fallen women. The guilds and brotherhoods are more strictly devotional in character. The English Order of St. Benedict, founded by "Father Ignatius," as he styles himself, corresponds in character with the Roman Catholic ascetic institutions. The "Guild of St. Alban the Martyr," with nineteen branches, or brotherhoods and sisterhoods; the "Society of St. Osmund;" the "Confraternity of the Blessed Sacrament of the Body and Blood of Christ," and others, have for their object the elevation of the ritual, the cultivation of a more devotional spirit and observance of the purity of the Church in doctrine and practice, and other similar ends. Others are more or less open associations, for prayers, for missionary work, for benevolent purposes, for the assistance of poor churches, etc.

The most notable event in the year's history of the Anglican Church was the enactment of the law for the disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish Church. The bill was introduced by Mr. Gladstone on the 1st of March, when it was read a first time. It passed a second reading, after a long and excited debate, on the 24th of the same month, by a vote of 368 to 250, showing a majority, in favor of the passage, of 118. The bill, which contained sixty clauses, was entitled "A bill to put an end to the establishment of the Church of Ireland, and to make provision in respect to the temporalities thereof, and in respect to the Royal College of Maynooth." The disestablishment was to be total, but was not to take place until the first of January, 1870, when the ecclesiastical courts were to be abolished, the ecclesiastical laws to cease to have any authority, the bishops to be no longer peers of Parliament, and all ecclesiastical corporations in the country to be dissolved. The disendowment was technically and legally to be total and immediate. Provision was made for winding up the ecclesiastical commission, and the constitution of a new commission composed of ten members, in which the whole property of the Irish Church was to be vested from the day the measure received the royal assent. A distinction was made between public endowments (valued at £15,500,000) including every thing in the nature of a state grant or revenue, which were to be resumed by the state, and private endowments (valued at £500,000), which were defined as money contributed from private sources since 1660, which were to be restored to the disestablished church. Provision was made for compensation to vested interests, including those connected with Maynooth College, and the Presbyterians, who were in receipt of the *regium donum*. Among these interests, the largest in the aggregate were those of incumbents, to each of whom was secured during his life, provided he continued to discharge the duties of his benefice, the amount to which he was entitled, deducting the amount he might have paid for curates; or the interest might, under certain circumstances, be commuted, upon his application for a life-annuity. Other personal interests provided for were those of curates, permanent and temporary, and lay compensations, including claims of parish clerks and sextons. The amount of the Maynooth grant and the *regium donum* was to be valued at fourteen years' purchase, and a capital sum equal to it handed over to the respective representatives of the Presbyterians and of the Roman Catholics. The aggregate of the payments would amount to about £8,000,000, leaving about £7,500,000, giving an annual income of about £30,000 at the disposal of Parliament. This was to be appropriated "mainly to the relief of unavoidable calamity and suffering," but in such a way as not to interfere with the obligation imposed upon property by the poor-laws. When the affairs of the established Church shall have been wound up, the commissioners were to report to the Queen that the objects immediately contemplated by the act have all been provided for, and to report the amount of surplus available for charitable purposes. The bill presumed that, immediately after the disestablishment, the bishops, clergy, and laity would proceed to constitute something in the nature of a governing body, which the Queen would be empowered, not to create, but to recognize, to constitute the disestablished Church, and come in possession of the private endowments.

The bill was introduced into the House of Lords in almost the same shape in which it was introduced in the Commons, and was carried to a second reading, on the 19th of June, by a majority of 33, in a House of 300 members, and about 30 pairs. Vigorous efforts were afterward made to attack the principles of the bill, and save something of the establishment in committee. Among other provisions, the Lords sought to allot £3,000,000 to the disestablished Church. Their amendments were nearly all rejected, or remodelled in form or expression. This treatment was received with great indignation by the Lords, so that the further progress of the bill was stopped, and its withdrawal was looked for. A compromise was effected, however, in Cabinet council, by which the clergy who commute their incomes are to be allowed 12 per cent. over the value of ordinary lives, while the disposal of the surplus of the public endowments, instead of being left to the discretion of the Government, was placed under the direct control of Parliament. With these amendments, and a few unimportant alterations supported by the Lords, the bill was adopted by both Houses, with very little opposition, and received the royal assent on the 26th of July.

Among the amendments which were urged in the House of Lords was a scheme of "concurrent endowment," proposing to give a parsonage-house and ten acres of land to each clergyman in the Roman Catholic and Presbyterian as well as in the Episcopal bodies. It commanded a small but earnest majority in the Lords, but was rejected in the Commons without debate.

The separation thus accomplished between the Anglican Church in Ireland and the State Government compelled the former to undertake a reconstruction upon a voluntary basis. The General Synod of the Irish Church, a union of the two Provincial Synods of Dublin and Armagh, met on September 14th, at Dublin. It was the first Synod held in Ireland since 1713. The Provincial Synod of Armagh had met a few days previously, but that of Dublin had to be formally constituted, prior to the union of the two into one General Synod. In the Upper House, the Primate (the Archbishop of Armagh) presided; the Lower House elected the Rev. Dr. West, Dean of St. Patrick's and Christ Church, its prolocutor. A

protest against the disestablishment of the Church was adopted by the Lower House, unanimously, while, in the Upper House, the Bishop of Down objected to it as unnecessary. As to finance, all parties seemed to be agreed that the remainder of the old possessions of the Church which may be retained will require to be largely supplemented by private liberality, if the Church is to be made efficient. In the matter of government, the Synod adopted a "Scheme for the Reform of the Provincial Synods, with a view to a union of the bishops, clergy, and laity of the Church of Ireland in General Synod." It proposed that the clergy of each diocese should meet in a Diocesan Synod, and elect a certain number of their brethren to represent them in a General Synod, with whom were to be included one dean and one archdeacon for each diocese, who, with certain officers of Trinity College, Dublin, were to sit *ex officio*. The latter part of the scheme excited much discussion, and an amendment, proposed by the Dean of Cashel, omitting the *ex-officio* members, was carried, after an earnest debate, by 107 to 29. It was also unanimously agreed that all parochial clergy, whether beneficed or not, should be entitled to vote for clerical representatives, and that the representation should be in the proportion of one to ten in the clergy. These amendments were accepted by the Lower House.

In October, there was a three days' conference of lay delegates of the Irish Church in Dublin. The Duke of Abercorn presided, and some four hundred delegates were present, including a number of noblemen, members of Parliament, and other influential and wealthy members of the Irish Church. One of the resolutions adopted was to the effect that the clerical and lay representatives should sit and discuss all questions together in the General Synod, with the right to vote by orders, if demanded by three of either order at the meeting. It was explained that this recommendation of the Conference was not to apply to Diocesan Synods, but to the General Convention, which is to be afterward formed. On the question of the relative proportions of the representatives of the dioceses, and also of the clergy and the laity, a resolution was adopted, that the number of lay representatives for the respective dioceses should be partly based on population and partly on the old parochial system. As regards the proportion of clergy to laity, the following resolution was carried by an overwhelming majority:

> That, in the opinion of this meeting, it is expedient that the number of lay representatives in the General Synod should be to the clerical in the proportion of two to one.

The clergy also had a private meeting, in October, under the presidency of the Archbishop of Dublin, at which it was resolved, by a large majority, that the laity should have a common right with the clergy to decide on matters of doctrine and discipline in the future councils of the Church. The bishops, at a meeting held in November, resolved to sit and vote as a separate order, when they deem proper; or, in other words, to have the power of vetoing any proposal with which they disagree. This view of the bishops is, however, by no means acceptable to a large portion of the laity. At a meeting of lay delegates, held at Nenagh, and presided over by Lord Rosse, it was moved by Lord Dunalley, and agreed to, that the meeting greatly regretted the resolution of the bishops, and understood "voting by order" to mean, that a majority of bishops and clergy together and a majority of lay representatives should be sufficient to pass any motion. The meeting also strongly protested against the bishops having the power of a veto in Diocesan Synods.

The judgment in the case of Martin against Mackonochie has been the cause of much excitement among the advocates of ritualistic doctrines and practices in the Church of England. The views they have taken of the course that it would be proper for them to pursue have been various. Shortly after the judgment was rendered (January 12th), a meeting was held, at which Archdeacon Denison presided. Its action was limited to the passage of resolutions, protesting against the condemnation of Mr. Mackonochie to the costs in the case as "a course of unusual and exceptional severity," and declaring that the meeting did not consider the existing Court of Final Appeal "qualified to declare the law of the Church of England upon either doctrine or ceremonial;" but that, with respect to the particular judgment of the court in Mr. Mackonochie's case, the meeting, "feeling the great difficulty of the present case, thinks there are many reasons why those who have used the ceremonials or practices now condemned by the judicial committee of the Privy Council may be anxious to wait rather than to give immediate effect to the decision so pronounced, and considers it is a matter best left to the individual judgment and circumstances of each priest who has been accustomed to use the ceremonials in question."

The course was generally adopted of conforming to the explicit directions of the judgment under protest, and with the manifestation of such outward signs of adherence to the theories on which their practices were based as should not directly conflict with the terms of the decision. A few, of extreme views, determined to set the decisions at naught, regarding it as their duty "explicitly to obey the law of the Church on those points where it differed from the law of the land, as expounded by the High Court of Appeals." The English Church Union adopted a resolution, offered by Dr. Pusey, calling upon all churchmen to unite and defend the principle on which the English Church was based—"namely, the appeal to Catholic and primitive antiquity," and to address a memorial to the convocations of both

provinces, praying them to take measures for promoting the reform of the Courts of Appeal. It also recommended that the particular ornaments from which Dr. Mackonochie had been commanded to abstain ought not to be defended by the Union in any future suit, unless the council was satisfied that the case was one which it was a duty to the Church of England to have submitted to the proper tribunal, and that caution should be exercised in defending ornaments and usages not specifically prohibited by the monition, though indirectly and generally coming within the reasonings or principles of the report. A small party advocated secession from the Established Church, and a larger one favored the repeal of the establishment, and the entire independence of the church and state, removing ecclesiastical questions entirely from the supervision of civil tribunals.

The ninth Church Congress, which was held at Liverpool, was the scene of exciting discussions between the ritualists and their opponents. The appointment of Rev. Mr. Mackonochie to read a paper was much opposed, because of his having incurred judicial censure, but prevailed on the ground that he had purged himself of whatever faults he might have committed by submitting to the decision of the court. Very strong papers were read by members of the ritualistic party, and attracted much attention. A very large meeting of workingmen was held in connection with the Congress, at which great interest was manifested. During the sessions a meeting of the English Church Union was also held, at which the increase of the Episcopate and the reunion of Christendom were discussed.

The case of Bishop Colenso continues in an unsettled condition. The Bishop of Capetown, who, as Metropolitan, had excommunicated him, and deposed him from his diocese, has followed up his act by the consecration of Bishop Macrorie, the act being approved and substantially coöperated in by the other South African bishops meeting in Synod, and who recognize the new bishop, both officially and unofficially. This act is regarded by English churchmen as a substantial assertion of the independence of church and state, and as a first step to the erection of a free church in South Africa. It is not regarded by them as legal, eminent authorities in ecclesiastical law having declared, when consulted on the subject, that no power existed of calling Bishop Colenso to account for his presumed heresies, and the Privy Council having decided that the Metropolitan had no jurisdiction over him. The prevailing opinion is expressed in England that, having been appointed by law, Bishop Colenso had an indefeasible right to the title, emoluments, and functions of a bishop, beyond the control even of the royal supremacy.

On the death of Dr. Philpotts, Bishop of Exeter, Dr. Temple, of Rugby, was nominated by the Crown to the vacant see. The appointment was opposed by the High Churchmen and the Low-Church "Evangelicals," on account of the association of Dr. Temple's name with the authorship of one of the papers in the celebrated "Essays and Reviews." Their remonstrances did not prevail, however, with the chapter, a majority of which confirmed the appointment of Dr. Temple, and accepted him as the bishop of the diocese.

The efforts for bringing on an intercommunion between the Anglican and the Oriental Churches are continued, by the friends of the movement in England, with great zeal. By far the most important event that has yet occurred, in the entire history of this movement, is a letter from the Patriarch of Constantinople* to the Archbishop of Canterbury. It was written in reply to the address of the Pan-Anglican Synod, which was sent to him in common with the heads of other foreign Churches. The language of the Patriarch has greatly elated the friends of the intercommunion movement. They find that his heart beats in response to the desire expressed for union; they consider some of his criticisms upon the English Articles as fully justified, and hope that the convocations may, in particular, repeal the Nineteenth Article, which accuses the ancient Sees of Antioch, Alexandria, and Jerusalem, of false doctrines. The High Church Societies, in particular, the Eastern Church Society, and the English Church Union, are urged to send to the Patriarch of Constantinople, and other learned and influential prelates of the East, copies of the best Anglican explanatory works on the Articles, and also a collection of the devotional manuals and hymnals in common use in Anglican Churches, and to ask the patriarchs and metropolitans of the East to solicit the prayers of their priests and people that the two churches may be brought into more perfect union.

The differences of opinion respecting the construction of laws and usages in the Protestant Episcopal Church have given rise to several cases of church discipline, as in the case of the Rev. Mr. Tyng, Jr., who was tried and censured, in 1868, for preaching within the geographical limits of another parish than his own, without previously obtaining the consent of the rector thereof; and in the trial of the Rev. Mr. Hubbard, of Rhode Island, for inviting and permitting a minister, not in Episcopal orders, to preach in the church of which he was rector. Of the cases which have sprung up during the last year, the most noted are those of the Rev. Mr. Tate, in Ohio, tried for violations of the rubric in the introduction of surpliced-choirs in the church, in which the court decided that it had no jurisdiction; and of the Rev. Mr. Cheney, of Illinois, for the practice of omitting the word regeneration in reciting the baptismal service.

* The full text of the letter is given in the Article GREEK CHURCH, in the present volume of the CYCLOPÆDIA.

A circular was issued in February, signed by twenty-three presbyters of Illinois, and about fifty clergymen through the United States at large, in protest against the progress of ritualistic doctrines and practices in the Church, and calling a convention, of those who agreed in the views it set forth, to meet in Chicago in June. It met, pursuant to the call, on the 16th of June, and spent two days in discussion of the questions suggested by the protest. It declared a careful revision of the "Book of Common Prayer" to be needful to the best interests of the Protestant Episcopal Church, and particularly recommended "that all words or phrases seeming to teach that the Christian ministry is a priesthood, or the Lord's Supper a sacrifice, or that regeneration is inseparable from baptism, should be removed from the Prayer Book." It recommended discussion, of "the vital questions which now agitate the Church," through the pulpit and the press, and that the evangelical clergy of the Church "avail themselves of all such measures as they may deem best to promote fraternal and Christian relations with the ministers of other Churches, especially by uniting with them in such great national institutions as the American Bible Society." A standing committee of clergy and laity were appointed, to sit as often as they might deem expedient, and to be a body in perpetuity for the promotion of the general objects contemplated by the Conference.

A second Conference was held, in connection with the anniversaries of the Low-Church Societies, in Philadelphia, in November, and passed several important resolutions. The committee on revision was continued by a unanimous vote. The request to the bishops in sympathy with the Conference, to carry out their purpose of striving to obtain certain modifications in the baptismal office, was passed by a decided majority, and would have been unanimous but that some apprehended that by asking only this they precluded themselves from asking other reforms, for which they were equally desirous. The resolution expressing a desire for a thorough revision passed by a large majority, upon a division of the house. The resolution, requesting the bishops to seek the repeal of the canon on the service of those not ministers of the Anglican Church, was unanimously passed. A resolution, requesting the bishops in sympathy with the Conference to inquire whether false doctrine is held and taught by any bishops of the Church, and, if so, to institute proceedings to bring any such bishop to trial, was passed without one dissentient vote. The Conference also, by a unanimous vote, resolved to prepare and mature a plan for the organization of a brotherhood, upon evangelical and truly catholic principle. The new association of the Low-Church party, thus inaugurated, is based upon the following statement of principles and objects:

1. The maintenance of the purity of the doctrine of the Church as opposed to sacerdotalism on the one hand and infidelity on the other. The doctrinal basis of the brotherhood shall be the Creeds and the Thirty-nine Articles, with such latitude of interpretation as shall be between the extremes just indicated.

2. The assertion and maintenance of those inalienable liberties which belong to ministers of Christ, as such, and which cannot be impaired by the fact that they are also ministers of the Protestant Episcopal Church. Among these liberties is, that of unrestricted fellowship with such churches and ministers as hold with us the substance of the faith; the liberty of preaching, so far as territorial limits are concerned, with no other restrictions but such as Christian courtesy and propriety shall dictate; and such liberty in the use or modification of our formularies of worship as shall seem best adapted to the salvation of souls and the edification of the people of God.

3. The denial of the claim that any civil or ecclesiastical authority can stand to any man in the place of his own conscience; and the assertion that, in the event of any collision between the two, the claims of conscience are paramount.

4. The development of higher spiritual life in our own souls, by frequent systematic and united devotional exercises; by united efforts to promote peace and good-will, and by mutual exhortation and encouragement to works of love, for the good of man and the glory of God.

Nine Low-Church bishops of the Protestant Episcopal Church sent in November the following circular to their brethren in the Episcopate, in behalf of a revision of the Prayer Book:

To our Brethren: In consequence of very serious indications of a state of mind among many of the clergy and laity of our Church, having regard to alleged difficulties in the Prayer Book, and contemplating action most earnestly to be deprecated, some of the bishops requested a meeting, in New York, of several clergymen and laymen from various parts of the country, whose knowledge of the facts, and whose opinions as to needed measures, would be valuable. The object was to get such information and comparison of views as might assist the bishops in forming a right judgment of their duty to God, and to the Church, and to their brethren in the state of mind alluded to.

It became painfully evident that many in our Church are so burdened and distressed in the use of certain expressions in our formularies, that the inquiry is obligatory as to what ought to be done, in brotherly kindness and charity, for their relief.

The result is the conviction that, if alternate phrases or some equivalent modification in the office for the ministration of baptism of infants were allowed, the pressing necessity would be met, and a measure of relief would be afforded, of great importance to the peace and unity of the Church.

We have always been fully persuaded that our formularies of faith and worship, in their just interpretation, embody the truth of Christ, are warranted by the teaching of Holy Scripture, and are a faithful following of the doctrines professed and defended by our Anglican Reformers.

The difficulties referred to we ascribe, in a great measure, to the bold innovations in doctrine and usage which at the present time so unhappily agitate our communion, and expose the Protestant and

Scriptural character of our Church to distrust and reproach.

The conscientious scruples of men of godly conversation and usefulness deserve the most respectful and affectionate consideration of their brethren. We hope they will be so regarded by the next General Convention. We will not allow ourselves to doubt that there will be found in that body such large-heartedness, brotherly kindness, and fervent desire to promote the peace and prosperity of our Church, as will consent to the relief already indicated.

In this confidence we address ourselves affectionately and respectfully to our brother bishops, and request their kind and fraternal coöperation in our effort to accomplish the desired result, for the glory of our blessed Lord, and the harmony of our beloved Church.

C. P. McIlvaine, Alfred Lee, John Johns, John Payne, G. T. Bedell, William Bacon Stevens, Thomas H. Vail, Oxi W. Whitaker, Henry W. Lee.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC, a republic in South America. President, from 1868 to 1874, Domingo F. Sarmiento. The area is estimated to be 826,828 English square miles; the population, in 1864, was estimated by F. C. Ford (*La République Argentine*, Paris, 1867) at 1,465,000; in 1868, in the work "Die Argentinische Republik" (Berne, 1869), published by the Committee of Immigration in Buenos Ayres, at 1,801,000. The confederation is divided into the following fourteen States or provinces:

Provinces.	Inhabitants, 1868.*	Capitals.	Inhabitants.
Buenos Ayres	550,000	Buenos Ayres	200,000
Santa Fé	60,000	Santa Fé	8,000
Entre Rios	160,000	Entre Rios	16,000
Corrientes y Misiones	115,000	Concepcion	8,000
La Rioja	45,000	La Rioja	4,000
Catamarca	110,000	Catamarca	6,000
San Juan	80,000	San Juan	20,000
Mendoza	66,000	Mendoza	10,000
Cordova	165,000	Cordova	25,000
San Luis	68,000	San Luis	5,000
Santiago	125,000	Santiago	6,000
Tucuman	105,000	Tucuman	11,000
Salta	105,000	Salta	11,300
Jujuy	45,000	Jujuy	6,900

A new census was taken in 1869, and the results, as far as they have been published (December, 1869), show a large increase of the population. Thus the province of Santa Fé has advanced from 45,000 inhabitants, in 1864, to 90,000; that of Cordova from 140,000 to 200,000; that of the city of Buenos Ayres from 120,000 to 200,000.

The imports and exports in Buenos Ayres, from 1865 to 1867, were as follows (value expressed in pesos fuertes; one peso fuerte = 5 francs 10 centimes = 94 cents):

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1867	33,370,000	28,080,000
1866	32,270,000	23,030,000
1865	27,100,000	22,000,000

The movement of shipping in the port of Buenos Ayres was as follows:

YEAR.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
1866	1,036	267,213	1,103	263,339
1867	1,136	297,307	1,316	337,541

Among the vessels which entered there were, in 1866, 437, and in 1867, 882 steamships.

The administration of President Sarmiento has, by the wisdom which has marked its acts, won for itself an exalted place in the opinion of the people. In spite of the efforts put forth by the opposition to embarrass the Government, the great majority of the population, both native and foreign, fully appreciate the eminent qualities which distinguish the President, and the efforts he is making to promote the moral and material interests of the country. It is felt that the republic has entered upon a new career, full of brilliant promise. Peace and order have been reëstablished in the provinces which had been desolated by civil war.

President Sarmiento is making the utmost exertions to promote immigration and education. In fact, European immigration has given a great impetus to the progress of the country in the arts of industry within the last fifteen years. During this period towns and villages have sprung up, roads have been opened, railways and tramways have been built, canals have been opened, and other improvements in navigation adopted, and manufactories of all kinds established. And all of this has been accomplished in spite of the civil dissensions by which the country has been agitated. These improvements are especially noticeable in the province of Buenos Ayres. Here there are four lines of railway in active operation. Streets are being opened, and new buildings erected on every hand, in this great, wealthy, and splendid city; while, within a circuit of from five to six leagues around the city, several beautiful villages have appeared as if by enchantment, besides the manufacturing and commercial towns of Boca and Barraccas. To give an idea of the importance of these two towns, distant three miles from each other, it may be stated that not only are they connected with the capital by a railway to both, but that a second line runs from Barraccas to Buenos Ayres. The population of the two towns is to-day nearly 40,000 souls. That of Barraccas is largely Basque; and, as the activity of the Basques is powerful, it is no wonder that this town thrives so remarkably, or that the heads of its principal establishments take the lead in the progressive movement. In order to give new encouragement to agriculture and immigration, Congress passed a law appropriating $200,000 (gold) for the national exhibition at Cordova, set down for April, 1870.

Religious toleration is strictly maintained, and no complaint, in this respect, is heard from the numerous German and Swiss immigrants

*For the population of the several provinces in 1864, see ANNUAL AMERICAN CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

who are Protestants. Though the Catholic countries of Southern Europe continue to furnish a larger contingent of immigrants than Germany and Switzerland, the latter have already established a number of colonies, in all of which the Protestant element is strongly represented. In the state of Entre Rios the colony of Villa de Urquiza, near Parana, is almost wholly German. The next largest German population is found in San José, near Concepcion. La Esperanza, near Santa Fé, is likewise a wholly German colony, which, in 1868, had 850 Catholics and 710 Protestants, with a Protestant church and school. In San Geronimo, a little farther to the southwest, there were 460 German-Swiss; in San Carlos, 406 Swiss and 16 Germans. In Buenos Ayres the Germans have a Protestant church and school, and a German newspaper.

Immigration is increasing with great rapidity. While from 1858 to 1862 the number of immigrants amounted to 28,066, or an annual average of 5,613, it rose, in the period from 1863 to 1867, to 64,599, an annual average of 12,920; and, during the year 1868, reached the unprecedented figure of 29,284. According to nationality, the immigrants were divided as follows:

	1866.	1867.	1868.
Italians	6,880	8,955	10,004
French	2,330	3,091	8,856
Swiss	883	1,033	
Spaniards	1,850	1,250	3,818
English	1,310	1,350	1,096
Germans	460	530	1,044
Others	497	837	5,066
Total	13,960	17,046	29,384

The Argentine Central Railroad, to connect Rosario and Cordova, 250 miles, is progressing rapidly. A submarine telegraph connects Buenos Ayres with Montevideo. The telegraph from Buenos Ayres to Rosario is completed. It is nearly 300 miles long. The tariff is, for ten words, under 100 miles, 40 cents (gold); over 100 and under 200 miles, 80 cents; and for over 200 miles, $1.20 (gold). President Sarmiento had the wires of the telegraph carried to his house, and his annual message to Congress was conveyed by the wires to their most distant point, and then it was taken by couriers and spread over the republic in the shortest time ever known in South America. The province of Buenos Ayres passed a law authorizing the loan of £800,000 sterling for the extension of the Western Railroad.

The export of meat forming an important staple, Congress voted the sum of 40,000 francs to be awarded as a prize to the inventor of that process which, upon trial, should be proved to be the best for the preservation of fresh meat.

The credit of the nation in 1869 greatly improved, and the interest and percentage of bonds were punctually paid. The budget of the current financial year, it is true, showed a deficit of $9,000,000, but it is chiefly caused by the extraordinary expenses of the Paraguayan War. The annual revenue of the country is rapidly increasing, the total receipts for the past fiscal year having reached the unprecedented sum of $14,000,000. The indebtedness for the war is $20,000,000 (gold). The estimates for 1870 amount to $16,000,000. But for the disastrous war with Paraguay, the government would be in possession of a considerable surplus.

A bill passed Congress for removing the national capital to Rosario as early as the year 1872. The Executive has, however, vetoed this measure.

As to foreign policy, President Sarmiento declared, in his opening speech, at the commencement of the session of the Chambers, that the strongest friendship existed between the allied South American powers; that they felt none but generous feelings for the Paraguayans, and they now proposed to establish a provisional government at Asuncion for the benefit of the people. (*See* PARAGUAY.)

The new United States minister, Mr. Kirk, was specially charged by our Government to be vigilant in creating and perpetuating fraternal relations between the two governments. Sarmiento's warm reply, on the occasion of the new minister's reception, concluded with these words: "If you have read our recent parliamentary debates, you will have observed with satisfaction that Story, Webster, Taney, Cushing, and Pomeroy, are almost Argentine citizens, and masters who point out the way establishing among us your institutions, as remarkable for respect for private liberty as for preserving public tranquillity and the supremacy of the Federal Constitution. Be, then, most cordially welcome, as minister resident of the United States, to the Argentine Republic."

ARKANSAS. A history of Arkansas, since its first settlement by white men, and of its political existence to the present time, has not been published, perhaps not written. Some statements upon this subject, put together mainly from the official journal kept by departmental regulations at the military post of Little Rock, may prove not uninteresting. Though the narrative is intended chiefly to trace up the origin and subsequent growth of Little Rock, now the capital of the State, it points also to earlier explorations and settlements made by Europeans in that region generally. It says: "No history of the State of Arkansas has ever been published. Fernando de Soto was its first explorer of any note, and historians still disagree as to whether he was buried beneath the waters of the mighty stream with which his name is inseparably linked, or under the turbid waves of the Arkansas. As De Soto did not explore the country with a direct view to its settlement or improvement, neither he nor his Spanish followers left any permanent memorials of their visits, in its nomenclature, except in a single instance—

Bayou Departée. No river bears a Spanish name. But the enterprise of the subsequent French settlers is manifest in the names of streams and localities.

"Louis XV., in 1720, made a grant of twelve square miles to the celebrated John Law, on the Arkansas River, on condition that he should settle on it fifteen hundred German immigrants, and maintain at his own expense a sufficient military force to protect them against the Indians. Two hundred Alsatians arrived, and five hundred negroes were imported from Africa by the Mississippi Company, of which John Law was the founder, and which has given his name a notorious immortality. The scheme, as is well known, failed, and the colony, after a few struggling years, was abandoned. It moved to a place about thirty miles from New Orleans, which has since been called 'Côte d'Or,' or the 'Golden Coast,' from the wealth and prosperity of the descendants of the original colony, among whom the French language eventually took the place of the German.

"Except by enterprising French explorers, in search of gold, no visit was made to the State for a long time afterward. It is probable that the next permanent settlement was made near the close of the last century, but it cannot be definitely ascertained. The site then selected was one hundred miles below Little Rock, on the Arkansas River. No splendid patronage of a world-renowned financier gave prestige to the undertaking, which was, this time, the result of the gradual increase of the prosperity of Arkansas. This colony had great difficulties to encounter. Their village was on the low, alluvial soil of the river-bank, and disease made extensive ravages. The surrounding forest was unbroken, and formed an obstacle to the clearing and settlement of the country. The colony would probably have perished in oblivion, were it not for the cession of the Louisiana Territory to the United States, which threw the country open to the enterprise of a new race of people. The Territory of Arkansas was established by an act of Congress, March 2, 1819, the whole population not exceeding one thousand, exclusive of Indians. The point at 'Le Petit Rocher,' or 'The Little Rock,' had been a regular place for crossing the river with the Indians from time immemorial. Though it has never been fordable there, yet a break in the hills rendered it a favorable place for transition. The great Indian trail passed over the present site of the city. A few families settled there, and Little Rock became the extreme outpost on the western frontier of the United States. Practically it was as far from the national capital as Alaska is at present. A mail-carrier on horseback once a month supplied the people of the place with news from Washington City, at least three months old. Governor Miller was the first executive of the Territory. Mr. William E. Woodruff, who survives as a citizen of Little Rock, on November 20, 1819, issued the first newspaper ever published in the Territory, called the *Arkansas Gazette*, which still flourishes, under the supervision of his son. The settlement was named Arkapolis, by some aspiring student, but it soon resumed the descriptive title it now bears. After the Territory was admitted into the Union, in 1836, the growth of the State became more rapid, though still retarded by lawsuits concerning conflicting titles to the land on which the town is situated. A final disposition of these cases was not made till the December term of the United States Supreme Court for 1867. The war, which desolated so many fair cities, seems here to have stayed its insatiate hand, and rather to have developed than injured its prosperity. Large property-holders had been compelled, by pecuniary need, to relinquish town lots to more energetic and enterprising men, who erected fine houses and stores. The capital of Arkansas has its elegant mansions, its business blocks, its temples of worship, its courts of justice, its public buildings, and every necessary characteristic of a thriving city, except its hotels."

With regard to the Spanish and French explorers, or settlers, alluded to in the foregoing narrative, it may be observed here that about the middle of the last century a Spanish fort was built on the high land bordering the Arkansas River, some sixty miles above its mouth, with a view to establishing and protecting the fur-trading post from the Indians, and more effectually to secure that Government's claim to the territory against the encroachments of the French from the Upper Mississippi and the Illinois country. The fort exists no longer, but its site and adjoining grounds are occupied at present by a village called the "Fort," designating by its name the place once guarded by a military force. The grandchildren of Don Carlos de Villemont, Governor of the fort 125 years ago, and those of De Vallière (his immediate successor in that capacity under the short French rule), are still living in the vicinity. Upon Arkansas having been made a Territory by act of Congress in 1819, the seat of its government was located in the above-named village, where it remained for about two years, when the inhabitants transferred it to Little Rock, where the Legislature held its first session after such removal, on the 1st day of October, 1821. Little Rock has continued to be the capital of Arkansas both during its Territorial condition and since it has been admitted into the Union as a State in 1836. The place in which the city of Little Rock now stands, and which the French settlers, or explorers, had originally called "Le Petit Rocher," in order to distinguish it from "Le Grand Rocher," or "Big Rock" (now a town of this name), two miles above, began to be permanently settled about the year 1818; but at the end of 1822, nearly two years after it had become the capital of the Territory, there were not more than

five or six families dwelling in it. By July, 1824, however, that number of families had increased to forty, and the population of the place has been steadily augmenting, especially since the final settlement of land-titles by the Supreme Court of the United States in 1867.

The local affairs of a public character in Arkansas last year continued about the same as they had been during the twelve months next preceding, as was mentioned in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

The General Assembly met again at Little Rock after the holiday recess, and continued its regular sittings till the 10th of April, 1869, when both Houses adjourned *sine die*. Within this period, and that of the session held before the holidays, from the 17th of November, 1868, the Legislature transacted a vast amount of business, many important bills, more or less immediately connected with the general interests of the people, having been discussed and finally passed.

The martial law proclaimed and executed by Governor Clayton in numerous sections of the State, on account of assassinations and other crimes perpetrated mostly on individuals known as Union men, not to mention the frequent acts of open defiance to the law, and resistance offered to civil officers in the exercise of their duty, met with great disapprobation, and complaints were made by a large portion of the community throughout the State, especially by the inhabitants of the counties designated as subject to it. In several of these were held mass-meetings, promiscuously attended by persons belonging to opposite political parties, without distinction, in order publicly to condemn all violations of the laws of the State. They engaged to keep the peace themselves and to cause others to keep it within their county, and to assist the officers of the law in suppressing all infractions of it, and bringing the offenders to justice. In some of these counties the most prominent residents met together for the purpose of deprecating the continuance of its enforcement, solemnly pledging themselves to the Executive for the future tranquillity of their county, as well as for the peaceful and ready obedience of their fellow-citizens to the requirements of the civil officers. A meeting for such a purpose was held in Crittenden County on January 18, 1869, when the following preamble and resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Whereas, His Excellency, Powell Clayton, Governor of Arkansas, has thought proper to declare martial law in the county of Crittenden, for the purpose of more effectually enforcing the laws of the State; and, whereas, by order of the Governor, the county of Crittenden has been, and is now, occupied by the Arkansas State guards; and, whereas, the occupation by the State guards aforesaid is very expensive, both to the State of Arkansas and county of Crittenden, and has a tendency to disturb all business within the county of Crittenden: now, therefore, we, the citizens of the county, do

Resolve, That we, the citizens of the county, whose names are here subscribed, do state upon honor that we have had nothing to do with the organization known as the Ku-klux Klan, directly or indirectly, to our knowledge.

Resolved, That we deprecate the shooting and hanging of men without a trial by the proper authorities, and that we do solemnly pledge ourselves to the Governor of the State of Arkansas, if he will move or cause to be moved from the county of Crittenden the Arkansas State guards, to assist the sheriff of the county of Crittenden in enforcing the laws of the State, and in preserving good order in said county.

Resolved, That we pledge ourselves, in order to carry out the above resolutions, that we will sustain and defend each other against all unlawful opposition.

Which preamble and resolutions, after being read, were adopted by the meeting without a dissenting voice.

The heavy arm of military force and its summary proceedings, however, did not weigh long upon these counties; and that of Crittenden was the last one from which it was withdrawn. In a message to the Legislature, dated February 6, 1869, the Governor announced "the speedy revocation of martial law in every county in the State, except in the county of Crittenden," wherein a small force would be retained; and by a subsequent message, under date of March 22d, he informed the General Assembly that "he had issued a proclamation restoring civil authority in Crittenden County, to take effect upon its receipt by the officer in charge; also, directing prisoners in charge to be turned over to the civil authorities, and the force there disbanded. He announces that therewith "martial law ceased throughout the State."

The vigorous execution of this extraordinary measure, though loudly denounced and inveighed against by a large portion of the people and the press, seems to have produced a good effect in checking the perpetration of crimes, previously frequent, and restoring the country to a somewhat normal condition of tranquillity. In the last-cited message the Governor avers, "The counties lately under martial law can now punish desperate characters;" adding, "letters from citizens of all parts of the State bear evidence that quiet, security, and good order, are enjoyed by all classes." This beneficial result may be also inferred from the fact that the General Assembly, which was in session during the whole time when martial law was in operation, not only made repeated appropriations of money to pay the militia occupying the three districts respectively assigned them for that purpose, but voted public thanks to their commanders, and even passed an act fully indorsing the proclamations and action of the Governor in this respect, as follows:

An act to declare valid and conclusive certain proclamations of the Governor of the State of Arkansas and acts done in pursuance thereof, or of his orders in the declaration of martial law.

SECTION 1. That after the 3d day of November, 1868, and before the first day of May, 1869, respecting martial law, military trials by courts-martial or military commissions, or the arrest, imprisonment, or trial of persons charged with any offences against the State, or any

resistance to the laws thereof, or as aiders or abettors thereof, or as guilty of any disloyal practice in aid thereof, or of affording aid and comfort to those engaged therein, and all proceedings and acts done by the military forces, or had by the courts-martial or military commissions, or arrests, imprisonments, searches, or seizures, made in the premises by any person by the authority of the orders or proclamations of the Governor of the State made as aforesaid, or in aid thereof, or otherwise, are hereby approved in all respects, legalized, and made valid to the same extent and with the same effect as if said orders, proclamations, and acts, had been issued and made, and said arrests, imprisonments, searches, seizures, proceedings, and acts, had been done under the previous express authority and direction of the General Assembly of the State of Arkansas, and in pursuance of the laws thereof previously enacted, and expressly authorizing and directing the same to be done; and no courts of the State of Arkansas shall have or take jurisdiction of, or in any manner review any of the proceedings had, or acts done as aforesaid; nor shall any person be held to answer in any court of said State for any acts done or omitted to be done, in pursuance of or in aid of any of said proclamations or orders, or otherwise, by any of said force or forces within the period aforesaid, and all officers and other persons in the State of Arkansas or who acted in aid thereof, acting in the premises or otherwise, shall be held *prima facie* to have been authorized by the Governor of the State: *Provided*, that nothing herein contained shall be so construed as to prohibit the convening of courts-martial for the trial of persons belonging to the militia or State guards of the State.

SEC. 2. This act to take effect from and after its passage.

A vast number of residents within the counties under martial law suffered heavy losses on account of its operation, private property of all kinds having been taken away from them for the use of the military force stationed therein, by order of the officer, and in many cases they were violently deprived of it by the soldiers without authority. In the above-cited message of March 22d, the Governor acknowledges, "Evils have resulted to individuals by the occupancy of counties by the militia;" and adds, "in some cases unauthorized bands have robbed and plundered indiscriminately." In justice to those people, therefore, he urged on the Legislature the necessity of establishing "a court of claims to adjudicate demands arising out of the operations of martial law," this court "to sit for a sufficient period in each county where martial law existed, and holding a final session at the seat of government, being empowered to examine and adjudicate in reference to all supplies taken by the quartermaster's and subsistence departments, so that those who are properly entitled may receive pay for supplies furnished." This matter, however, had been taken in hand already by members belonging to both branches of the Legislature, a bill having been introduced in the lower House on March 19th, "authorizing the Governor to appoint a court of claims to take proof of the indebtedness of the State to citizens for property taken by the State guards; appropriating for that purpose $50,000 out of the military funds not otherwise appropriated." A similar bill was introduced on the 20th in the Senate, where it passed, with some amendments, on April 8th, by a vote of twelve to three. The House bill, or rather its substitute, appointing, instead of a court to be established by the Governor, "a committee of the members of the Legislature to audit and adjudicate claims against the State on account of property taken by the militia forces of the State," and appropriating for it "the sum of $200,000," instead of $50,000, was passed on April 9th, the vote being thirty-nine yeas and fifteen nays. The Senate, to whom the passage of the bill was announced by message on the same day, took it up on the next before noon, the hour previously fixed by a joint resolution for adjournment, when other bills were sought to be pushed through, and thus it was not finally acted upon.

One of the most remarkable enactments made by the General Assembly of Arkansas at the last session was the "funding of the public State debt," a large proportion of it being of a very extraordinary character. The bill "authorizes and requires the Governor to fund the debt of the State, consisting of the bonds issued by the State to the Real Estate Bank and State banks, by issuing new bonds of the State in lieu of the old bonds issued to the said Real Estate and State banks;" ordaining, that "the amount of the new bonds (of $1,000 each, payable in thirty years after date—the 1st of January, 1870—and bearing interest at the rate of six per cent. per annum, with coupon-warrants attached) shall be the amount of the old bonds with accrued interest thereon; said interest to be computed from the time of the last payment of interest upon said old bonds to the date of the issue of the new bonds;" that is, amount of the old bonds issued to the Real Estate Bank, $500,000, interest accrued on the same from September 7, 1840, to January 1, 1870, $870,000, making together $1,370,000, and bearing an annual interest to be paid by the State of $82,200. The proposal of this measure excited great opposition both within the halls of the Legislature, and among the people and press throughout the State, the opponents professing their readiness to pay whatever the State owed on any account, but refusing to sanction the proposed bill, because, so far as the bonds issued to the Real Estate Bank may be concerned, above three-fourths of the debt sought to be funded and imposed upon the State had no existence whatever. The facts connected with the origin and subsequent circumstances of the said bonds were well known, and set down in a decision by the Supreme Court of Arkansas, as follows:

On the 1st of January, 1840, the State issued to the Real Estate Bank, in pursuance of its charter, five hundred bonds for $1,000 each, bearing interest, etc., to be sold at par, for the purpose of procuring banking capital, etc. On the 7th of September, 1840, the cashier of the bank, with the approval of two of the bond commissioners, entered into a contract with the North American Trust and Banking Company of New York, by which that company agreed to loan the

Real Estate Bank $250,000, upon a pledge or hypothecation of the bonds referred to, which sum was to be advanced by instalments and repaid at stipulated periods, with interest, etc. In pursuance of this contract, the bonds were delivered to the North American Trust and Banking Company, and it is admitted that the Real Estate Bank received, through its agents, and appropriated to its use, the sum of $121,336.59. No further sum was advanced.

About the 1st of December, 1840, the North American Trust and Banking Company pledged the same bonds to James Holford & Co., bankers, of London, for a loan of $325,000. Afterward Holford became the sole owner of the debt, and holder of the bonds so pledged, by transfer from his partner. The North American Trust and Banking Company went into liquidation upon being declared insolvent. Three referees, two counsellors-at-law, and one merchant, were appointed by the Court to ascertain what collateral securities had been assigned to secure sums due from the insolvent company, who, after a laborious investigation, reported that among the collateral securities assigned to Holford by the Trust Company were the five hundred Arkansas bonds, which they ascertained to be of the actual value of $425,000 on the 1st of October, 1857.

Whence the opponents of the bill inferred, as a self-evident conclusion, that these bonds, being affected by no other debt than the sum of $121,336.59 loaned on them, and interest, whatever amount above this was now sought to be funded, under the title of State debt, on account of the said bonds, was clearly out of existence; as the State of Arkansas cannot possibly owe more than that amount to the present holder of the bonds, who is vested with the rights of the lender; by the same reason by which the Trust and Banking Company itself, if it had not failed and still held the bonds in its possession, could demand of the Real Estate Bank, or the State, the payment only of the sum it actually advanced on the bonds and interest; as a pawnee, who gives fifty dollars on a value of one thousand, deposited with him as security, or his successor, cannot ask of the debtor the payment of as much money as the pledge is worth, and interest, but must be content to receive only the fifty dollars which he loaned on it, and interest. Yet the bill funding the public State debt for the whole amount of the said old bonds, and interest thereon since 1840, passed the House of Representatives on April 1st, by a vote of 38 to 18, and the Senate on the 3d, with yeas 13, nays 4; and the Governor approved the act on the 6th.

The State Board of Education held meetings to arrange details for carrying the general school law into effect as soon as practicable, the most beneficial results being anticipated from its execution; though there were some differences of opinion as to the propriety and expediency of establishing separate schools for white and colored children. The Legislature also took commendable interest in this important subject during the last session. Among other provisions made tending to promote general instruction, they adopted a joint resolution, requesting Congress, through the Senators and Representatives of Arkansas at Washington, "to grant the State such aid in lands as will enable it to establish a male and female normal school;" and passed an act "to donate the property in the city of Arkadelphia, formerly known as the Arkansas Blind Institute, to said city, for the purpose of establishing free high schools." They made "an appropriation for the purchase of books for convicts in the penitentiary."

The General Assembly also took steps "to establish the Arkansas Deaf and Mute Institute," by amending the first four sections of an act previously passed for that purpose.

In regard to the blind, the Legislature, besides passing a general act "for the benefit of blind persons of the State," adopted a joint resolution "to request Congress to grant one hundred sections of land for the benefit of the Blind Institute of Arkansas," and passed an act "making appropriations for the Blind Institute, for the years 1869 and 1870, and to supply a deficiency for the year 1868." This establishment, however, seems very well managed and in a prosperous condition; its inmates, both male and female, being successfully taught and trained up to execute a variety of useful works adapted to their state.

Internal improvements, tending to develop and make available the great natural resources of the State, are not neglected by the Government. The various branches of agriculture are attended to with success, especially the growth of cotton, to the profitable cultivation of which the soil of Arkansas, the river-bottom-lands above all, is peculiarly adapted. The crop of this staple in Arkansas, in 1869, was estimated at "nearly 300,000 bales." In order to redeem swamps and overflowed lands, and restore them to cultivation, several acts were passed by the Legislature, "providing for the building and repairing the public levees of the State," and a joint resolution adopted, "requesting Congress to confirm the lands donated to the State by Congress, for the construction of levees and drains." The new public system of levees is considered about the best that could be devised, and represented as being now vigorously prosecuted. The *Arkansas Gazette* of November 30, 1869, briefly describes it in these words: "A majority of the owners of the land to be reclaimed present their petition to the county commissioner, who lays it before the county court. The county court may reject the petition, and, in case of granting it, it is forwarded to the Superintendent of Public Works at Little Rock. The superintendent advertises the contract thirty days, in which to receive bids, and gives the work to the lowest bidder, who files an approved bond to the amount of the estimated cost of the work, for the performance of his contract. The State pays the contractors in bonds of the State, due in thirty years, the lands protected to pay interest thereon, being taxed at a valuation of about twenty-five cents an acre, from lists of said lands, contained in

the original petition of the land-owners and such others as may be added to such list by the county court."

To promote internal improvements, the General Assembly made provisions for the regulation of trade, and transportation companies, by land or water, and adopted several joint resolutions, requesting the Post-Office Department at Washington "to increase the mail service on certain routes of the State," by establishing it on new routes where it had never existed, and reëstablishing it on old ones where it had been discontinued.

The people of Arkansas, however, seem fully to appreciate the importance of railroads, and are desirous to extend their lines into a general system, this being the quickest mode of bringing the distant portions of the State into close communication with one another and with the neighboring States. For this purpose, two acts were passed by the Legislature in the preceding session, approved on July 21 and 23, 1868, respectively, and both ratified by the people's suffrage at the general election in November, that year. The first one of these acts, under the title, "An act to aid in the construction of railroads," authorized the loaning the State credit to assist railway companies in constructing their lines; the other, entitled, "An act to provide for a general system of railroad incorporations," fixes at 850 the aggregate number of miles of road to which the State aid is to be granted, and, for the carrying out its provisions, appoints a board of commissioners, who were "empowered to receive applications, and required to designate the lines to which the State aid is to be granted." In the session of 1869, however, this subject was taken up again, a remarkable bill having been introduced in the Senate, discussed and voted for by a majority of its members, whereby, professing to carry out the wish of the people, expressed by their ratifying the act "to aid in the construction of railroads," the Legislature repeals those sections of the other act, equally ratified by the people, which appoints a board of commissioners to designate the roads for the award of the State aid, and assumes the exercise of this function itself, by actually designating five different lines of road, and granting the State aid, under certain conditions and restrictions, for 850 miles in the aggregate, at the rate of ten and fifteen thousand dollars per mile respectively. This bill, involving some ten millions of the State or people's money, was warmly opposed, as being unconstitutional, and therefore null, because of the already existing law ratified by the people, whose enactments could not be repealed by the Legislature, nor, in this case, by the people themselves, since third parties had entered into contract under its provisions, and been vested with rights which could not be taken away from them by any legal power. The opponents added the less weighty reason that the provisions of the proposed bill were partial and inexpedient, as it loaned the State credit to unimportant, perhaps only imaginary roads, and omitted most important ones, as the Memphis and Little Rock, considered of paramount advantage to the State. The bill passed the Senate on March 11, 1869, by a vote of fourteen to seven; but in the House of Representatives it was not finally acted upon.

The banking interest in the State appears to be quite large, considering the number of its population, which is estimated at about 600,000, and in a favorable condition.

Taxation in Arkansas is a subject of much complaint by the people, and presses generally heavily, on account both of the high rate of valuation at which property is assessed, and of the amount levied on it for State, county, and municipal purposes, though some cities and counties are taxed more than others. An apparently correct idea of this whole subject may be formed from the subjoined statement relative to Pulaski County: "The people of Pulaski County, and of Little Rock, have been more oppressed by taxation than any county and city in the State. Our property is all assessed fifty per cent. above its cash value; and, on that valuation, in 1868, a tax of more than three per cent. was levied. The present year, the same assessment is continued, and our people are taxed, for State, county, and city purposes, six per cent., the United States taxes increasing it to not less than eight per cent. Last year, the taxes amounted, in Pulaski County, almost to $270,000; this year they will be $500,000, which, to a population of 10,000 souls, white and black, is unprecedented—to use no harsher term."

The sum of the public expenditures of the State is said by many to be swelling up much faster, and to a greater extent, than her growth can bear or justify. A general appropriation bill was passed by both Houses of the Legislature in the last session, the act fixing both the items of this expenditure, and the amounts per annum to be paid for each during the period of two years.

The political excitement in Arkansas last year, as previously, ran high—higher, perhaps, and with more violent movements, than in other States of the Union. It is not improbable that the public disturbances, which provoked the proclamation of martial law in many of its counties in November, 1868, were prompted chiefly by party spirit, and that the manner in which that law was enforced, by those intrusted with its execution, proceeded from the same cause. Between the white and negro residents of the State, however, a reciprocal good feeling toward each other seems to be cherished. Within and outside the halls of the Legislature the Republican party is the larger in number and influence, especially because a large proportion of citizens who would probably belong to the Democratic party are disqualified and ineligible according to the provisions of the reconstruction acts; though

they are being gradually rehabilitated. At present, the government of Arkansas, in all its departments, civil as well as political, is in the hands of Republicans. A contrariety of sentiment, however, which had been growing for some time within their own ranks, broke out at last into an open rupture, as appears from the preamble and resolutions unanimously adopted at a meeting held in Little Rock on the 8th of April, 1869, and attended by eighteen Republican members of the legislative body, both Senators and Representatives, utterly condemning and repudiating the acts as well as the policy of the present State administration and Legislature, on principle, and inviting their fellow-Republicans to coöperate with them as follows:

Whereas, In the bad management of our State government under the unwise administration of Governor Powell Clayton, and in the rash, reckless, and improvident legislation of the General Assembly, under the control of the Governor and his partisans, the Republican party of Arkansas has received wounds, from the effects of which the most energetic and untiring efforts of its true friends and defenders can alone rescue it, and save it from threatened defeat and overthrow: therefore,

Resolved, That, renewing our allegiance to the National Union Republican party, and our fidelity and devotion to the true principles and doctrines of that party, as set forth and declared in the platform of the Chicago Convention, we do most solemnly protest, in the name of the Republican party and of the people of Arkansas, against all those great errors, abuses and corruptions of the administration, which have caused so much dissatisfaction and discontent in the party, and brought so much trouble and distress upon the country.

Resolved, That while it is needless to specify, in detail, all the numerous acts and measures, so universally known and reprobated, that characterize and make up the policy and administration of the government; yet we deem it proper to enumerate the following among the more prominent causes of complaint:

1. The criminal abuse of power and dereliction of duty on the part of the Governor as commander-in-chief of the militia forces of the State, under the late reign of martial law, whereby that which was intended by its friends and advisers as a wise and wholesome measure of safety to the government and safety to the private citizen, has been turned into a means of wrong, crime, and oppression.

2. The criminal and corrupt mismanagement of our great and important railroad interests, whereby a large portion of the State has been entirely ignored and overlooked in the dispensation of "State aid," and nearly all the leading authorized routes of the State been seized upon by an organized "ring" of penniless adventurers under the convenient arrangements of a General Incorporation Act passed for that purpose, who, in connection with the board of railroad commissioners under the control of the chief Executive, have been made the recipients and beneficiaries of all the benefits of the "loan bill," by which some thirteen millions of dollars have been awarded.

3. The improvident, not to say corrupt, management of the funding bill, by which a debt of several millions of dollars, being a portion of the Holford claim, which the State neither legally nor morally owes, has been assumed and funded without the authority or consent of the people, and contrary to the constitution of the State.

4. The general spirit of reckless expenditure and extravagant appropriation, which has characterized the administration of the government in all its departments, whereby the annual expenses of the State government, which the representatives of the party promised the people, in their speeches and through their press during the late presidential canvass, should not exceed two or three hundred thousand dollars, have run up to the enormous and almost incredible sum of a million and a half dollars per annum.

Resolved, That with such a record of improvidence, folly, and crime, to father, it will be utterly impossible for the Republican party to maintain itself, or hope for future success: therefore, that as the only means of safety and protection that is left us, we hereby, in the name of the Republican party, repudiate said record and its authors, aiders, and abettors; and, planting ourselves upon the true principles of the platform of the party, we earnestly call upon every true Republican in the State, colored as well as white, to unite and coöperate with us in our future efforts to save the organization of the party, and preserve the purity and integrity of its principles.

On the evening of October 15, 1869, Governor Clayton made a speech from the steps of the capitol, solemnly declaring the policy which he intended to pursue—namely, "favoring the earliest possible enfranchisement of the people, and retrenchment and reform in public expenditures." These declarations, received with satisfaction by the people, and applauded by the press generally, produced the effect of blunting the edge of that opposition which had previously existed.

The proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, known as Article Fifteenth, was ratified by the Legislature of Arkansas in their last session almost unanimously; though several members refused their assent to the second section of the said article, which provides that "the Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation," as infringing upon the rights of the individual States.

ARMY, UNITED STATES. At the commencement of the year the Department of War was under the charge of Major-General J. M. Schofield, and General U. S. Grant was in command of the Army. The latter, on March 4th, became President, and was succeeded in command by Lieutenant-General W. T. Sherman, who was promoted to the rank of General. On March 12th, General John A. Rawlins became Secretary of War, which post he filled until his death, on September 6th. The President then appointed General Sherman Secretary *pro tem.*, and on November 1st, General W. W. Belknap succeeded to the office. For the purpose of military government, the United States are divided into twelve departments and three districts, each of which is under the command of an experienced general officer, who, by law, is invested with all the powers of the commanding general of an army in the field, and is held responsible for the discipline and maintenance of the troops, the preservation of good order, so far as the military authority extends, and for the care of all the public property that belongs to the army. These departments, with the commanding officers, are as follows:

Department of Dakota—Major-General Hancock.

Department of the Platte—Brevet Major-General Augur.

Department of the Missouri—Brevet Major-General Schofield.

Department of the Cumberland—Brevet Major-General Cooke.

Department of Louisiana—Brevet Major-General Mower.

Department of Mississippi—Brevet Major-General Ames.

Department of the South—Brevet Major-General Terry.

Department of the East—Brevet Major-General McDowell.

Department of the Lakes—Brevet Major-General Pope.

Department of California—Brevet Major-General Ord.

Department of Columbia—Brevet Major-General Crook.

Department of Alaska—Brevet Major-General Davis.

The three military districts are Virginia, Brevet Major-General Canby; Mississippi, Brevet Major-General Ames; Texas, Brevet Major-General Reynolds.

The four military divisions of the country, with their commanders, are as follows: Division of Missouri, Lieutenant-General Sheridan, embracing the departments of Dakota, the Platte, and the Missouri; the division of the South, Major-General Halleck, embracing the States of Kentucky, Tennessee, West Virginia, Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Alabama, Florida, Georgia, and North and South Carolina; the division of the Atlantic, Major-General Meade, embracing the States of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, and Wisconsin; the New-England States, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Delaware, Virginia, and the District of Columbia; the division of the Pacific, Major-General Thomas, embracing California, Columbia, and Alaska.

A further reduction of the forty-five regiments of infantry belonging to the peace establishment was made during the year. This was ordered in a clause attached to the general appropriation bill passed March 3, 1869, which provided, "That there shall be no new commissions, no promotions, and no enlistments in any infantry regiment until the total number of infantry regiments is reduced to twenty-five, and the Secretary is hereby directed to consolidate the infantry regiments as rapidly as the requirements of the public service and the reduction of the number of officers will permit." By the same act the period of enlistments was changed from three to five years. The Secretary of War determined not to wait until the consolidation should be effected by the progress of time, but to make it at once, and on March 10th issued orders for that object. The colonels and field-officers were selected at Washington and announced in general orders, but the captains and lieutenants were selected by the commanding general of the department in which the regiments were to serve. Generally the senior officer of each grade was retained. After this consolidation there remained 509 unattached officers. All of these were soon assigned to duty, except 156, who were considered as awaiting orders.

The maximum of the army at the close of the year was 52,234 enlisted men. Relying upon two-thirds for actual service, the number of men is 34,822. A plan for the reorganization of the army is proposed by General Sherman. It retains the present number of regiments, which is forty, and allows a maximum of seventy-five privates to each company. This would give for the line of the Army 2,135 commissioned officers and 42,490 men. Allowing two-thirds as the proportion which can be relied on for actual service, it would give 29,750 men. This number is not estimated to be above the necessities of the country.

The staff of the army consists of those officers and men who administer to the wants of the military establishments, and are classified as adjutants-general, inspectors-general, bureau of military justice, quartermasters, commissaries, surgeons, paymasters, and ordnance department, corps of engineers, chief signal-officer, and post-chaplains. In the Adjutant-General's Department nothing of importance has occurred. The results of the inspection service during the past year have been to discover and bring to the notice of the proper authorities the qualifications of officers to fill the positions assigned them; the condition of troops in regard to discipline, drill, and efficiency—whether duty has been neglected; laws, regulations, or orders violated; public property misapplied, lost, or wantonly destroyed; whether there have been extravagant or unnecessary expenditures of public money, stores, or material; and the personal responsibility for all irregularities and abuses, with suggestions for remedial action. Through the agency of this branch of the service there has been continued improvement in the discipline and efficiency of the troops, as well as the promotion of a more discriminating and careful regard for the economical application of public money and property.

The Bureau of Military Justice has received, reviewed, and registered 14,944 records of military courts. It has also been charged with the duty of arranging and indexing the important state papers of the late judge advocate and the provost-marshal during the war.

The expenditures of the Quartermaster's Department have decreased $14,500,000, as compared with last year. The number of civilians engaged in the department has been reduced from 10,000 to 4,000 during the year. The scattered condition of the troops increases the expenditures. To this is to be added the peculiarly sterile character of the country in which they are kept. The troops are stationed

by companies in posts in the most inhospitable parts of the continent, to which every article of food, forage, clothing, ammunition, etc., must be hauled in wagons, at great cost. A heavy item of expenditure is the cost of fuel and materials for making huts, sometimes at a distance of one or two hundred miles from a place where a growing sapling may be found. A reduction of the estimates to those before the war would make it necessary to withdraw the troops from a large part of the distant Territories. The railroad companies to whom the materials of the department were sold, at the close of the war, incurred a debt of $7,591,406, which increased, by interest, to $9,000,000. About one-half of this amount has been paid. Suits have been commenced against those not manifesting a disposition to cancel their obligations. The transportation of the department over the railroads of the country has been made at less than the war rates, and has amounted to $2,253,804. The water transportation has cost $1,424,222. Of the former amount $933,166.21 was paid to the Pacific Railroads, one-half being paid in cash, and the other half retained in the Treasury to meet the interest on the bonds guaranteed by the United States. During the year 96,000 persons, 3,700 animals, and 62,000 tons of stores, have been moved by water, and 60,000 persons, 14,000 animals, and 40,000 tons of stores, by railroad. 27,000 tons of stores have been moved by contractors for wagon transportation. The Pacific Railroad has occupied some of the principal routes of former wagon transportation, and has saved the Government much money in supplying the posts along its line. The clothing and equipage on hand at the close of the war has been reduced by sales, but the amount that still remains is estimated at more than $42,000,000 in value. The two most important depots are the Schuylkill Arsenal and the one at Jeffersonville, Indiana. The number of national cemeteries is seventy-two, and there are three hundred and thirteen local posts and private cemeteries in which soldiers lie buried.

The subsistence supplies for the Army have been mainly procured in the large market cities of the country. The average cost of the ration at these markets has been about twenty-three cents. Efforts to procure salt meats on the Pacific coast for troops stationed there have met with great success; supplies of excellent quality have been obtained at favorable prices. Tobacco, at an average monthly value of $19,000, has been furnished to troops at cost prices, and the Freedmen's Bureau has been supplied with stores to the value of nearly $250,000.

The issues to Indians at various points have amounted to more than $150,000, and, at the request of the Interior Department, stores valued at $37,500 were issued to destitute Osages and others to prevent starvation during the winter. Under an arrangement between the War Department and the Department of the Interior, the Indian Department is furnished with food for the Indians on several reservations on the Missouri River and in the Indian Territory.

There has been paid $27,621.75 as commutation of rations to Union soldiers while prisoners of war. Claims for supplies furnished the Army during the war, amounting to $2,899,806.15, have been received, of which $288,038.87 have been allowed, and $2,581,064.13 have been rejected.

During the fiscal year 11,907 accounts and returns have been received from various officers, of which 11,787 have been examined and referred to the Third Auditor for final settlement.

The current expenditures of the Medical Department amounted to $233,561. At Key West the troops were attacked with yellow fever, but by their prompt removal the ravages of the disease were at once stopped. The number of cases on the sick list during the year was 104,235. The average number constantly on the sick report was about 5.5 per cent.

The Engineer Department of the Army has charge of the construction of the permanent forts, the improvement of rivers and harbors, with such other duties as are imposed by special laws. A very interesting subject has been under consideration in this Department during the year. It relates to the alterations required in the various forts in consequence of the increased weight of ordnance. Nearly all the sea-coast forts were planned at a time when the eight-inch gun was the heaviest afloat, and before rifled guns came into use. Now, however, that ordnance of the fifteen and twenty inch calibres, throwing a shot over one thousand pounds in weight with a velocity of fifteen hundred feet per second, have come into general use, the problem of resistance is entirely changed. It is believed that casemate forts, no matter how reënforced with iron, are not able to resist these shot, and changes must be made to meet this change of facts. The engineer officers have carefully studied this subject and made many most valuable experiments. The Board of Engineers in New York has laid down five general propositions for application to all modifications of the sea-coast forts, viz.:

1. The use of barbette batteries of earth, with deep parapet, and a liberal number of bomb-proof and magazine traverses.

2. The use of the heaviest guns practicable, with carriages admitting of the gun being depressed below the parapet for loading.

3. An abundant supply of heavy mortars.

4. The use of torpedoes.

5. Entanglements to hold a fleet long enough for destruction.

These propositions seem to fulfil all the conditions required. No foreign army will be likely to attempt a landing on the coast, and a hostile fleet can only endeavor to run by the

forts and lay the cities under contribution. On firm land guns of a heavier calibre can be handled, and with more accuracy of aim than by an enemy afloat. It is also doubtful if any armored ship yet built can long exist within the range of twenty-inch guns, or even of fifteen-inch guns, if skilfully handled. The river and harbor works of the country have progressed as rapidly as the appropriations would permit. In the territory west of the Mississippi reconnoissances and geographical and geological explorations have been continued, and the geological survey from the Sierra Nevada to the Rocky Mountains completed.

All the troops are now supplied with breech-loading small-arms of the best kind. It appears that the experience of the late war has demonstrated that for field-guns the Napoleon twelve-pounder, smooth bore, and the three-inch ordnance rifled gun, are unsurpassed. In respect to heavy coast ordnance there exists a diversity of opinion. Some think that for the heavy sea-coast forts the ten-inch, fifteen-inch, and twenty-inch smooth-bore cast-iron guns for the great mass of fire, with mortars of the same calibre, and using the same shot, would be the most useful. A joint committee of Congress, appointed to investigate this with other subjects, made a report on ordnance, on March 20th. The conclusions to which their investigations led them were as follows:

1. That no more heavy guns should be purchased for mounting in the fortifications or use on shipboard until such improvements are made in the methods of fabrication as will insure more reliable endurance than has heretofore been exhibited.

2. That the Rodman system of gun-making, while partially successful in smooth bores and small calibres, has so far failed in rifles of large calibre as to show it to be unworthy of further confidence. Recent improvements in defensive works and armor-plating render heavy rifled guns the most efficient means of attack, and no system of fabrication which does not furnish such guns should be adopted or continued. The principle of initial tension, which is the basis of the Rodman system, appears to be of doubtful utility, as applied by General Rodman, especially for rifled guns. This tension, it is admitted, gradually disappears from the gun with age, and in time is entirely lost.

3. That guns cast solid, in the manner practised in the navy under the direction of Rear-Admiral Dahlgren, while exhibiting satisfactory endurance as smooth bores with small charges and hollow projectiles, have not the requisite strength for rifles of large calibre. This mode of casting seems to be defective in principle, as the tensions inaugurated in cooling have a tendency to aid the powder to rupture the gun.

4. That experiments should be at once conducted for the purpose of ascertaining the real cause of the bursting of heavy guns, and of determining upon some method of fabrication that will secure uniform endurance.

5. That every encouragement should be given to inventors, and a full and fair trial accorded to all devices offered to the Government that promise a solution of the ordnance problem.

6. That more efficient means for harbor defence should be adopted. The late war demonstrated that sand was the best material for defensive works, and that forts of masonry, such as we have now mainly to rely upon for the protection of our seaboard cities, are inefficient to prevent the passage of armored, or even wooden vessels. The destruction of such defences is only a question of time to ordinary guns of heavy calibre. It was also demonstrated that forts alone, of whatever character, cannot resist the entrance to harbors of powerfully-armed ships, if the preponderance of guns on the assailing fleet is sufficient. In the opinion of the committee, obstructions must be largely relied upon for harbor defence, in connection with properly-constructed fortifications.

7. That no officer of the Army or Navy should be allowed to receive a patent for any article required, or likely to be required, for use in those branches of the public service, or be in any way interested in the manufacture or procurement of such articles. It should be the duty of Congress to recognize by suitable rewards the services of such officers as might make inventions of especial value to the Government.

8. That the Ordnance Department of the Army can be entirely abolished with great advantage as to economy, and without detriment to the good of the service. The duties now performed by officers of that corps could be performed by officers detailed from the artillery service, under the direction of a chief stationed at Washington. In this manner the whole expense of the ordinance establishment would be saved, and artillery officers, who have not only scientific training, but practical experience, would have a voice in the selection of the guns and ammunition they are required to use.

This committee declared the present ordnance system to be a failure, and that the country was without a single rifled gun of large calibre.

Instruction in signals has been continued in every department, for the purpose of so diffusing a knowledge of the service and distributing apparatus that every officer may have such information of the duty as may suffice in case of emergency to save life in, or prevent disaster to, his command. The signal service has been brought into active use in operations against the Indians on the plains. The organization and development of the field telegraph has received especial attention, and continued tests have been made with portable lines, such as are used with trains in the field. The field telegraph trains are organized in a military form, which requires all movements to be executed at the word of command. An object has been to provide a train so equipped and organized as to enable four portable lines, carried in it, to be erected simultaneously, at about the rate of three miles an hour.

The operations of the Freedmen's Bureau have been closed, except the educational and bounty divisions. All the hospitals but two have been closed or transferred to the civil authorities. Of the two, one is about to be closed and the other will remain in the District of Columbia. The number of persons which the Bureau has had under its care is 584,178. During the existence of the Bureau about one in two hundred, or one-half of one per cent. of the freed people, have been supported by the Government. The freedmen were advised to make written contracts with their employers, and have the same explained

and approved by a Bureau officer. In a single State more than fifty thousand such contracts were made. The labor of the freedmen has produced nearly all the food consumed in the South, besides large amounts of rice, sugar, and tobacco for exportation, and about two million bales of cotton per year, on which were paid into the United States Treasury, during the years 1866 and 1867, taxes amounting to more than forty million dollars.

Much disappointment and ill feeling were caused by the failure of the original plan to lease or sell the abandoned lands in small tracts to refugees and freedmen. Information has been published respecting lands under the homestead act of June 21, 1866, and some aid given to those who desired to enter them. Attention is beginning to turn in that direction, and about four thousand families have already made entries and obtained homes of their own. In a few instances freedmen have united in the purchase of farms under cultivation. They are anxious to become landowners.

More attention has been given to their education than to any subject respecting them. In each State at least one normal school has been organized. Several chartered colleges for freed people are in operation; also a university in the District of Columbia. In the 2,118 schools under the care of the Bureau, and officially reported, the number of teachers employed is 2,455, and the number of pupils is 114,522. Adding those estimated in private and Sabbath schools, the number under instruction of some kind during the last year was not less than 250,000. The freed people have, during the last year, paid for tuition and the construction of buildings about $200,000.

The whole amount of bounties paid since April 17, 1867, when the first treasury certificate was received, is $5,831,417.89. The balance on deposit now due to claimants is $1,220,066.52. Three thousand three hundred and eleven applications for bounty are now under examination in this office, and 18,000 such claims are now on file in the Second Auditor's office awaiting settlement, and it is believed that about twenty-five thousand claims of this kind remain to be presented. The work of paying bounties to freedmen is, therefore, not yet complete.

The expenses of the Bureau were met the first year with the proceeds of rents, sales of crops, school taxes and tuition, and sale of Confederate States property. The amount received from all these miscellaneous sources was $1,865,645.80, and from appropriations by Congress since July, 1866, $11,084,750, making a total of $12,950,395.80 received from all sources. The expenditures, including the accounts of the "Department of Negro Affairs," from June 1, 1865, to August 31, 1869, have been $11,194,028.10.

In addition to this, subsistence, medical supplies, and quartermasters' supplies, were expended, amounting in cash to $2,330,788.72, but whose real value when transferred to the Bureau was probably less than one million dollars. Adding their original cost to the cash expended, the total expenses of the Bureau have been $13,524,816.82.

It seems that the Board of Visitors to the Military Academy thought that an entire reorganization of that institution should be made, as in its present condition it was inadequate to meet the future demands of the country. They recommended that the institution should be enlarged, the number of cadets greatly increased, the standard of admission be raised, and the cadets be divided into two classes, one pursuing an ordinary course of military instruction and its members returned to civil life upon graduation, to spread a knowledge of the military art throughout the land, and supply trained officers for the emergencies of war; the other, selected from the promising members of the former class, and equal in number only to the yearly wants of the Army, to pursue their studies and practice to the very limits of military science.

These recommendations would doubtless be much modified by those of practical officers.

The actual expenditures of the Army for the fiscal year were, including the Freedmen's Bureau, $56,761,732. To this must be added, for old war debts paid, $23,882,310, making the total $80,644,042. Of this amount there was expended for reconstruction purposes, $406,419.

It is manifest that the military administration of the Army has been effective and its discipline unimpaired. The duties devolving upon the commanders of the three military districts of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas have been performed under many embarrassments, with fidelity and good judgment.

Of the pensioned widows of soldiers in the Revolutionary War there survive: One of those married prior to 1783, 54 of those married between 1783 and 1794, 88 of those married between 1794 and 1800, and 795 of those married since 1800—887 in all, and only one less than the preceding year.

There are on the rolls the names of 1,293 widows and children of soldiers who served in the wars subsequent to the Revolution and prior to that of 1861—a decrease of five since the last annual report. The number of invalid pensioners who served in said wars is 2,350.

During the past year there were examined and allowed 7,120 new applications for invalid pensions of soldiers, at an aggregate annual rate of $468,144, and 2,908 applications for increased pension of invalid soldiers, at an annual aggregate rate of $164,798. During the same period 15,695 original pensions to widows, orphans, and dependent relatives of soldiers, were allowed, at an aggregate annual rate of $1,577,281; and 11,998 applications by the same class for increased pay were also admitted, at a total annual rate of $784,549. On the 30th June, 1869, there were on the rolls 81,579 in-

valid military pensioners, whose yearly pensions amounted to $7,362,804, and 103,546 widows, orphans, and dependent relatives of soldiers, whose yearly pensions amounted to $13,567,679, making the total aggregate of army pensioners 185,125, at a total annual rate of $20,930,483. The whole amount paid during the last fiscal year to invalid military pensioners was $9,383,715, to widows, orphans, and dependent relatives, $18,609,153—a grand total of $27,992,868, which includes the expenses of the disbursing agencies.

With regard to the Indian tribes of the West, no permanent policy has yet been established. They have generally remained peaceful during the year.

The completion of one of the great lines of railway to the Pacific coast has totally changed the conditions under which the civilized population of the country come in contact with the wild tribes. Instead of a slowly advancing tide of migration, making its gradual inroads upon the circumference of the great interior wilderness, the very centre of the desert has been pierced. Every station upon the railway has become a nucleus for a civilized settlement, and a base from which lines of exploration for both mineral and agricultural wealth are pushed in every direction. Daily trains are carrying thousands of citizens and untold values of merchandise across the continent, and must be protected from the danger of having hostile tribes on either side of the route. The range of the buffalo is being rapidly restricted, and the chase is becoming an uncertain reliance to the Indian for the sustenance of his family. If he is in want he will rob, as white men do in the like circumstances, and robbery is but the beginning of war, in which savage barbarities and retaliations soon cause a cry of extermination to be raised along the whole frontier.

It has long been the policy of the Government to require of the tribes most nearly in contact with white settlements that they should fix their abode upon definite reservations, and abandon the wandering life to which they had been accustomed. To encourage them in civilization, large expenditures have been made in furnishing them with the means of agriculture and with clothing adapted to their new mode of life.

A new policy is not so much needed as an enlarged and more enlightened application of the general principles of the old one. This policy looks to two objects: First, the location of the Indians upon fixed reservations, so that the pioneers and settlers may be freed from the terrors of wandering hostile tribes; and, second, an earnest effort at their civilization, so that they may themselves be elevated in the scale of humanity, and our obligation to them as fellow-men be discharged. In carrying out this policy, a great practical difficulty has arisen from the fact that in most instances a separate reservation was given to each tribe. These reservations have been surrounded and gradually invaded by the white settlers, and the Indians crowded out of their homes and forced to negotiate for a new settlement, because their presence, their habits, and their manners, were distasteful to their new and more powerful neighbors.

The Indians north of the Platte River are not yet prepared for a similar concentration; but the time cannot be far distant when two or three principal Indian territories may properly embrace all the tribes east of the Rocky Mountains.

The same policy of concentrating the tribes will apply to the country west of the Rocky Mountains, and will be equally necessary whenever and wherever the feuds existing among them can be so far settled that they can live together in peaceful neighborhood.

In the recent organization of the Indian Bureau itself it was deemed advisable to depart from the usual mode of selecting and appointing the superintendents and agents. The tribes in Nebraska and Kansas, and some of those most recently placed upon reservations in the Indian territory, were placed under control of the members of the Society of Friends; the others were given in charge of military officers, who were waiting orders under the laws for the reduction of the Army.

These sweeping changes were made because it was believed that the public opinion of the country demanded a radical reorganization of this branch of the service. The selection of the officers of the Army was made partly for economical reasons, as they were on pay though not on duty, and the salaries of many civil officers could thus be saved; and partly because it was believed they furnished a corps of public servants whose integrity and faithfulness could be relied upon, and in whom the public were prepared to have confidence.

The Friends were appointed not because they were believed to have any monopoly of honesty or of good-will toward the Indians, but because their selection would of itself be understood by the country to indicate the policy adopted, namely—the sincere cultivation of peaceful relations with the tribes, and the choice of agents who did not, for personal profit, seek the service, but were sought for it because they were at least deemed fit for its duties. The two yearly meetings of "Friends" were asked to select men in whom they had confidence, and who might become at once the business agents of the Government and zealous missionaries of civilization. The persons so selected were appointed, and, although it was somewhat late in the season when they were sent to their posts, enough has been seen of their labors to make it certain that the mode of selection was not a mistake. It is due to these societies to say that they have at their own cost sent officers of their own body to inspect the work of the agents as far as it aimed at the civilization and instruction of the In-

dians. The moral support and encouragement thus given to the agents must be valuable.

In accordance with the same general plan of bringing moral influences to bear upon the conduct of Indian affairs, the present Congress authorized the President to appoint a commission of philanthropic citizens to serve without pay in such supervisory and visitorial duty as might be assigned to them. No difficulty was found in securing the services of men of the highest character and known benevolence. By an Executive order they were authorized to inspect all the accounts and records of the Bureau, to be present at the purchases of Indian goods, and advise as to the conduct of the same, and visit and inspect the tribes in their reservations, and examine the business of all the agencies. The officers of the department were also directed to give respectful heed to the suggestions and reports of the commission. No direct responsibility, either pecuniary or administrative, was put upon the commission, because it was believed that their usefulness would not be increased thereby. They now constitute an entirely disinterested body of intelligent advisers, with full power to throw the light of the most searching scrutiny upon the conduct of our relations with the Indians, and to give the public, through their reports, the most reliable knowledge of the condition and progress of the several tribes.

ASIA. During the year 1869, no territorial changes have taken place in Asia; but a change of vast importance, and which must affect the destinies of this whole division of the world, is irrepressibly drawing near. The independence of the powerless States in Central Asia must sooner or later come to an end. They, even now, live entirely upon the mercy of Russia and England. What remains to be decided is, whether they shall fall to the one or the other of these States; and this constitutes the Central Asian question, which is fast growing to be one of the foremost political questions of our age. Central Asia would make a very large addition to the Russian Empire; and, as the powerful Russians will, in the course of time, have no difficulty in absorbing these uncivilized and comparatively small tribes into the compact Russian nationality, both in Russia and in England, the development of the Central Asian question is studied with intense interest. Some, as Grant Duff, the English Under-Secretary for India, believe that the continuance of peace between the two great European rivals in Central Asia is for the present sufficiently secured by the circumstance that an almost inaccessible tract of land, of nearly 800 miles, still constitutes an insurmountable wall of separation between the new Russian conquests and India. Others, however, show that Russia, having now exclusive possession of the Caspian Sea, the Aral Sea, and Oxus, could carry out aggressive designs against India in a much easier way than by a march through Central Asia. Steamships could carry a large Russian force to Affghanistan, and only the possession of, or, what would be equal to it, the protectorate over, the northern part of Affghanistan, or the territory of Cabul, would be required for the Russians, to reach the northwestern frontier of British India. It will be seen, therefore, that Affghanistan is becoming a country of considerable interest, and we have, on that account, deemed it best to include Affghanistan in the list of important countries which are the subjects of special articles in this volume of the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA. (*See* RUSSIA; AFFGHANISTAN.)

None of the Asiatic countries have during the year been the scene of such momentous internal changes as Japan. The long struggle between the Mikado on the one hand, and the Tycoon and the northern Daimios on the other, is at an end. A Parliament has met for the first time, which, though it consisted merely of princes and nobles, has yet introduced Japan into the number of constitutional monarchies. The Japanese have again made remarkable progress in the reorganization of their army, and of public instruction. The number of young men who are pursuing their studies in the United States and in Europe is increasing, and emigration is bringing large numbers of the people into close contact with foreign nations.

The Chinese Government has not verified the sinister predictions that it would reject the Burlingame treaties, and only try to hoodwink the Governments of the United States and of Europe. Toward the close of the year, the treaties were formally ratified in Pekin, and the relations with foreign powers were as amicable as they had been at any previous period. A large class of the population were hostile to foreigners and Christians, and a number of missionaries were cruelly massacred; but the Government on every occasion showed an earnest desire to conform to the treaties, and to remain on good terms with the treaty powers. (*See* CHINA.)

A serious difficulty arose between the two great representatives of Asiatic Mohammedanism, Turkey and Persia, concerning the regulation of the frontier. For a time, a great war appeared to be inevitable, and, as Russia was reported to sympathize strongly with Persia, it was even anticipated that through this conflict the Eastern question might enter a new stage. These anticipations were, however, not fulfilled, and the difficulty was for the present amicably settled. (*See* PERSIA.)

The opening of the Suez Canal will largely increase the commerce of southwestern and southern Asia, and thus probably awaken a new life in the countries of these regions. The vast projects of railroads and telegraph lines which have for several years been under consideration, or in the course of progress, and which are to connect the Asiatic countries with Europe and with each other, must thus

receive a new impetus, while the commerce of eastern Asia with western America is rapidly developing under the influence of the regular steamboat connection through the Pacific. The combination of so many vivifying influences causes the beginning of an entirely new era in the history of Asia, and, as Asia is the largest and by far the most populous among the great divisions of the world, it cannot fail, even to a large extent, to give to the world's history a new aspect.

Thus far the colonies of England and France in India lead the van in this new period of peaceful progress. Both have enjoyed a peaceful year, and made new progress in commerce, general prosperity, and especially in point of education.

ASTRONOMICAL PHENOMENA AND PROGRESS. *The Total Eclipse of* 1869.—The novel and interesting discoveries made by observers—particularly those at the spectroscope—on the occasion of the August eclipse of 1868 (*see* AMERICAN CYCLOPÆDIA of that year), created an unusual scientific curiosity with regard to the total eclipse which was to occur August 7, 1869, and which would be visible, in its totality, throughout a long and well-populated tract of the United States. The line of total obscuration entered the North American Continent at Behring's Straits, about the 65th degree of latitude, longitude 90° west of Washington, and left at the Atlantic shore in latitude 34° and the meridian of Washington itself, passing through Alaska, Iowa, Illinois, Kentucky, West Virginia, North Carolina, and other States. Congress appropriated a sufficient sum to enable observations to be taken by the superintendent of the *Nautical Almanac* (Professor Coffin); and the Navy, War, and Coast Survey Departments extended liberal aid to the same object, and sent out scientific parties to the points most favorable for witnessing the phenomenon. Professor Coffin fitted out expeditions for Burlington, Mount Pleasant, and Ottumwa, Iowa, along the central line of totality. The Coast Survey had parties in Alaska, at Des Moines, Iowa, Springfield, Illinois, and Abingdon, West Virginia. The Navy Department was represented at a station on the western shore of Behring's Straits, and the War Department detailed Dr. Curtis to take photographs of the eclipse at Des Moines. The principal colleges and observatories in the country sent their professors of astronomy, and spectroscopic and meteorological experts, to points on the line. At no one time in this country has so large an amount of astronomical and mathematical talent been concentrated upon the examination of a celestial phenomenon.

At Des Moines, Iowa, a series of very successful observations was taken by the Government parties and expeditions from several American colleges. The sky was unclouded, though a slight haze prevented a satisfactory search for the supposed intra-Mercurial planets. According to Professor T. H. Safford, of Chicago, the first contact occurred at $3^h\ 43^m\ 48^s$; the commencement of the total obscurity at $4^h\ 45^m\ 30^s$; the end of the totality at $5^h\ 48^m\ 22^s$; the last contact at $5^h\ 45^m\ 11^s$—those points of time being from 6° to 22° later than calculated at Washington. The total obscuration lasted $2^m\ 52\frac{1}{2}^s$. The corona proper assumed a pyramidal shape, extending toward the northeast (taking the zenith as north), having a breadth of about 25° of the moon's disk, and 3 digits deep. On the west side was one of similar size and shape. On the east side was a mass of light 50° at the base and 3 digits deep, but not so brilliant as the opposite one. On the north the corona was about 30° wide, and 3 to 4 digits high. The masses seemed to consist of thin streaks of light radiating from the central direction, and lying on a less brilliant background, while the lengths of the contiguous rays were widely different, giving the outline of the perimeter a jagged appearance. Says the correspondent of the Chicago *Tribune:*

The most deficient part of the corona was on the southeastern quarter, where it averaged not more than two-thirds of the other, and was badly broken. It is remarkable that this part was the scene of a long line of rose-colored protuberances, which stood out like a string of beads from the moon's disk, and possibly caused an optical shortening in the coronal rays, though it is not impossible that the convulsion in the photosphere produced by these glowing masses caused a surging over of the photosphere, while it is also not improbable that the greater number of these protuberances than usual caused the outline of the corona to be more jagged than had been anticipated from the descriptions of previous eclipses. The apparent motion of the corona with the sun was very marked, that on the west side increasing in breadth, while the eastern side lessened as the total phase advanced. The corona burst on the vision like a flash of glory on the instant of total obscuration, and departed like a vision of the night when the first faint thread of light shone out on the western limb. Some observers thought they saw the corona for a second or two before the total eclipse, but this was probably due to the haze in the atmosphere.

The protuberances were grand. The ocular observations of these made by Professor Hilgard's brother were the best. From the lowest point of the disk a large, rosy patch shot out at the instant of totality, extending 16° and protruding half a digit, or 35,000 miles. From the middle of this protruded a pendulous mass of about 100,000 miles long, and 20,000 wide, which seemed to divide into three narrow strips. The upper mass was of a deeper rose tint than either of the other protuberances, and is described by Hilger as nebulous in structure, almost like a cirrus cloud, and shaped like a bird's wing underlaid by a fleshy tumor, the fleshy substance being something like a flying pile of down, illuminated with a pink light, or pink-rose color. Due east was another protuberance, paler and about 5° on the base, perhaps 20,000 miles high. Ten degrees below this was another like it in size and color, both masses being nearly rectangular. These two disappeared near the middle of totality, and then three smaller ones sprung up on the west side, one due west, another 60° below it, and the third midway between them. The one on the southwest was nebular, and rose out as a thin stem 10,000 miles high, from which sprung out two long streaks like an antelope's horns, some 10° in length from tip to tip. The large one first described appeared from first to

last of totality, and sensibly changed its form and brilliancy, as if in violent commotion. It seemed to the writer like a huge dense beacon-fire on a distant hill-top, shorn of its tongues of flame, and seen through an inverting telescope. There were several variations of light and shade perceptible in its breadth. In depth it varied only in intensity, being slightly faintest toward the horizon.

A correspondent of the Chicago *Times*, writing from Des Moines, remarks that Professor N. A. Rogers took a measurement, by means of the micrometer, of the largest colored protuberance, and estimates its greatest extension at 38,000 miles. It seemed to grow up to that height in a moment of time, like a flame, from about half the size at first. At its base was a mass tinged a crimson color, and like cumulous clouds in composition. Along the southeastern side of the sun, just before any portion of his disk appeared after total eclipse, a long and low line of crimson protuberances appeared, which was dissipated by the full blaze of the crescent sun a moment afterward.

Dr. Peters made a spectrum analysis, and found in all the five protuberances the red, blue, and violet lines, which indicate hydrogen in a state of high temperature. He discovered also the double yellow lines that indicate sodium. In addition to these, the spectrum showed green lines and other shades of color, indicative of still other metallic elements in the sun's atmosphere, which are common to the earth. Dr. Peters was of opinion that the observations taken will throw much light upon the problems of the sun's constitution, and the sources of his light and heat. So far as the hydrogen lines of the spectroscope are concerned, his observations verify those made by Rayet and Herschel during the eclipse last year in India. Professors Rogers and Hall directed their attention just before and after the total eclipse to the solution of the question of a lunar atmosphere. They acted upon the hypothesis that, if there was such an atmosphere, the ends of the sun's crescent just before and after totality would have been partially obscured by coming in contact with the moon's atmosphere. These observers found no such phenomena, the cusps being well defined and sharp throughout. Hence they draw the deduction that the moon is devoid of an atmosphere.

The Naval Observatory party at Des Moines succeeded in taking 123 photographs of the eclipse, two being of the totality. They applied the spectrum analysis to five prominences, no two of which were found to give the same lines. No absorption lines were visible in the spectrum of the corona; it gave a continuous spectrum with but one bright line. Professor Harkness conducted this branch of the observations. The thermometer, as observed by Professor Eastman, showed a fall of 18° during the progress of the eclipse.

Professor Newcomb searched, with two six-inch object-glasses, for intra-Mercurial planets, but none were visible. Venus and Mercury appeared distinctly to the naked eye.

Professor C. A. Young, of Dartmouth College, who was with the Nautical Almanac party at Burlington, Iowa, submitted two reports of his observations to the American Association, in August, the substance of which he afterward furnished to the *American Journal of Science*. The following are the most important parts of the paper:

The spectroscopic combination employed was compiled for the occasion from various instruments belonging to Dartmouth College, and differed so much in the relative proportion and arrangement of its parts from those hitherto used, that a brief description is perhaps necessary.

The telescope which formed the solar image was a comet-seeker by Merz & Son, of 4 inches aperture and 30 inches focal length. An ordinary Huyghenian eye-piece enlarged the image so that, when it fell upon the slit of the spectroscope at a distance of 5 inches, it was 2½ inches in diameter. The use of an eye-piece gave an easy means for securing the accurate focus of the limb at the slit, an adjustment of great importance. The spectroscope proper had telescopes of 2½ inches aperture and 16½ focal length (by Alvan Clark). The eye-telescope was provided with an eye-piece magnifying 18 times, and a wire micrometer, constructed from a reading microscope, for determining the position of any new lines in the spectrum by referring them to those already known. This, although a very accurate method, was too slow to be well adapted to eclipse observations, but was the only arrangement I could construct with the time and means at my command.

The collimator had a slit ½ of an inch long and of adjustable width. It was provided with a small prism, which could be turned up so as to throw into half the slit light from an electric spark formed between platinum electrodes by a small induction coil and Leyden jar.

It also carried a thin brass disk about 2½ inches in diameter, placed in front of the slit, with a hole of ½ of an inch in the centre. This disk was covered with white paper and graduated into sectors of 10° by lines radiating from the centre. This graduated screen, upon which the image of the sun was clearly visible even during the totality, answered the purpose of a finder, and its graduation furnished the means of determining within less than 3° the position of any object observed on the sun's limb, or of bringing any desired portion of the limb to the slit.

The spectrum was formed by a train of 5 prisms of 45° each, with faces 2½ by 3½ inches. They gave a dispersion of about 18° between A and H, with a total deviation of about 165° for the D line. The box which contained them was so connected by a link with the arm which carried the eye-telescope, that whenever the latter was moved by its tangent-screw along the spectrum the prism-box would turn through an angle just half as great. Thus the prisms were kept in the position of best definition for whatever lines were in the middle of the field of view, the extent of which was sufficient to embrace D and E together.

The telescope and spectroscope proper were firmly secured to a wooden framework, and this was mounted equatorially, with slow-motion screws in both right ascension and declination.

The spectrum was about 1¾ inches broad (referred to a distance of 10 inches) and about 45 long. It showed all the lines on Kirchoff's maps of the spectrum; such lines as the nickel line between D_1 and D_2 being perfectly distinct.

Having arranged my instrument with the computed point of contact across the centre of the slit, I had the unspeakable gratification of seeing every thing take place as expected. First, a full half-minute before the time of contact, the sharp point of the needle was truncated by the dark edge of the moon, then it

grew steadily shorter (not *less brilliant* what remained of it), until finally its last spark vanished, the C line became exactly like its neighbors, and the contact was effected.

The observation was as easy and definite as that of the transit of a moderately slow star. I am confident the observation may be relied upon within a fraction of a second, although it was from 5 to 15 seconds earlier than the time assigned by any of the other observers. I am informed by Professor Mayer, however, who had charge of the photographic operations of our party, that it agrees within one-third of a second with the time deduced from a preliminary measurement of a photograph taken about 15 seconds after the contact was announced.

With an instrument of sufficient dispersive power, the slit might be opened somewhat widely, and placed *tangent* to the sun's limb. In this case a slight error in the estimated point of contact would not interfere with the accuracy of the observation.

I wish to call attention to the applicability of this method at the coming transits of Venus. It is not possible, perhaps, to predict just how great will be the effect of her atmosphere; but it is difficult to see in what respects this method will suffer from it more than any other. It certainly presents this great advantage, that the observer will perceive and watch the planet's approach long before the instant to be observed, and thus have all the benefit of preparation.

It seems likely also that the instant of *internal contact* will be more easily seized with the spectroscope than with any other instrument. Instead of the rupture of a black ligament, it ought to show the sudden formation of a brilliant line running the whole length of a before dusky spectrum, a phenomenon much more striking than the other.

While the moon was advancing upon the sun, special attention was paid to the appearance of the spectrum lines near her limb. They came up to the edge perfectly square and straight, even when the limb made an angle of only 5° or 6° with the slit; and the longitudinal line of demarcation, before referred to, between the brilliant and dusky portions of the spectrum, was hard and sharp, in striking contrast with the effect of the sun's limb, which, under similar circumstances, always gives a boundary more or less hazy and indefinite, and this to a degree continually changing from minute to minute. This contrast was beautifully exhibited a few seconds before the totality, when the limbs of both sun and moon were on the spectrum together, the width of the visible portion of the sun having become less than the length of the slit. It was at first thought that this appearance was decisive against the existence of a lunar atmosphere, however rare; but a little consideration shows that on the other hand it is, if any thing, favorable, being a simple consequence of that brightening of the sun's disk near the moon's limb which is so beautifully evident upon the photographs; and which is most easily accounted for by admitting a slight refraction suffered by that portion of the sunlight which grazes the moon. Possibly, however, it may yet be explained as a case of simple inflection of light.

Before the eclipse began, the existence of prominences on the limb of the sun had been ascertained in the following positions (reckoning from the north point through the east). A large but faint one near +90°, a small but bright one at +146° (the photographs show *two* here), a long low one at −70°, very near the point of first contact, and an enormous and very bright one at −130°, with several others of small elevation, but considerable length, on different parts of the limb.

In his examination of the prominences Professor Young observed 9 bright lines, the most remarkable of which were C. F. and an orange line.

A faint continuous spectrum, without any traces of dark lines in it, was also visible, evidently due to the corona. Its light, tested by a tourmaline applied next the eye, proved to be very strongly polarized in a plane passing through the centre of the sun. I am not sure, however, but that this polarization, as suggested by Professor Pickering, may have been produced by the successive refractions through the prisms. This explanation at once removes the difficulty otherwise arising from the absence of dark lines.

My observations decide nothing as to specific differences between the different protuberances, since, from the smallness of my field of view, I was obliged to observe a portion of the spectrum on one of the prominences and the rest on another.

In conclusion, Professor Young remarks that, at present, it seems pretty likely that the spectra of the corona and the aurora borealis are identical, with only such differences as we might naturally expect, and that very probably the identity extends to the essential nature of the phenomena themselves. With reference to the iron line observed in the spectrum, he says it will be of interest to inquire whether we are to admit the existence of iron vapors in and above our atmosphere, or whether in the spectrum of iron this line owes its presence to some foreign substance—probably some occluded gas, as yet unknown, and perhaps standing in relation to the magnetic powers of that metal.

Professor Edward C. Pickering, who was also with the Nautical Almanac party at Burlington, sends the result of his observations to the *Philosophical Magazine*. He says that, in examining the photographs taken by the party, it was noticed that, while the light diminished near the edge of the sun, the moon's limb was very distinct, and that there was a marked increase in the light of the parts nearest it. The best explanation of this phenomenon the author thinks is to assume the presence of a lunar atmosphere. The corona would then be caused by refraction of light reaching the observer from parts of the sun already eclipsed. This hypothesis is strengthened by other observations. The protuberances have often seemed to indent the moon's edge, an appearance usually ascribed to irradiation. An atmosphere of rapidly-increasing density might produce this effect by reflection, and of course would not influence the corona if it was caused by refraction. The principal reason for supposing the corona a portion of the sun is, that, during totality, it does not appear to move with the moon, but remains concentric with the sun, or, more properly, is brightest where the sun's edge is nearest. Many of the photographs show this very well, the difference on the two opposite sides of the moon being very marked. This effect could be explained equally well by supposing the corona caused by refraction. For the centres of the sun and moon never differ during totality by more than half a digit, while the breadth of the corona is sometimes several times as much; so that merely covering a small portion of it would not produce a greater diminution of

light than would be caused by a slight change in the direction of the sun's rays shining through a lunar atmosphere. On the other hand, it is difficult to conceive of an atmosphere dense enough to produce these effects, and yet so transparent that the edges of the full moon are perfectly distinct, and that the light of the sun during an eclipse should be increased rather than diminished. Professor Pickering concludes that the polariscope gives only negative results, and cannot be regarded as proving that the light is reflected. The evidence of the spectroscope needs confirmation, since the dark lines may have been invisible owing to the feeble light of the corona. But, if the spectroscopic observations were correct, the self-luminous character of the corona is established; and the thermometric and actinic experiments point toward a lunar atmosphere as the cause of the corona. The absence of a lunar atmosphere is so generally admitted, that the author suggests its existence only with reluctance, and as the most natural explanation of the phenomena observed.

Professor C. F. Himes reports some interesting facts about meteoric appearances seen during the eclipse. He says that Mr. Zeutmayer, examining the ground glass of the camera from time to time, to notice the position of the image of the sun, called the author's attention to small luminous bodies like meteors, which were crossing the dark image of the moon from cusp to cusp. Subsequently, they were seen to pass over from outside of the field on to the image of the sun, where, of course, they were lost, always coming from the same side. The observers were led by this circumstance to regard them as most likely to be optical illusions, perhaps insects with transparent wings or bodies; but the fact, that observers at other places report a shower of meteors during the eclipse, between the moon and the earth, which seemed to be identical in their appearance with those observed by the author, leads Professor Himes to suppose that the objects seen by Mr. Zeutmayer and himself may have been meteors. At any rate, he concludes that the apparition was caused by objects not less than two thousand feet distant.

Dr. J. Gardiner contributes to the *Cincinnati Gazette* an interesting account of his experiences in photographing the eclipse at Bedford, Ind. He had made careful preparations for the occasion, and had the assistance of a competent corps of photographic artists. Some of the results of the observations are thus described:

Our corps were all in place ready for business; when, at four o'clock and twenty-one and a half minutes, contact was observed in the magnified image on the ground glass. A half-minute later the watching crowds on the streets caught sight of it, and a low murmur, swelling gradually into a shout, heralded the fact. Up to this time no noticeable change had taken place in the whole range of nature. At the first sign of contact, I called for a plate, which was coated at once, sensitized and passed to me. The first picture was taken five minutes after contact, and the sun, only shining on the plate the tenth part of a second, impressed its image there. "Exposed too long!" was called from the dark-room. Four minutes later the next picture was taken. No change yet in the temperature. Third, fourth, and fifth taken at three, four, and five minutes apart. No change still in the appearance of the earth, no falling of the temperature. Sixth picture forty-nine minutes after four, and a falling of one degree in temperature. A perceptible change; a darkness was also seen to be creeping over the face of the earth. The lights of the foliage gradually took a peculiar hue, which is difficult to describe. It seemed as though they emitted light that had been stored within. Yet the light was not like any other that we had ever seen. It had a peculiar bronze-like, lurid tint, that was weird-like and ghostly.

Next picture, four minutes later; growing darker; birds here seemed agitated, and acted as though they had made a mistake in time; swallows began to collect in flocks. Six more pictures were taken in nineteen minutes, and darkness still growing on the earth. Four minutes later, and sixteen after five, the thermometer fell to 72°, and stars became visible. A flock of foraging geese now marched by, homeward bound, and evidently wondering at the shortness of these degenerate days. A ghastliness rested upon the faces of our corps of operators. Pictures were then taken at intervals of two and one minutes, at which time the crescentic margin of the sun, remaining unobscured, was but a tenuous line, passing one-third or one-fourth around the sun. Forty-five seconds, and the eclipse is total, and another exposure is made. A flaming orange and red corona was visible about the margin of the moon, shooting its rays out seemingly a distance equal to half the diameter of the sun. The whole face of the moon had a dusky hue, like old copper, and was visibly globe-shaped. The scene was awfully sublime, and produced a sensation similar to that which I have felt in witnessing a great battle. Chimney-swallows circled in the air above the court-house in a dense column, several hundred feet in height. A sudden rush of wind marked the moment of totality, and one thermometer in the open air showed a falling of 5°; another, attached to the shady side of a dead tree standing in the sunshine, showed a variation of 14° in the course of an hour.

Birds went to roost; domestic fowls retired to their perches, and a premature darkness—a darkness different from that of any other—gave the earth a more sombre mantle than that of night.

Two more pictures were attempted at intervals of a minute each, and then a line of the sun's margin emerged, and light once more flooded the face of the earth. A cheer ran out along the street, and the sublimest spectacle of the generation was drawing to a close. During the time of the greatest obscuration a bright bead-like body was observed at the right lower limb of the sun, which sent out a fan-shaped, fiery tail equal to one-third of the breadth of the sun itself. This part was all we succeeded in getting photographed during totality. We hope that a future examination of the enlarged prints will show it to be of more value to science than if we had succeeded in getting the whole corona. As darkness suddenly shut in the earth like a curtain (during the greatest obscuration), so it flashed out instantaneously into light as the sun emerged. Men's faces looked like the faces of negroes, and some amusing mistakes occurred on the streets, by persons thinking others they met were "American citizens of African descent." As the darkness was thickest, the katydids chirped their nocturnal notes, but hushed into silence as soon as they found that they were "victims of misplaced confidence." Twenty-one pictures were taken, seventeen before and during totality, and four after. Two attempts during the total phase were failures, but one other gave the bright prominence before described.

At Shelbyville, Ky., there were strong delegations of scientific observers from different parts of the country. Among those present were Prof. Joseph Winlock, of Harvard University; Alvin G. Clark, of Cambridge; Assistants George W. Dean and F. Blake, Jr., of the Coast Survey; J. A. Whipple, of Boston, assisted by Messrs. George Clark and J. Prendergast, having charge of the photographic business; Prof. S. M. Searle, of New York, who was to look out for intra-Mercurial planets; and Prof. Seymour, of Louisville, who watched the meteorological phenomena. Ten or twelve mounted instruments were in use on the occasion, the chief of these being the Shelbyville College telescope, which once ranked third in the United States, handled by Prof. Winlock. A shower of meteors was observed between the earth and the moon. Arcturus, Vega, Venus, and Mercury, were visible to the naked eye during the totality, but no intra-Mercurial planets could be detected, nothing fainter than Regulus being discerned near the sun. The photographs of the eclipse were highly successful, and accord with those of which fuller accounts are given in the records of observations elsewhere.

In a report of observations by Professor Winlock, published in the *American Journal of Science*, he remarks that the cromosphere was carefully examined both before and after the phenomenon; and only three lines could be seen, C, one D and F. During totality only the highest protuberance on the lower limb of the sun was examined carefully, and nothing was seen but a faint continuous spectrum; but, since the observing telescope (an equatorial, by Merz, of 7¼ inches aperture and 9½ feet focal length) took in only a small part of the spectrum at once, nothing conclusive could be inferred from the observation as to the non-existence of bright lines in the corona.

During totality eleven bright lines were seen. Besides the three described above, there was a short line at or very near E, the three lines of *b* were bright and very sharp, and there were four lines above F. Although these lines were very bright on a dark ground, all of them but the three seen before the eclipse disappeared instantly on the first burst of sunlight, and the same point in the sun's disk was examined with great care after totality without finding any of the lines but those above described. The photograph of the corona taken at Shelbyville shows a flattening at the extremities of the sun's axis, and an elevation about the equatorial region. The appearance can be explained by the hypothesis that it is a photographic view of the sun's atmosphere, and the form is that which it would assume from the sun's rotation about its axis, with its upper surface disturbed by the protuberances or flames below, and by large waves which are to be expected in such an atmosphere.

Dr. B. A. Gould, in a letter to Professor Morton, which appears in the *Journal of the Franklin Institute* for October, says:

An examination of the beautiful photographs made at Burlington and Ottumwa, by the sections of your party in charge of Professors Mayer and Himes, and a comparison of them with my sketches of the corona, have led me to the conviction that the radiance around the moon, in the pictures made during totality, is not the corona at all, but is actually the image of what Lockyer has called the chromosphere.

This interesting fact is indicated by many different considerations. The directions of maximum radiance do not coincide with those of the great beams of the corona; they remained constant while the latter were variable; there is a diameter, approximately corresponding to the solar axis, near the extremities of which the radiance upon the photographs is a minimum, whereas the coronal beams in these directions were especially marked during a great part of the total obscuration. The corona beams stood in no apparent relation to the protuberances, whereas the aureole, seen upon the photographs, is most marked in their immediate vicinity. Indeed, the great protuberance, at 230° to 245°, seems to have formed a southern limit to the radiance on the western side, while a sharp northern limit is seen on all the photographs at about 350°, the intermediate arc being thickly studded with protuberances, which the moon displayed at the close of totality. The exquisite masses of flocculent light on the following limb are upon the two sides of that curious prominence at 98°, which at first resembled an ear of corn, as you have said, but which in the later pictures, after it had been more occulted, and its southern branch thus rendered more conspicuous, was like a pair of antelope-horns, to which some observers compared it. Whatever of this aureole is shown upon the photographs, was occulted or displayed by the lunar motion, precisely as the protuberances were. The variations in the form of the corona, on the other hand, did not seem to be dependent in any degree upon the moon's motion.

The singular and elegant structural indications, in the special aggregations of light on the eastern side, may be of high value in guiding to a further knowledge of the cromosphere. They are manifest in all the photographs by your parties which I have seen, but are especially marked in those of shortest exposure, such as the first one at Ottumwa. In some of the later views they may be detected on the other side of the sun, though less distinct. But the very irregular and jagged outline of the chromosphere, as described by Janssen and Lockyer, is exhibited in perfection.

A scientific party from the University of Georgia made successful observations of the eclipse at Bristol, Tenn., which was near the central line of totality. A corps of observers from the United States Coast Survey, under General Cutts, and a large number of other scientific gentlemen representing learned institutions, were on the ground. The weather was favorable, and the result of the observations highly gratifying. Prof. W. Leroy Brown, of the University of Georgia, in a report to Chancellor Lipscomb, describes the operations of his party, and the successive stages of the eclipse, as follows:

Just at the calculated time ($4^h\ 43^m\ 36^s$), though no evidence whatever of the position of the moon could be previously seen, I observed a slight tremulous motion on the western limb, $128^d\ 16^m$ from the vexter, immediately at the point where it was known by calculation the first point of contact would occur. In a few moments it became visible to the crowd assembled around. The dark spots of the sun were carefully observed, and the time of first contact and total immersion of the most important of them noted. No change whatever was observed either in the penumbra or umbra of any of the spots during the approach or recession of the moon. As the moon gradually covered the sun from view, its outline was projected back on the disk of the sun—not in a reg-

ular, well-defined curve, but in quite a roughened, serrated outline, indicative of its mountains and valleys.

Just before total obscuration occurred, the crescent of the sun gradually and rapidly faded to a delicate thread of silver light. My attention was concentrated on this line of fading light, to detect, if possible, what astronomers designate as *Baily's beads*; that is, the sudden breaking up of this thread of light into a number of segments, or distinct points of light, like disjointed silver beads. I detected no indication whatever of such separate points of light. The extinction of this thread of light was sudden and instantaneous. I am inclined to the opinion that one would anticipate naturally, from the serrated character of the moon's disk projected on the sun, that such would be the case, and, with his mind thus prepared to observe such an effect, it would not be difficult to mistake the optical effect, produced by refraction of light through different media, for separate points or *beads*.

On the eve of total obscuration, directions were given to the crowd to be silent, so as to hear the beats of the chronometer. The instant the silver line of light disappeared, a universal exclamation of amazement and wonder burst from the crowd at the superb spectacle of beauty immediately revealed. The disk of the moon projected on a sky of livid hue was plainly seen, of a dark, grayish color, caused by the reflected earth-light, surrounded by a bright halo of gradually-fading silver light, extending through a breadth of at least half the sun's diameter. Through the bright halo of light there radiated off from the sun great mountain-peaks of roseate light of exquisite beauty. One of the largest was plainly discernible with the naked eye, and pointed toward the horizon. Its base, resting on the disk of the moon, was of extreme brilliance, like a living coal of fire, while its mass appeared radiating off from the sun as a gushing fountain of rose-colored light, shading off in intensity toward its apex in delicate violet hues. The wonderful beauty of this "solar cloud," which subtended an angle of more than three minutes, and consequently was nearly a hundred thousand miles in height, was so great that, when I directed the large equatorial toward it, it riveted my attention for a full half-minute, and hence I failed to do all I had marked out in the critical two minutes and a half. At the time of total obscuration, Mercury, Venus, and Arcturus, were plainly discernible with the naked eye.

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After the lapse of two minutes and thirty-three seconds, suddenly an intensely diamond-bright ray of light shot out from near the point of first contact, dazzling in its effect, and immediately dissipating the livid gloom that overshadowed the earth, and giving cheer to the affrighted animals and wondering spectators that surrounded us. The thermometer, exposed to the rays of the sun, was observed to fall from 92° to 66° during the time that elapsed from the first contact to the total obscuration. The barometer indicated a fall of only one-twentieth of an inch.

The observers appointed to note terrestrial objects reported that the rapid approach of the dark shadow over the western landscape, which spread out before us with its symmetrical hills and shaded valleys, was plainly discernible. Its effect on reaching the observer was described as almost like a physical object striking the body, so plainly was its passage marked. In a few seconds (for it travelled at about one mile per second) it wrapped in its mantle of gloom the high ridge of the Alleghany Mountains, about fifteen miles distant, which enclosed the southeast view. Hogs and cattle, feeding near by, were observed at the moment of total obscuration to start affrighted, and to hurry homeward; the whippoorwills came out from their retirement, and began their evening song; bats flew around for some moments, and chickens were seen hastening to their roost.

The eclipse, as seen at New York City—ten-twelfths of the sun's disk being obscured—produced a feeling of disappointment in the observers. It had been supposed that considerable darkness would be caused by the phenomenon, and also that the temperature of the air would be lowered several degrees. Mr. Daniel Draper, meteorologist of the Central Park, made thorough investigations of the effects of the eclipse at that point, and reported upon them fully. He declares—corroborating the observations of the public generally—that, when the eclipse was at its height, the light was still sufficient to enable persons to discern objects at any distance, and there was no special quality to be noticed in the character of the illumination, though it resembled twilight more than any thing else. During the first half of the eclipse the thermometer indicated a fall of only one and a quarter degrees, and in the last half only half a degree. From three P. M. to five P. M., about the beginning of the eclipse, the fall had been from 67.25° to 65.50°; and after the eclipse, up to ten P. M., there was a further decrease of temperature of 3°. In the barometer a rise was going on when the eclipse commenced, and continued while the phenomenon lasted; after which, for about an hour, there was a decline, and then the rise was resumed.

Speculations upon the Nature of the Corona.—At a meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society in April, Major Tennent's account of his observations of the solar eclipse of the preceding August, in which he stated that the corona gave strongly-polarized light—thereby indicating that it was simply reflected solar light—came up for discussion. Dr. Weiss, who had charge of the Austrian expedition to observe that eclipse, was present on the occasion, and remarked that the spectrum of the corona was found to be pale but perfectly distinct, and decidedly continuous, without any lines. Mr. De La Rue and Mr. Lockyer expressed the surprise they had felt at this result, and Mr. Huggins remarked that when he first heard that the corona gave a continuous spectrum, he understood it to mean that this spectrum did not differ materially from the ordinary solar spectrum, but he now found that it was destitute of the dark Fraunhofer lines. He wished to know whether it was possible that the dark lines were merely not visible from the feebleness of light of the whole spectrum. Dr. Weiss replied that the paleness was not sufficiently great to lead to such an idea, and suggested that the corona might consist of two parts—reflected light, which would account for the polarization, and light proceeding from some self-luminous gas, and that the dark lines of the former coexisting with the bright lines of the latter might mutually neutralize each other. Mr. Huggins said that there was much difficulty in accepting the existence of self-luminous gas beyond the hydrogen, of which it had been proved that the prominences were formed, and which must probably be the extreme boundary

of the gases. Mr. Lockyer here stated that he and several other persons, including M. Faye, had been led, by a comparison of several observations of solar eclipses (particularly that of 1851), to the belief that the appearance of the corona depended very much on the locality at which it was observed, and that it was probably, in fact, a phenomenon produced by the earth's atmosphere. The Astronomer Royal, Mr. Airy, who was present, expressed his concurrence with this view, which he had, indeed, formed from his own observations of several total eclipses.

The monthly notices of the proceedings of the same Society for May contain a letter from Mr. Baxendell, of Manchester, to Mr. Huggins, suggesting that the results of a great mass of observations on the corona could be best explained on the hypothesis of the existence of an irregular nebulous ring circulating about the sun nearly in the plane of the ecliptic, and at a mean distance of 0.169, and that the reflection of the sun's light upon this caused the appearance of the corona.

Spectroscopic Observations of the Sun.—Mr. Lockyer has communicated to the Royal Society a number of new facts disclosed by his recent spectroscopic examinations of the sun, which he regards as proving the correctness of his assertion—made in 1865, on telescopic evidence only—that a solar spot is the seat of a "downrush" of matter to a region where the selective absorption of the upper strata varies from what it would be at a higher level. He therefore assigns two causes for the darkening of a spot. One is the general absorption of the chromosphere, thicker there than elsewhere, as the spot is a cavity; the other is the greater selective absorption of the lower stratum of sodium, barium, and magnesium, the surface of its last layer being below the ordinary level. By using a wide slit in the spectroscope, without the absorbing media employed by Mr. Huggins, Mr. Lockyer was enabled to study the smallest details of the chromosphere and the prominences, on any bright day. He describes the outline of the chromosphere as varying greatly, sometimes undulating and billowy, sometimes ragged, and sometimes nearly even for some distance, but very uneven near a prominence. The prominences undergo marked changes in a few minutes; in one case, in about ten minutes, a portion of a prominence estimated at 27,000 miles in height entirely disappeared, another portion of it increasing at the same time. The bright F. line was observed, in one instance, to undergo strange contortions, as if some disturbing cause varied the refrangibility of the line. At the same time, and in the same protuberance, the characteristic lines of barium, magnesium, and some unknown substance, were noticed. In this case he supposes that there was an uprush from the photosphere into the chromosphere, accompanying which changes of enormous magnitude occurred in the prominence, and, when the uprush ceased, the prominence died away. In observing a spot very near the sun's limb, Mr. Lockyer found the spectrum of the chromosphere showed that the whole adjacent limb was covered with prominences of various heights blended together. These prominences seemed to be fed from the preceding edge of the spot, as C F and the line near D were very bright on the sun itself. In the prominences C and F were strangely irregular, and the magnesium lines were seen far above the spectrum of the limb. He infers that a portion of the upper layer of the photosphere had been lifted up beyond the usual limits of the chromosphere. He also saw the vapor of sodium in the chromosphere, and, for the first time, the iron lines.

Dr. Tietjen, of Berlin, has been making further observations of the gaseous envelope, and protuberances of the sun, by the spectroscope. The protuberances were frequently indicated by their peculiar bright lines, and their shapes could, in some instances, be traced. On one occasion, a pillar-shaped prominence showed itself, broader at the base than at the apex, and in the course of a few hours became curved. A very beautiful one was seen February 15th, exhibiting its bright lines, that known as C shining with great intensity. Its size was very large, and its form resembled a water-bottle, whose neck rested perpendicularly on the sun's limb. The next morning nothing of it was visible, but short bright lines were seen immediately on the disk. The lines usually observed by Dr. Tietjen were those corresponding to the dark lines of the solar spectrum C and F, and a third near, but not coinciding with the dark line D. Of these the first was nearly always the most luminous; generally, also, longer than F, and frequently than the third near D. March 25th, he saw a fine bright line between D and E, but could not decide whether it coincided accurately with the position of any dark line.

M. Rayet has communicated to the French Academy his method of examining the solar atmosphere. He employs an equatorial with an object-glass having a focal length of five metres, and which was diaphragmed down to eight centimetres. The telescope was thus rendered quite achromatic, and the difference between the brilliancy of the image of the solar disk and that of its atmosphere was greatly reduced. At the principal focus, where the clear image of the sun fell, was placed the very narrow slit of a direct vision-spectroscope. The astronomical telescope, which serves in the latter instruments to examine the spectrum, is movable around an axis which is parallel with the edges of the prisms, and it is quite easy to keep only a small region of the spectrum within the field of vision, viz., that containing one of the brilliant lines. Between the object-glass and the slit of the spectroscope is placed a direct vision-prism, itself preceded by a narrow slit. This arrangement is considered very ad-

vantageous as regards a clear view of the yellow line in the solar atmosphere, which M. Rayet has been engaged in studying. An imperfect image is found a little farther off than the principal focus of the object glass, and from this a determined color is thrown upon the slit of the spectroscope. The author says that the yellow line may be seen upon the whole circumference of the solar disk quite as easily as the three lines of hydrogen, and infers, therefore, that the incandescent gas to which the line corresponds is of the same character as hydrogen, one of the constituent elements of the solar system.

Vapor of Water in the Solar Atmosphere.—Father Secchi, in observing the regions adjacent to the large solar spots, with a spectroscope of high dispersive power, has frequently noticed a series of equidistant nebulous lines, or bands, in the red and orange. These differ in intensity, and appear to consist of five rays enveloped in nebulosity, and are seen in the penumbras and the groups of small spots, but usually disappear in the sun's full disk, and are wanting in the interior of the large spots where the rays never have the form of the bands. January 6th, the bands were seen upon the full disk, but were found to arise from a cirrus in front of the telescope, and disappeared with the cirrus itself. Secchi remarked that, under these circumstances, the bands due to the neighborhood of the solar spots were sensibly increased in intensity. By studying the region near D of the spectrum with a spectroscope of nine prisms, he found that the yellow ray of the protuberances really exists in the sun, and may be recognized far from the border. He concludes, from these observations, that the vapor of water exists in the solar atmosphere in the neighborhood of the large spots.

Solar Activity.—During the early part of the year remarkable evidences of activity in the solar atmosphere were noted. At a meeting of the Royal Astronomical Society Mr. Bidder and Mr. Browning described two enormous spots observed by them. Mr. Huggins, in the discussion that ensued, pointed out the fact that it is only in the neighborhood of the spots that those irregularities of form are to be noticed which have led to the comparison of the granules to willow-leaves, straws, and so on. A cluster of spots measured by Mr. Browning, March 7th, was found to have a length of 97,700 miles, and a breadth of 27,013 miles. The direction of its length was as nearly as possible parallel to the solar equator. Toward the close of the year, a group of spots, measuring in its principal dimension about one-eighth of the sun's diameter, was observed.

Spectra of the Stars.—The spectrum of Sirius has been examined by Father Secchi to determine whether there is any displacement of the hydrogen lines due to a proper movement of the star, a question already examined by Mr. Huggins (see ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868). With a four-prism spectroscope the ray F was observed to be sensibly displaced, the displacement of the centre being apparently equal to the breadth of the rays D′ D″ of sodium, and being toward the less refrangible side. With a spectroscope of two prisms the displacement of certain of the hydrogen rays, with respect to the rays C and F of Sirius, was also observed, and in the same direction. Father Secchi has also examined the spectrum of the variable star R in Gemini, which star attained its maximum brightness with a magnitude of 6.5 in February, 1869. The spectrum exhibits a brilliant hydrogen ray, and also luminous bands, of which the principal correspond to dark bands in the spectrum of Alpha Orionis, and is analogous to that of the variable in Corona Borealis, which appeared in 1866. Father Secchi has found in Aldebaran, Alpha Orionis, and Pollux, the yellow ray noticed in the protuberances of the sun, and also in the body of that orb.

A New Theory of the Universe.—Mr. B. A. Proctor has recently proposed a new theory respecting the arrangement of the stars and nebulæ. Instead of looking upon the nebulæ as for the most part external galaxies of stars, he considers that they belong to our solar system. He discusses the reasons that have been commonly urged for dissociating the nebulæ from our system, and shows that these reasons afford singular evidence in favor of a direct association. He looks upon the stellar system as being far more irregular in its disposition than has been generally supposed, and thinks that it is made up of an almost infinite multiplicity of streams, branches, and clusters; here scattered dispersedly, there more or less aggregated; at one place interlacing, and elsewhere, in the language of Sir John Herschel, "bustling upward from the general level." The Magellanic clouds he looks upon as simply globular aggregations of the sidereal and nebular components which are elsewhere found apart, but which everywhere form but one scheme. The *Popular Science Review*, commenting on this theory, remarks that, according to these views, we see few if any external universes, though our belief in the existence of multitudes of them is in no way affected. On the other hand, our conceptions of the scale on which our own galaxy is constructed, of the grandeur of its plan, and of the immense variety in the forms of matter which compose it, seem to be considerably enhanced by the views put forth by Mr. Proctor.

The Nebular Hypothesis.—Mr. J. S. Aldis, in a contribution to the *Philosophical Magazine*, remarks that a peculiarity in the structure of the earth is worth noting in connection with the nebular hypothesis. There is a tendency in mountain-chains to run north and south, and to present steep slopes to the west, but gentle declivities to the east. This, he suggests, may arise from the contraction of the earth. If a portion of the unsupported crust sinks toward the centre, it will subside on to

that which is moving less rapidly than itself, and in consequence will, so to speak, fall over toward the east, the surface forming a gradual slope to the east, and the fractured edges a precipitous descent to the west. In the moon, too, the author sees proofs of the contraction continued long after the stage in which we now find the earth. The spheroid of the moon has contracted since it assumed that shape, and, contracting less in the longer diameter, is now more spheroidal than it should be according to the theory, while the thickened crust, no longer crushed down on the interior, has left cavities in which the moon's ocean and atmosphere are entombed forever.

The researches of Professor Kirkwood, of Indiana University, by which he has brought the asteroids into due correlation with the other members of the solar system, and derived from the relations which they present an argument in support of the nebular hypothesis, are the subject of an interesting paper in the *Student* for August, 1869, by Mr. Proctor. The author regards Professor Kirkwood's demonstrations as supplying a mathematical proof of the formation of the asteriods from a zone of cosmical matter, according to the processes which Laplace conceived to have been in operation ages ago, in the development of the solar system. In the special instance of the asteroids, these processes have not resulted in the formation of a single planet; but that fact may be accounted for by the neighborhood of so large a body as Jupiter. Had that planet not been so near to the asteroid zone, the matter which composes the asteroids might have united to form one planet. Such is Professor Kirkwood's view. But Mr. Proctor's theory is somewhat different. He thinks that the zone of the asteroids indicates the occurrence of a definite change in the mode of evolution of the planets. Up to that point enormous quantities of matter had been conglobing into planets with noble systems of attendant orbs; indeed, there had been a pretty regular increase from the masses of the giant planets Uranus and Neptune, to the yet vaster Saturn, and to the giant among giants Jupiter. Then the substance of the great revolving disk which had given birth to those enormous bodies seems to have been all but exhausted, so far as the generation of new orbs was concerned. The zone next thrown off seems to have presented too sparse an array of cosmical particles to form a single planet by the action of its parts in producing continual collisions, and so, with much heat and turmoil, a vast rotating, molten, or vaporous globe. With further contraction, the disk seems gradually to have recovered its planet-generating powers; for first, the small planet Mars was formed, then the Earth, with actually an attendant moon. But there the new effort culminated, the next planet Venus being moonless, and appreciably smaller than the Earth, and Mercury being the last and least of the whole series.

The Heat of the Stars.—At a meeting of the Royal Society, in February, Mr. Huggins read a remarkable paper, narrating his experiments to ascertain the heat of the stars. It had occurred to him that the heat received on the earth from the stars might possibly be more easily detected than the solar heat reflected from the moon. He therefore caused to be prepared several thermopiles, and a very sensitive galvanometer, and with this apparatus succeeded in obtaining trustworthy indications of stellar heat in the case of Sirius, Pollux, and Regulus. His method of procedure was as follows: An astatic galvanometer was used, over the upper needle of which a small concave mirror was fixed, by which the image of the flame of a lamp could be thrown upon a scale placed at a distance. Usually, however, he preferred to observe the needle directly by means of a lens so placed that the divisions on the card were magnified, and could be read by the observer when at a little distance from the instrument. To preserve the sensitiveness of the galvanometer, a very careful adjustment of the magnetic power of the needles was made from time to time. So sensitive was the instrument, that the needles would turn through 90° when two pieces of wire, of different kinds of copper, were held between the finger and thumb. The thermopiles consisted of one or two pairs of elements —alloys of bismuth and antimony being employed in some of the experiments. The thermopile was attached to a refractor of eight inches' aperture. Although some of the heat-rays could not be transmitted through the object-glass of the telescope, yet Mr. Huggins decided that the more uniform temperature of the air within the instrument, and some other circumstances, would make the difficulty of preserving the pile from extraneous influences less formidable than if a reflecting telescope were used. The apparatus was fixed to the telescope so that the surface of the thermopile would be at the focal point of the object-glass, and was allowed to remain attached to the telescope for hours, and sometimes for days, the wires being in connection with the galvanometer, until the heat had become uniformly distributed within the apparatus containing the thermopile, and the needle remained at zero, or was steadily deflected to the extent of a degree or two from zero. When observations were to be made, the shutter of the dome was opened, and the telescope, by means of the finder, was directed to a part of the sky near the star to be examined, where there were no bright stars. The needle was then watched, and, if in four or five minutes it had experienced no deviation, then, by means of the finder, the telescope was moved, the small distance necessary to bring the image of the star exactly upon the face of the pile, where it was kept by means of the clock-work attached to the telescope. Almost always the needle began to move as soon as the image of the star fell upon it. The telescope was then moved so as to di-

rect it to the sky near the star, when (generally), in one or two minutes, the needle would resume its original position. In a similar manner, twelve to twenty observations of the same star were made, and repeated on other nights. The mean of a number of observations of Sirius, which did not differ greatly from each other, gave a deflection of the needle of 2°, Regulus gave a deflection of 3°, and Pollux of 1½°. No effect was produced on the needle by Castor. In one observation, Arcturus deflected the needle 3° in fifteen minutes. Mr. Huggins hoped at some future time to resume these investigations with a larger telescope, and to obtain some approximate value of the quantity of heat received at the earth from the brighter stars. He suggests that such observations, if strictly comparable, might be of value, in connection with the spectra of the light of the stars, to help us to determine the condition of the matter from which the light emanates.

Apparatus for Mapping Stars.—Mr. H. M. Parkhurst has invented and described, in the *American Journal of Science*, an ingenious apparatus for mapping the exact right ascension and declination of stars, and also recording their magnitude. By means of it he can map as many as thirty stars a minute in a crowded field, and averages usually, in a night's work, 500 an hour. He has found it easy to take a succession of twelve 15-minute maps in selected places, varying many degrees in right ascension and declination, in but little over three hours. Usually, by predetermining the order of mapping, he can map six or eight stars in quick succession, without an error exceeding two seconds. By the aid of his star-mapper, the inventor discovered a new asteroid (Galatea), September 30, 1862. It had been previously discovered by M. Tempel, in Europe, but that fact was then unknown in the United States. Mr. Parkhurst has also invented a photo-mapper, which he uses in connection with the other apparatus.

Asteroids.—The number of known asteroids has been brought up from 106 to 109 by discoveries during the year. The finding of asteroids has been so common of late that the scientific journals no longer think it important to record each successive addition to that large celestial family. In honor of the discovery of the 100th asteroid, the French Academy issued large medals, bearing upon one face the profiles, in *alto-rilievo*, of Goldsmidt of France, Luther of Belgium, and Hind of England, three gentlemen who have been remarkably successful in looking up new asteroids. Messrs. Peters of Utica, and Watson of Ann Arbor, in this country, have, of late years, done as much as any two European observers in increasing our knowledge of the members of the asteroid zone.

New Comets.—M. Tempel, of Marseilles, discovered a new comet, October 11, which was observed at Bonn October 12, at Carlsruhe October 17, and at Leipsic October 23, from the results of which observations the following elements were calculated by Mr. J. R. Bond, of Twickenham, England:

Perihelion Passage, 1869, Oct. 8.4421 Greenwich M. T.
Longitude of Perihelion, 124°.41′ 1″ } From appt. Equi-
" Ascending Node, 311°.24′ 4″ } nox.
Inclination to Ecliptic, 68°.49′ 8″
Log. perihelion distance, 0° 08995
Heliocentric Motion Retrograde.

The orbit does not resemble that of any comet previously computed. M. Tempel discovered another comet, November 27, in the constellation of Pegasus, R. A. 311° 15′, Polar Distance 75° 44′. The comet is a nebulous mass from 12 to 15 minutes in diameter, having no nucleus, and less luminous at the centre than on the circumference. It was advancing at the rate of 1° per day in R. A., and 55′ in declination.

Winnecke's Periodical Comet.—Observations upon this comet were conducted at different times between April 13 and June 26, 1869, by Schmidt at Athens, Bruns and his assistant Vogel at Leipsic, Schönfeld at Mannheim, and Wolff at Bonn. The remarkable faintness of its light prevented much being done in the way of physical observation. May 14th, Vogel saw, very distinctly, a tail-like lengthening; and Schmidt remarked a small trace of a tail on June 25th. Schönfeld states that, in part of April and May, it appeared to have several centres of condensation, and Vogel, in the beginning of June, detected a much greater resemblance to a star-cluster than to a nebula.

Dr. Winnecke succeeded in finding and observing this comet again on the 4th of August, at half-past 2 A. M., and states that it was then much brighter and larger than when at the same distance from the sun in the month of May before its perihelion passage. He estimated its interior brighter part at 7′ in diameter; but it appeared to be surrounded by diffused faint light of much greater extent. The comet was in perihelion a little before noon on the 30th of June. At the beginning of September, its distance from the sun was about 115 millions of miles, from the earth about 46 millions, nearly the same as it was in the middle of May.

The Common Origin of Certain Comets.—Professor Daniel Kirkwood contributes to the *American Journal of Science* for September, 1869, a paper on the remarkable resemblance between the orbits of the comet of 1812, discovered by Pons, and the fourth comet of 1846. The elements of the two comets are wonderfully like, so much so that diagrams describing their paths are almost exactly similar to the eye. The author remarks that it is infinitely improbable that these coincidences should be accidental; and that they point undoubtedly to a common origin of the two objects. These comets have their aphelions very near the orbit of Neptune, and he argues that the original parabolas in which they moved were probably transformed into ellipses (the present form) by the perturbations of that

planet. Before entering the solar domain they were doubtless members of a cometary system; passing near Neptune at the same time, and at some distance from each other, their different relative positions, with regard to the disturbing body, may account for the slight differences in the elements of their orbits. The question "at what epoch did they enter the solar system," Professor Kirkwood answers thus:

> The mean between the longitudes of the aphelia of the two comets is 271° 41′. Neptune had this longitude in 1775; the comet of 1812, in 1777; and that of 1846, in 1809. Now, with the known period of Neptune and the periods of the comets as determined by Encke and Pierce, we find (neglecting perturbations) that—
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> Neptune was in longitude 271° 41′ in the year 694 B. C.; the comet of 1812, longitude 271° 41′ in the year 696 B. C.; the comet of 1846, IV., longitude 271° 41′ in the year 696 B. C.
>
> It seems, therefore, that the three bodies were very nearly together about 695 years before the Christian era. It is consequently not improbable that the elliptical form of the two cometary orbits dates from this epoch.

The Constitution of Comets. — Professor Tyndall advances a new theory of comets, after a careful investigation of the phenomena of those bodies. He regards the cometic tail as not matter projected from the head, but matter precipitated on the solar beams which have traversed the head. He shows that such precipitation may occur either with comparative slowness along the beam, or with the velocity with which the beam actually traverses space. Thus the amazing rapidity noticed in the development of the tail is accounted for. As the comet sweeps round the perihelion, the tail is not composed of the same matter, but new matter is precipitated on the solar beams, the part of the old tail which is not protected by the head of the comet being dissipated by the sun's calorific rays, and, the dissipation not being necessarily instantaneous, the tail leans toward that portion of space last quitted by the comet. Occasional lateral streamers are explained as possibly due to the temporary mastery of the actinic rays in parts of the cometary atmosphere not screened by the nucleus. The shrinking of the comet's head as it approaches the sun is due to the beating of the heat-rays against the attenuated fringe of the head which is thus dissipated.

The *Quarterly Journal of Science* for October, alluding to Professor Tyndall's views, says that it cannot at present admit his explanation of lateral streamers, because it leaves us in as much perplexity as we have ever been with respect to that strange phenomenon. When a tail is seen extending in a right line from the head, but at an angle of 60° or so to the radial line from the sun, more is required to account for the peculiarity than the bare possibility that along that line the actinic rays may temporarily have obtained a mastery; and the appearance of six distinct tails spreading from the head in the shape of a fan is still more difficult to explain on the Tyndall theory. The writer in the *Quarterly Journal* concedes, however, that the apparent swinging round of the comet's tail is undoubtedly explained by the new theory.

Professor Tyndall's theory is the subject of two interesting communications to the *Philosophical Magazine* from Mr. Ernest Carpmert and Mr. W. B. Gibbs, F. R. A. S. The former remarks that the theory turns on an assumption hardly compatible with the laws of motion, viz., that the tail of a comet is "matter precipitated on the solar beams traversing the cometary atmosphere." If so, the lineal dimensions of a comet must exceed the length of its tail—that is, in some cases, sixty millions of miles or more. As it seems incredible that such a bulk of vapor can whirl round the sun at the perihelion passage unbroken, the author suggests a slight modification of the Tyndall theory, to avoid this difficulty, and explain equally well all the observed appearances. If there be an extremely thin solar atmosphere, extending considerably farther than the earth's orbit—and if, when a comet approaches the sun, and is therefore exposed to intense heat, its volume becomes comparable with the volume of the sun—the heat of the sun will be shut off from that portion of the solar atmosphere in the shade of the comet (which, though transparent to light, is opaque to heat), and actinic clouds will be formed in the solar atmosphere, thus giving the appearance of a tail to the comet; and, if the shape of the comet be irregular, there may be more than one tail. After the comet makes its perihelion passage, it recedes from the sun, and, at the same time, gradually cools and contracts, and the tail would therefore slowly diminish and fade away. Mr. Gibbs does not think that the theory explains some of the cometary phenomena observed by the telescope. Immediately behind the nucleus, where, according to the theory, we should expect a very luminous region, we commonly have a dark space. Also, the matter which forms the tail frequently streams out from the head toward the sun, as was the case with Halley's comet in 1836. The author cites Professor Bond's description of Donati's comet, where he says that "the material, after being thrown off from the nucleus, instead of being at once driven into the tail, formed a dense cloud of nebulosity, into which the luminous matter continued for some time to stream. This cloud extended itself on the sunward side, remaining in its vicinity for several days. When it had acquired a certain stage, the discharge took place mainly from the corners or cusps on either side in two streams, which, coalescing with those issuing from other envelopes, formed the two branches of the tail." Then, too, some comets have several series of envelopes, which rise up toward the sun. In Donati's comet seven were detected, and in the great comet of 1861 no less than eleven. The force which causes the ascent of these envelopes is intermit-

tent and finally dies away. In the comet of 1861 Mr. Webb noticed the descent of the envelopes on the nucleus; and Herschel and Schroeter remarked the same peculiarity in the comet of 1811. From these facts the author thinks that, although Professor Tyndall's hypothesis accounts for some of the phenomena, yet the true theory is still to be discovered.

Mr. Huggins, in the Rede Lecture, delivered at Cambridge in May, details his spectroscopic observations on Winnecke's comet (II., 1868), and the comparison of its spectrum with that of various hydrocarbons, and concludes therefrom that the cometary matter from which the light comes is the luminous vapor of carbon. To this theory it may be objected that the degree of solar heat to which the comet was exposed would be insufficient to convert carbon into vapor. Mr. Huggins replies to this, that carbon may possibly exist in an allotropic state, in which it may be much less fixed, and so be capable of passing into vapor at a comparatively low temperature. At all events, the matter which emanates from the nucleus, and is distinguished by a blue tint, does give a light which the prism shows to be identical with that emitted by the vapor of carbon; therefore it is certain that the light which has the blue color is not due to reflection from a cloud, of which the particles are too small to reflect the longer waves of its less refrangible colors. The invisible spaces between the envelopes may possibly correspond to a condition of the vapor too cool to emit light, and yet not condensed so as to reflect light; and the exterior parts of the coma, or tail, which have been found to be polarized in a plane, showing the light to come from the sun, may be supposed to consist of the vapor of the nucleus, condensed into widely-scattered particles of great minuteness. Mr. Huggins does not support the Tyndall theory on the ground that it is inconsistent with the observed appearances and forms of the tails, and especially with the rays frequently projected in a direction different from that of the tail; and adds that, for further knowledge of the nature of cometary phenomena, we must, doubtless, wait until the spectrum analysis can be applied to the series of changes presented by a brilliant comet.

Prizes for the Discovery of Comets.—The Imperial Academy of Sciences of Vienna have issued a circular, offering prizes for the discovery of comets. It says that, for several years past, there have been remarkably few discoveries of new comets—a fact attributed to the special attention given by observers to small planets. The Academy regard it as very desirable, that more should be known about comets, in view of the recently-established connection between those bodies and meteors. They, therefore, propose to award a gold medal, or twenty Austrian ducats, representing its value in money, as the receiver may choose, for the discovery of any new comet during the three years between May 31, 1869, and May 31, 1872. The awards will be subject to the following regulations:

1. The prize will be given only for the first eight comets discovered in each of the three years named, and only for such comets as are telescopic at time of discovery, that is, invisible to the naked eye. The comet must not have been before seen by another observer, and must not be one whose appearance could securely be predicted.

2. The discovery must be communicated immediately, and without waiting for further observations, to the Imperial Academy of Sciences, by telegraph if practicable; and otherwise by the earliest post. The Academy undertakes to transmit the news immediately to other observatories.

3. The time and place of discovery with the plan and course of the comet must be given as exactly as possible with the first notice. This first notice is to be supplemented by such later observations as may be made.

4. If the discovery should be confirmed by other observers the prize will not be awarded unless the observations of the discoverer suffice for the determination of the orbit.

5. The prizes will be awarded in the general meeting of the Academy held at the end of May of each year. In case the first notice of a discovery arrives between the first of January and the end of May, the final award of the prize will be deferred till the general meeting in May in the following year.

6. Application for the prize must be made to the Academy within five months from the time of the arrival of the first notice. Later applications will not be considered.

7. The Imperial Academy will procure the decision of the permanent astronomers of the Observatory at Vienna as to the fulfilment of the conditions in Nos. 1, 3, and 4.

The Radiation of Heat from the Moon.—At the May meeting of the Royal Society, the Earl of Rosse presented a paper giving the fruits of his experiments to estimate the amount of heat which reaches the earth's surface from the moon. Professor Piazzi Smith had experimented for the same purpose, on the Peak of Teneriffe, with a thermopile, but apparently without any means of concentrating the moon's heat beyond the ordinary polished metal cone. Melloni had employed a glass lens of about 3 feet diameter, but, as glass absorbs rays of low refrangibility, it was not so well adapted to concentrate heat as a metallic mirror. The point sought to be determined by Lord Rosse was, in what proportions the moon's heat consists of: (1.) That coming from the interior of the moon which will not vary with the phase. (2.) That which falls from the sun on the moon's surface and is at once reflected regularly and irregularly. (3.) That which, falling from the sun on the moon's surface, is absorbed, raises the temperature of the moon, and is afterward radiated to the earth as heat of low refrangibility. The apparatus consisted of a thermopile of two elements, on which all the moon's heat, which falls on the large speculum of the author's 8-foot telescope, was concentrated by means of a concave mirror of 3½ inches aperture, and 2.8 inches focal length. Two wires were connected with the two poles of each pile, and the ends of the wires joined two by two close to a Thompson's reflecting galvanometer, in such

a manner that a given amount of heat on the anterior face of one pile would produce a deviation equal in amount and opposite in direction to that produced by an equal amount of heat on the anterior face of the other pile. The result of the experiments may be summed up as follows: The law of the variation of the moon's heat is found to differ not much from that of the moon's light. It may therefore be inferred that not more than a small part of the moon's heat comes from the first of the three sources mentioned. Readings of the galvanometer taken on four different nights at the time of full moon showed a deviation of about six or eight divisions. The probable per centage of the moon's heat which passed through disks of thin plate-glass placed in front of each pile was 8 or rather less. The greater part of the moon's heat which reaches the earth appears to have been first absorbed by the lunar surface. The ratio of the heat of the sun, which reaches the earth, to that of the moon, is estimated at about 89,819 to 1. The value of the readings of the galvanometer was determined by comparison with those obtained by using a vessel of hot water coated with shellac and lampblack varnish as a source of heat. The vessel was of tin, circular, and subtended the same angle at the small concave reflectors as the large mirror of the telescope. It was thus found that (the radiating power of the moon being supposed to be equal to that of the lampblack surface, and the earth's atmosphere not to influence the result) a deviation of 90 for full moon appears to indicate an elevation of temperature at the moon's surface of about 500° F. In deducing this result, allowance has been made for the imperfect absorption of the solar rays by the lunar surface. Of this estimated high temperature at the moon the author remarks that it is quite in accordance with the views of Sir John Herschel on the subject ("Outlines of Astronomy," section 732 and preceding sections), where he says that, "in consequence of the long period of rotation of the moon on its axis, and still more the absence of an atmosphere, the climate of the moon must be most extraordinary, the alternation being that of unmitigated and burning sunshine, fiercer than that of an equatorial noon, and the keenest severity of frost, far exceeding that of our polar winters for an equal time." And again, "the surface of the full moon exposed to us must necessarily be very much heated, possibly to a degree much exceeding that of boiling water."

Captain John Ericsson, the distinguished American inventor, reported to the American Association, at its meeting in August, conclusions derived from a series of original experiments, exactly opposite to those submitted by Earl Rosse. Captain Ericsson proceeded upon the generally-accepted theory that the moon has no atmosphere, and sought to ascertain what was the temperature of the solar rays in absolute space—that is, before entering the atmosphere of the earth—arguing that the heat at the surface of the moon, by reason of the absence of an atmosphere, would be the same as that in absolute space. His experiments led him to believe that the temperature of absolute space, and, therefore, at the lunar surface, is more than 300° below the freezing-point of water. The atmosphere of the earth imprisons, so to speak, the solar rays, which are then absorbed into the earth, until the heat of the surface is increased to the existing average temperature, when other causes interfere to prevent it going higher. In other words, the heat received by the earth from the sun is prevented by the atmosphere from being reflected off into space; but no such cause exists to check the reflection into space of the solar heat falling on the moon's surface. On Captain Ericsson's theory, the moon is a mass of ice, and the heat noticed by Earl Rosse is reflected, as heat might be from the coldest surfaces, and not radiated from it.

Report of the Lunar Committee on Changes in the Moon.—The report of the Lunar Committee, at the August meeting of the British Association, contains some items of interest. Mr. Birt stated that, since the appointment of the committee, in 1868, a surface of 100 square degrees—i. e., 10 degrees of south latitude and 10 of west longitude—has been carefully surveyed; the outlines of 433 objects laid down on a scale of 200 inches to the moon's diameter, and a catalogue prepared, containing numerous notices of important phenomena bearing on the questions relative to the physical aspect of our satellite. The great question of continued lunar change, either transient or permanent, as contrasted with apparent change dependent upon illuminating and visual angle, is one, he remarks, for posterity to settle. Several instances were adduced to show that the moon's surface had undergone successive changes during its past history. The determination of these changes rests on the strong indications afforded by a careful study of photograms of the priority and posteriority of well-marked features, which can only be realized by contemplating the lunar pictures in the seclusion of the study. The report alludes to certain differences between the photograms, particularly one with respect to a crater figured by Lohrmann, and found on De La Rue's map, but not a vestige of which can be discovered on Rutherfurd's. The comparison of photograms appears to open up a line of investigation of great promise. Some attention has been given to apparent changes of brightness and tint; and three or four somewhat conspicuous spots were referred to as exhibiting these alterations.

In a paper subsequently read before the Association by Mr. Birt, he spoke of the number of changes which have been observed, during the last 49 years, on the lunar crater Plato. From records in his possession, it appears that no less than 24 spots have been seen, at different times, on the smooth, dark

floor of that crater. Previous to February, 1869, 15 had been recorded, of which 6 have been observed recently. In and since February, 1869, 9 additional spots have been observed, of which 5 have been more or less constantly seen by two observers. The remaining 13 have either become invisible, or are but rarely seen. Certain peaks on the western wall of the crater Plato have been measured by Beer and Mädler, and their height found to be from 5,000 to 7,000 English feet. These peaks, at sunrise, cast well-defined, long shadows, which have been measured by Professor Challis, of Cambridge. The shadows of the three principal peaks come in proximity to three very minute craters on the floor of Plato, thus furnishing a means of identifying these craters at any future time.

Transits of Venus.—Preparatory arrangements were made in England during the year for the efficient observation of the important transit of Venus, which will take place in December, 1874. Numerous stations have been selected for observing the phenomenon in its various stages and conditions. For observing the ingress of Venus upon the sun's disk, as accelerated by parallax, Owhyhee and the neighboring islands, the Marquesas Islands, the Aleutian Islands, and the mouth of the Amoor, are regarded as more or less favorably situated. For observing the ingress retarded by parallax, Kerguelen Island and Croyet's Island are well situated, though geographically unfavorable. Next in order come Rodriguez, Mauritius, and Bourbon Islands, Madras, and Bombay. The egress accelerated by parallax can be best observed in Auckland Islands, Canterbury, Wellington, and Auckland, Norfolk Island, Melbourne, and Sydney; while Omsk, Orsk, Astrakhan, Erzeroum, Aleppo, Smyrna, and Alexandria, are highly suitable places for noting the retardation of the egress by parallax. Mr. De La Rue has been investigating the practicability of taking photographs of Venus in transit, at several well-separated stations, as an auxiliary means of estimating the sun's distance. He points out that the close correspondence between the result obtained by micrometrical measurements applied to his eclipse photographs in 1860, and the elements calculated by Mr. Farley, in the *Nautical Almanac*, show that a very close approximation to the truth is to be looked for in the case of the transit of Venus. The difficulty of measuring the solar and lunar disks presented in an eclipse photograph is very much greater than that attending the corresponding measurements in a transit photograph. Moreover, the observer of a transit would not be hurried like the observer of an eclipse, since the former phenomenon is several hours in progress, while the latter lasts but a few minutes. The photographing could be as easily done as that which occurs daily at the Kew Observatory. Mr. Stone, of Greenwich, suggests that the three following points should be carefully attended to in making the telescopic observations; that telescopes of nearly the same aperture should be employed; that magnifying powers should be nearly the same; and that attention should be directed to observations of real internal contact as the chief points. By "real internal contact," he means the formation of the "black drop," as it is called, simultaneously with the complete ingress of the planet upon the solar disk. The transit of 1874 does not afford the same opportunity which was had in that of 1769, for estimating the sun's distance from the different duration of the transit as observed from different points of the earth's surface; nor is there a probability, according to Mr. Airy's calculations, of applying that method in the transit of 1882. The latter transit, as well as that of 1874, takes place in December, when the southern or sea hemisphere of the earth is turned toward the sun. The transits of 1761 and 1769 (the most important observed last century) happened in June, when the northern hemisphere was bowed to the sun. Stations for observing the transit of 1882 have already been chosen.

Transit of Mercury.—The recent transit of Mercury was observed by Mr. Row (a Hindoo astronomer), at Vizagapatam. The observer and some of his friends noticed that near the middle of the transit a "wavy tint of light" darted from the upper edge of the planet. This light was occasionally disturbed, but continued visible for some time. No change of focal length or of the eye-piece employed had any effect on the phenomenon. It is said to be the first instance of the kind occurring during a transit of Mercury.

AURORA BOREALIS. An auroral display of extraordinary extent and splendor occurred on the night of April 15th. It was seen throughout Canada, being especially brilliant at St. John, N. B., Montreal, and Toronto, in the north and middle western part of the United States, and in the upper portion of the Southern States. At Boston the spectacle was remarkably fine between 7 and 8 P. M., surpassing in richness and beauty any previous exhibition of the kind at that point for many years. The Western Union Telegraph Company operated their lines in that city without the aid of a battery, and the same was done in many other places. From Philadelphia to Pittsburg the telegraph lines were worked by the auroral electricity alone. At Cincinnati it was noticed that all the lines, except those running south and west, were disturbed, the currents being sometimes too strong, and at others almost neutralized. The operation of lines at St. John, N. B., was seriously interfered with, and communication almost entirely ceased between Plaister Cove and Heart's Content, N. B. The phenomenon, as seen at Richmond, Va., is described as a belt of white, apparently about six feet wide, extending across the sky from east and west, drifting northward, and finally gathering as a fan closes, and then dis-

appearing, after which the ordinary Aurora Borealis was seen in the northern horizon. As far southwest as Louisville, Ky., the aurora made but little show, and its effects on the telegraph wires were barely perceptible. Seen from Indianapolis, the phenomenon was of a whitish color, looking like clouds rent by the winds. An hour later (at 9 o'clock) the sky was illuminated first in the northwest, then in the east, and streaked with spots of red light which rapidly came and went. The display at that place lasted about an hour and a half. In New York City and vicinity the appearance of the phenomenon is accurately given in the following, from an account furnished by W. S. Gilman, Jr., to the *American Journal of Science* for July. He was stationed on the roof of Mr. Jacob Campbell's observatory in Brooklyn, N. Y., a favorable position for a good view. At 7½ P. M., Mr. Gilman first observed thin streaky clouds pointing upward from the horizon, and evidently the beginning of an auroral display. In a few minutes afterward the beams shot toward the zenith, and the familiar auroral corona was formed. The nucleus or apex of the aurora was seemingly a cloud shaped like the internal area described by a bow with the string drawn aside. The southwest was clear, as it was generally during the evening. From that point the wind had been blowing all day. To the south the auroral beams did not extend nearer the horizon than Sirius, and at no time exhibited great strength on the horizon. At 7ʰ 40ᵐ rosy tints appeared at different points of the compass, those to the east and west of the zenith being remarkably deep, and generally at an altitude of 45° or more. At 8 P. M. the phenomenon brightened after a brief dull period, and the rose-tints were then very beautiful. Sulphurous-yellow and greenish hues were also visible. At 10 o'clock the aurora was faint, though striking in its arrangement; but at 10½ o'clock the aurora reappeared with redoubled brilliancy, the nucleus of light being much larger than it was earlier in the evening, and in shape resembling the denser part of the great nebula of Orion. At 2 A. M. when Mr. Gilman's observations ceased, only faint beams were perceptible in the north, proceeding from the dark segment along the horizon from N. N. E. to N. N. W. He regards this aurora as inferior in brilliancy to one that he witnessed at Mount Desert, Me., September 15, 1868, but possessing more interest than the latter in the greater grotesqueness of the clouds forming the corona, and the rosy, greenish, and yellowish tints assumed by the broad sheets of light which streamed on all sides from the nucleus overhead.

Mr. E. T. Kingston, connected with the Magnetic Observatory at Toronto, Canada, in a communication to the same magazine, treats of the aurora as seen at that place, in some of its more scientific aspects. He says:

A very grand exhibition of aurora, occupying more or less the whole sky, took place on the night of April 15th, and continued, with but slight interruption, from dusk till daylight on the following morning.

One part of the display, deserving notice from its comparative rarity, was a dark segment similar to those commonly seen in the north, though not so well defined, which appeared about 9 P. M. in the south, with an altitude of about 25°. But the feature of still more unusual occurrence consisted in a belt of luminous haze from 5° to 10° in width, extending through the zenith from the eastern to the western point of the horizon, the material of which (*in appearance*) moved like a torrent from east to west with prodigious velocity.

The *apparent* movement of translation continued from about 13ʰ 10 to 13ʰ 50ᵐ, when the matter composing the belt became affected by pulsations, which succeeded each other in the order from east to west, and with a rapidity still greater than that of the previous apparent motion of translation.

About 14ʰ the belt broke up and the pulsations became visible over the whole sky, the order of their succession being from the horizon to the zenith. At 15ʰ the pulsations became intermittent, and ceased to maintain any apparent order in the their occurrence: they gradually became more feeble and ceased with daybreak.

Throughout the night a generally diffused luminosity prevailed, such as is commonly seen with a full moon and hazy sky. This was evidently not occasioned by the moon, which was scarcely four days old, and was low in the horizon, but was part of the aurora itself, the brilliancy of whose more active features it greatly impaired.

Throughout the day and night a considerable magnetic disturbance was going on.

Declination.—As regards the declination, the average deviation was 15′ of arc, or three times the limit required to entitle a disturbance to be considered as large. The easterly deviations were the more numerous, but the westerly were on the average fifty per cent. greater in extent.

The greatest easterly deviation was 98′ at 8 P. M., and the greatest westerly deviation 85′ at 7ʰ 15ᵐ P. M.

The deviations after midnight were nearly all easterly.

Total Force.—The disturbances of the total force were on the average nearly seven times what may be designated as the inferior limit of a disturbance, or .0004 of the total force.

The number of the disturbances which increased, and of those which diminished the force, were nearly equal; but the average magnitude of the latter was to that of the former in the ratio of 8 to 5.

The greatest disturbance which increased the force was 11 (the unit being .0004), and occurred at 5ʰ 15ᵐ P. M., while the greatest disturbance diminishing the force was 23, and occurred at 8 P. M.

The disturbances which diminished the force nearly all took place between 6.30 P. M. and midnight.

Inclination or Dip.—The disturbances of the dip had an average value of about 15′, or 15 times the disturbance limit.

The disturbances which increased the dip were the more numerous, but those which diminished the dip were of nearly twice their magnitude. The greatest increase of dip was 35, and occurred at 10ʰ 30ᵐ P. M., and the greatest diminution of dip was 64′, and occurred at 3 P. M.

The disturbances increasing the dip nearly all took place after 7 P. M., those that diminished the dip having occurred during the day.

On the whole, the aurora, together with the magnetic disturbance which preceded and accompanied it, was more remarkable than any that have been witnessed at Toronto since September, 1859.

J. A. Angström sends to Poggendorff's *Annalen* a report of his spectroscopic studies of the aurora. He says that, in the winter of

1868–'69, he was several times able to observe the spectrum of the luminous arc which surrounds the dark segment, and is never wanting in faint auroras. The light was almost monochromatic, and consisted of a single bright line, which was on the left of the well-known group of lines of calcium. Traces of three very faint bands were also observed, which extended nearly as far as F. Only once, when the luminous arc was much agitated, did he see the regions in question momentarily illuminated by some faint spectrum lines; yet, from the feeble intensity of those rays, he could still say that the light of the luminous arc is almost monochromatic. In March of 1867 he observed, for a whole week, the same line in the zodiacal light, which at that time displayed an extraordinary intensity. Finally, on a starlight night, when the whole sky was in some degree phosphorescent, he found traces of the line even in the faint light which proceeded from all parts of the heavens. This line, so far as he has investigated it, does not coincide with any of the known lines of simple or of compound gases. He suggests that an intense northern light, such as can be observed within the polar circle, will probably give a more complex spectrum.

AUSTRALIA. This continent is now divided into five colonies: *New South Wales* and *Queensland* in the east, *Western Australia* in the west, *South Australia* in the southwest, and *Victoria*, the smallest, but most important, in the southeast.

The area of *Victoria* is 86,831 English square miles, or about as large as that of Great Britain. Its population was, at the end of 1868, about 684,000. The proportion of the male population to the female is as 4 to 3. The soil is for the greater part undulated and traversed by some mountain-ranges of considerable height. Of its area, 40,700 square miles are adapted for sheep-breeding, 26,000 for agriculture, 583 square miles are calculated to be auriferous, the unexplored land being about 20,000 square miles. There are numerous rivers, but only one, the Murray, is large; it has a length of 2,400 miles, 2,000 of which are navigable. The climate is dry, but pleasant.

Gold-mining is now principally in the hands of companies, and is regulated like any other branch of industry. But there still are many diggers who work on their own account, and would not work for any wages in the richest quartz-works.

The yield of gold amounted in 1867 to 1,433,687 ounces. There were 470 steam machines in the alluvial works, and 532 in the quartz-works. The total value of the machines used in the gold-works amounted to 2,068,527 pounds sterling. The average wages of the miners was £87 2s. sterling. The total value of gold obtained in this colony up to the end of 1867 was £136,000,000 sterling. The yield of gold in 1868 amounted to 1,657,598 ounces, and the value of machinery to £2,150,432. There was obtained in 1867 silver valued at £3,462, tin at £195,000, copper at £4,000, antimony at £30,000, coal at £3,000, slate and flagstone at £18,000, diamonds and jewels at £8,000. The number of miners has for several years continually been on the decrease. It was, in 1868, 63,000, 15,000 of whom were Chinese. The main centre of the gold-diggings is Ballarat. The city contains a very industrious population of 28,000. The annual receipts of the municipality amount to more than £20,000. A railroad connects it with Melbourne *via* Geelong. The next mining cities in importance are Bandigo and Castlemaine.

The present agricultural population is about 14,000. The yield in wheat is about twenty bushels, in oats about twenty-two bushels, an acre. The dry climate is favorable to wheat, which is of excellent quality. There were, in 1868, 121,000 horses, 622,000 cattle, 77,000 hogs, 8,460,000 sheep. The export of wool amounted to £3,800,000. The value of agriculture was, in 1866, £865,693. The squatters had 1,156 stations for sheep-breeding, extending over thirty-two million acres. The cultivation of tobacco, flax, and the vine, is progressing favorably. The vineyards, in 1868, covered 5,000 acres. The Society of Acclimatization manifests great activity. Almost all the domestic animals, fruit, vegetables, and corn, are acclimatized, and thriving very well. The want of sufficient flowing water, arising from the nature of the hard upper strata, has been a serious drawback both for mining and agriculture, so that the supply of water has become the matter of paramount importance. Among other means of remedying this want, the large river Murray is to be brought into communication with many other rivers, gigantic reservoirs are to be constructed, large salt lakes to be emptied, and changed into reservoirs.

All other branches of industry have also been greatly developed. There were, in 1866, 114 grinding-mills, with a capital of £384,385; 86 breweries, with a capital of £266,000; and of other manufactories there were 786, with a total capital of £1,980,911.

With this development of domestic industry the English export has decreased. The legislature was compelled to introduce an almost prohibitory protective tariff. Wages are exceedingly high, and every industrious and competent working-man finds occupation readily, as may be perceived by the fact that the deposits in the savings-banks amount to a sum of £8,000,000. The Government of Victoria aids immigration but very little now, the legislature, which is elected by universal suffrage, representing the views of the laboring classes, who think that immigration depresses wages. The squatters are mostly Scotchmen, the farmers mostly Irish. The English are not so numerous; they are mostly shopkeepers and mechanics. The miners are for the greater part from Wales and Cornwall; they are skilled miners and smiths. The considerable immigration of Chinese is

worthy of note. They are ill-treated, though they have proved themselves useful to the colony by their skill, industry, and spirit of enterprise.

The revenues of the colony amounted, in 1868, to £3,320,354, the expense to £3,272,693. The revenues for 1869 are estimated at £3,294,161, the expenses at £3,293,042. The capital city, Melbourne, has in wonderful development been excelled only by a few American cities. It contains (with the suburbs) 170,000 inhabitants.

Port Darwin is said by recent explorers to be the best port in the Australian colonies. It lies southwest from Adam Bay, into which the Adelaide River empties.

The foreign trade of the colony of Victoria continues to show an increase. In the first eleven months of 1868, the imports amounted in value to £11,891,938, an increase of £1,416,503 over the corresponding period in 1867. The exports amounted to £12,814,750, an increase of £2,625,211.

The Victoria Parliament passed a bill for a loan of £2,100,000 for railway purposes. Arrangements for intercolonial free trade were being organized.

New South Wales.—This colony embraces an area of 207,000,000 acres. The eastern coast runs a distance of 700 miles from Point Danger to Cape Howe. The colony extends 500 miles from the sea into the interior. The coast is high and rocky; but there is a number of bays, affording excellent, spacious, and safe harbors. The country is undulating, and abounds in rivers, fertile valleys, and extensive grass plains. North of Sydney, and east of the Blue Mountains, there are nine rivers watering fertile agricultural districts with prospering towns. There is a regular steam connection between these rivers and Sydney. These districts are well adapted for the culture of cotton, tobacco, sugar-cane, and other tropical productions, as well as the grape-vine; the southern portion is celebrated all over Australia for its rich yield of cereals. Cattle are excellent. But the richest resources of the colony are its immense pasture-grounds. Tallow, hides, bones, leather, and meat, are valuable export articles, while wool is the great staple of the country. The export of wool amounts now to £30,000,000 a year; while the export of wool of all Australia amounts to £100,000,000. The squatters (sheep-breeders) are a very wealthy class, and form the territorial aristocracy of the colony. The area owned as free property (i. e., disposed of by the crown) consisted, in 1867, of about 46,000,000 acres, only 230,000 of which were cultivated; of the 120,000,000 acres of leased land, only 160,000 were cultivated. Wheat, corn, oats, barley, and tobacco, were the chief articles of cultivation. The culture of the grape has increased, while that of sugar is beginning to grow important in the northern parts. The interior of New South Wales suffers terribly from want of water. The drought of 1868 and 1869 lasted in some parts through the whole year, causing an immense destruction among the animals. This colony is rich in gold, silver, copper, iron, lead, tin, and quicksilver; all these treasures are as yet but very little worked. There is an abundance of coal, the great coal stratum extending as far as Queensland. Of the 1,780,000 tons yielded a year on an average during the last ten years, more than one-half was taken to India, China, and the neighboring colonies. Twenty thousand tons of coal are raised at Newcastle every week. The strata of iron are exceedingly valuable. A silver-mine has been opened on the southern coast, 200 miles distant from Sydney; and a rich stratum of red sulphuret of mercury (cinnabar) was discovered in the beginning of 1869. The yield of gold amounted, in 1866, to 235,898 ounces. The population was, in 1866, 420,000 souls. The constitution is similar to that of Victoria, except that the members of the Legislative Council are appointed by the Crown (the Governor). The railroads and telegraphs are in the hands of the government, and yield a considerable revenue. The Southern Railroad, from Sydney to Goulburn, is 128 miles long. The revenues of the colony amounted, in 1868, to £2,107,157; its debt to £9,585,890, contracted for railroads and other public works. The exports from England to the colony rose, in 1868, to £2,872,000. Sydney, the capital of the colony, is seven miles from the mouth of the beautiful Bay of Port Jackson. An international exhibition was opened in this city in May, 1869.

Queensland.—This colony occupies the northeastern part of the continent; its length, from the southern boundary to Cape York, is 1,200 miles; its area, 678,000 square miles (about four times that of France). The great bays form numerous harbors. Moreton Bay, at the head of which is Brisbane, the capital, is 60 miles long and 20 miles wide, and encircled by fertile coasts. East of the range of mountains running at a distance of 60 to 70 miles from the coast, numerous broad and partly navigable rivers run through rich alluvial bottoms, while west of the mountains there is an expansive table-land, the Downs. Ipswich, the second city of the colony, has about 6,000 inhabitants. The country around Maryborough is excellent for agriculture. Gladstone is the harbor of the bay Port Curtis, which, being deep, wide, and safe, is considered to be, after Sydney, the best port on the eastern coast of Australia. The climate is healthy. Rockhampton, 80 miles from the mouth of the Fitzroy (in Keppel Bay) is a notable city, the future metropolis of Northern Australia. The coast near the Gulf of Carpentaria is not adapted for sheep-breeding or agriculture; but it abounds in minerals.

On the whole, Queensland is exceedingly well adapted for sheep-breeding; its pasture-lands of an enormous extent and excellent quality. The interior is grass-land. Soil and

climate adapt the Downs especially for wheat, barley, oats, and the vegetables and fruit of the temperate zone; the coast-lands producing corn, and most of the fruits and spices of the subtropic zone. The exhibition of the Horticultural and Agricultural Society of Drayton and Toowoomba, in February, 1869, in the Darling Downs, has proved the country to be excellent for producing wheat and other cereals. On the other hand, the exhibition of the Agricultural Society of East Moreton, opened at Brisbane, showed excellent specimens of grapes, oranges, lemons, gigantic sugar-cane, rich cotton, and fragrant tobacco. The cotton equals our Sea Island staple in fineness and evenness, but is not as strong. Its export rose from 14,344 pounds in 1862 to 412,741 pounds in 1867. There were, in 1866, only 2,884 acres of cotton; in 1867 there were 8,149 acres; so that its export in 1868 can hardly have been below a million pounds. The colony is rich in valuable woods.

The colony is particularly favorable for farmers with small means, and they have been well provided for by the legislature. Besides the favorable conditions for the purchase or lease of large tracts (as high as 10,000 acres), any father of a family can occupy 80 acres of agricultural land or 160 acres of pasture-land, by paying for five years nine pence a year per acre of the former, or sixpence for the latter kind of land. The discovery of gold has essentially improved Queensland. The city of Nashville, in the gold district of Gympie, already contains 10,000 inhabitants. New and rich quartz strata were found in March, 1869. To develop this industry, however, an uninterrupted supply of water is needed. The export of gold from Queensland amounted, in 1868, to 163,000 ounces. The Peak Downs contain copper strata of great extent. A rich stratum of galena was discovered, in February, 1869, in the Burnett district. The population was about 100,000 persons in 1868. Railroads and telegraphs are controlled by the Colonial Government. The telegraph was, in March, 1869, advanced as far as Tadesville, on Cleveland Bay, and will soon, by a submarine cable to Java and Singapore, connect Australia with Europe, etc. Public instruction has received early attention, there being many primary and grammar schools.

Western Australia is separated from the other colonies by the great interior desert. It is now the only Crown colony in Australia. Its length from north to south is 1,200 miles, its width 800; the entire length of the coast is 2,000 miles. The Darling and Roe Mountain-ranges traverse the colony from north to south, have a height of 1,500 to 2,000 feet and a width of 20 to 25 miles. Beyond them are the wide, undulating grass prairies, with extensive pastures, but slightly wooded and well watered by the rivers Swan, Canning, Albany, and Augustus. Farther east begins the great desert. The land produces potatoes, vegetables, and fruits of all kinds. The climate is healthy and very favorable to European settlers, who are encouraged by very favorable conditions. The extensive forests furnish woods of great value. The colony is as yet but little explored. Between the Murchison and the Upper Irwin, at a distance of 40 miles from the sea, a district of 4,000 square miles contains coal, copper, and lead in abundance. Pearl-fishing is very advantageous. According to official statements, each European manager obtains about a ton of shells a month, which is worth £100 on the spot. The country abounds in fish. The export from this colony to England was, in the first months of 1869, very lively in wool, pearl shells, copper-ore, gum; timber is sent to Southern Australia and Victoria, railroad-ties to India, horses to Singapore, Madras, and Calcutta. The exports amounted, in 1868, to £107,636, the imports to £212,488. The population, in 1867, was 23,231 persons, two-thirds of whom were males. There were 33 public schools. The revenues of the colony were, in 1868, £83,038; the expenses, £82,294.

Southern Australia is chiefly important for sheep-breeding, agriculture, and mining. The Crown had sold, in 1868, over 3,000,000 acres; 241,712,459 acres (378,300 square miles) remaining still unsold. Its area is three times as large as Great Britain and Ireland. Breeding sheep and cattle is the most important business, the squatters forming an aristocratic class and living in a princely style. The yield in wheat amounted, in 1868, to more than 5,000,000 bushels. The colony is immensely rich in copper; it exported to England, in 1868, 14,841 tons of copper-ore. The port of Wallaroo is a thriving town of 5,000 inhabitants. The capital of the colony is Adelaide. The population amounts to about 180,000. The imports from England rose, in 1868, to £1,177,638. The government consists of a Governor, a Legislative Council, and a House of Assembly. Both Houses of the Legislature are chosen by the people. The Council consists of 18 members, the Assembly of 36.

The exports of England to Australia amounted, in 1868, to £12,071,435; £1,105,400 of which were paid for fancy goods, £971,003 for clothing, £966,697 for cotton goods, £649,058 for woollens, £324,455 for linen, £924,507 for boots and shoes, £477,295 for beer. The export of Australian staple articles to England, in 1868, shows: for hides, 14,641 tons; raw copper, 93,000 cwt.; tallow, 215,418 cwt.; wool, 155,745,199 cwt. The gold imported from Australia and New Zealand to England amounted, in 1868, to £6,989,594. The total exports from England to Australia rose, in 1865, to £12,339,241.

AUSTRIA, an empire in Europe. Emperor, Francis Joseph I., born August 18, 1830; succeeded his uncle, Ferdinand I., on December 2, 1848. Heir-apparent, Archduke Rudolph, born August 21, 1858. In this article we treat of the affairs belonging to the Austrian

monarchy as a whole, and those belonging to Austria proper, or the cis-Leithan provinces, reserving the affairs of the trans-Leithan provinces for the article HUNGARY.

The area of the Austrian empire, according to the latest official statements, amounts to 240,381 square miles, and the population, in 1867, to 35,553,000 inhabitants. An official census was to be taken during the first months of the year 1870. The previous census was of 1857, which showed the population of the provinces now constituting Austria (Lombardy and Venetia have since been lost) to amount to 32,530,000.

In no country of the world is the difference of nationality of so great political importance as in Austria, as it has been the primary cause of all the territorial losses which the empire has suffered since 1815, and of nearly all the commotions which still threaten its unity. According to a new work on the subject, by a writer of recognized reputation, Dr. Ficker (*Die Völkerstämme der Oestreich.—Ungarischen Monarchie*, Vienna, 1869), the numerical strength of the principal nationalities in Austria proper (cis-Leithan provinces), and the lands subject to the Hungarian crown (trans-Leithan provinces), were as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Germans.	Northern Slavi.	Southern Slavi.	Western Rumanians.	Eastern Rumanians.	Magyars.	All others.
Austria	7,280,000	9,822,000	1,734,000	592,000	213,000	18,000	742,000
Hungary	1,765,000	2,210,000	1,509,000	1,000	2,501,000	5,408,000	611,000
Military Frontier	45,000	12,000	932,000	500	147,000	5,000	500
Total	9,040,000	12,044,000	4,175,000	594,000	2,862,000	5,431,000	1,854,000

The following is a list of the provinces into which each of the two halves of the empire is divided, with the population in 1867, as ascertained by adding the excess of births over deaths to the official statements of the census of 1857:

I. *Cis-Leithan Provinces (Austria Proper):*

1. Lower Austria	1,762,784
2. Upper Austria	719,427
3. Salzburg	146,870
4. Styria	1,091,647
5. Carinthia	342,656
6. Carniola	475,437
7. Goertz, Gradisca, Istria, and Trieste	566,666
8. Tyrol and Vorarlberg	878,733
9. Bohemia	5,153,602
10. Moravia	2,008,572
11. Silesia	493,825
12. Galicia	5,147,021
13. Bukovina	516,418
14. Dalmatia	446,660
Total	19,750,318
Adding army, and travelling population—about	20,205,000

II. *Trans-Leithan Provinces (Hungary):*

15. Hungary	10,814,206
16. Croatia and Slavonia	962,031
17. Transylvania	2,095,215
The Military Frontier	1,181,502
Total	15,002,954
Adding army, and travelling population—about	15,848,000
Total of I. and II., or the whole monarchy,	35,553,000

In the budget of 1868, for the whole monarchy, the estimates of expenditure and receipts were as follows:

Expenditures.	Austrian florins.
1. Common Ministry for Foreign Affairs	4,226,471
2. Common Ministry of War:	
(1.) for the Army	78,778,357
(2.) for the Navy	9,933,265
3. Common Ministry on Finances	1,743,507
4. Common Chamber of Accounts	104,095
Total	94,785,695
Receipts.	
Receipts of Ministry of War	3,214,000
Receipts from Customs	12,000,000
Receipts from Consulates	112,000
	15,326,900
Remaining	79,459,695

Of which sum the cis-Leithan provinces furnish 70 per cent., or 55,621,787; and the trans-Leithan provinces 30 per cent., or 23,837,908.

The budget of 1868, for the cis-Leithan provinces, was as follows: Receipts, 299,380,999; expenditures, 302,999,534; deficit, 3,618,535. The public debt, on December 31, 1868, was 2,692,067,316 florins.

The army in 1869 consisted of 246,695 on the peace footing, and 822,472 on the war footing.

The endeavor to assimilate and to govern the incongruous parts of the Austrian monarchy still constitutes a difficult task. Speaking, first of all, of West Austria, its constitutional system, as at present existing, rests upon the coöperation of the Germans with the Poles. The Germans of Austria are in the main centralists; the Poles are wedded to theories of decentralization or provincial self-government. This fundamental difference of political principles is always threatening to bring about a rupture between the Austrian Germans and the Austrian Poles, however prudently and moderately the political leaders on both sides may act toward each other. There is a serious difference between the West Austrian Government and its supporters in the Reichsrath, on the one side, and the Galician deputies on the other. When the constitutional reforms of 1867 were passed by the Reichsrath, by the joint efforts of the German and Galician deputies, the former regarded the work as a finality; the latter, on the other hand, declared from the first that the demands of their province, in the matter of self-government, were not satisfied, and that their constituents could not let the constitution remain as the reforms of 1867 had left it. The Galician Diet passed, in fact, a series of resolutions, which demanded such an extension of the powers of the provincial legislature and executive government as would conform the position of Galicia, toward the rest of West Austria, to that held by Croatia since the conclusion of the new settlement in the Hungarian

group of countries. The constitutionality of these resolutions was disputed by no one, but the Reichsrath was the body alone competent to alter the constitution in the manner proposed by the Galician Diet. The Galician deputies avoided, however, raising the question after the Reichsrath had assembled, because the army bill and the imperial budget for 1869 had not yet been voted, and because, in their estimation, the safety of the empire was a question that took precedence of all others. But after the New Year's vacation the Diet's resolutions were called up in the Reichsrath, and, after a thorough discussion, the committee charged with their consideration agreed that no obligation rests upon the Government to communicate the resolutions of the Galician Diet to the House; nevertheless, and as a compromise, it requested that the Government would, as a matter of favor or political expediency, communicate the said resolutions to the committee (not the House), and that the committee would then lay the resolutions before the House. One immediate result of the raising of this question has been the endeavor to provide the means by which the resolutions of the Diet may from time to time be communicated to the Reichsrath.

Another constituent portion of the empire, Bohemia, claims to be justly discontent. The Czechs belong, as Slavi, to a nationality which embraces a clear majority of the subjects of the Austrian empire, numbering 16,000,000 souls; yet, under the new dualistic system, their pride of race is offended by being subjected to the ascendency of Germans and Magyars, who do not together quite amount to 14,000,000, and, as Bohemians, their patriotic feelings are outraged by seeing the constitutional rights of their ancient kingdom trampled upon and utterly abrogated. It is, therefore, not a little suggestive that Czech leaders were present at the Slavonic Congress of Moscow in 1867.

While the Czechs are sulking and the Austrian Poles watching with anxiety the attitude which the West Austrian Government and legislature intend to take on the subject of the extension of the principle of self-government in Galicia, the Austrian Germans are agitating parliamentary reform. They desire an extension of the number of members for the House of Deputies, and the introduction of direct elections into the Reichsrath. In fact, the example of the sister country, Hungary, with its time-honored system of direct elections, has served to captivate the German liberal mind with such a system, and the West Austrian ministry are considering proposals to these ends before the Reichsrath. The West Austrian House of Deputies consists only of 203 members. This, for a population of 19,500,000 gives a member to every 97,000 of the population. The Hungarian Diet, including the 29 new additions from Croatia, counts 442 members for a population of only 15,000,000, or one member to every 34,000 of the population. It has been proposed to double the present number of the House of Deputies.

The Reichsrath closed on the 14th of May, with a speech of the Emperor, enumerating the labor of the Parliament, and saying:

It was necessary to found an entirely new order of things. This was accomplished by the establishment of the constitution which, while uniting the cis-Leithan provinces, has afforded a large field for the autonomous government of the country, and given the finishing stroke to the compromise with Hungary. The military organization has not only drawn the band of union more closely round the monarchy, but has also increased its power. This fact, together with the friendly relations existing between Austria and the other powers, is a guarantee for the maintenance of peace which the empire so absolutely requires. Referring to the financial situation, his Majesty spoke of the large demands made upon the tax-paying efforts of the people, and said that, thanks to the joint powers of the Government and the administrative bodies, a way had been found by which it was hoped to place the finances upon a sound footing, adding that public economy, the reform of taxation, and the general improvement of commerce, afforded grounds for anticipating that the nation would soon recover from the sacrifices it had made. The speech from the throne then proceeds to enumerate the results of the legislation of the expiring session, mentioning especially the establishment of a supreme tribunal of the empire, the introduction of trial by jury of press offences, the reform of the criminal law, the separation of the Government from the administration of justice, the abolition of imprisonment for debt, the repeal of the usury laws, and many other important measures. Allusion is then made to the numerous railway bills which have been passed; to the conclusion of several commercial, postal, and telegraph conventions; to the adoption of the laws regulating the position of the religious denominations in Austria, by which equal rights are granted to all creeds; to the establishment of civil marriage, and the settlement of the relations between the schools and the Church. His Majesty added: "I trust that these laws will endure as the bases of a peaceful organization between the church and state. The law relating to popular schools will elevate the education of the country to such a degree as must constitute the surest foundations for the welfare of monarchy and the people. I hope that in the next session of the Reichsrath those who still hold aloof from our joint efforts will decide to participate in them. Austria must offer a great home to all her different nationalities, dispensing toward all equal justice and equal good-will." The emperor concluded as follows: "The constitution is the groundwork upon which this object is to be obtained. An understanding among the several races of the empire must certainly be arrived at, because this cannot fail to be the ultimate result, and because Austria alone offers to all her peoples protection, freedom, and the preservation of their independence and peculiar institutions.

In her foreign policy, Austria evidently endeavors to maintain friendly relations to other powers in order to strengthen her inner reforms. The Government has successfully coöperated in averting the threatening Turco-Grecian difference. Mutual marks of sympathy were exchanged between Austria and Italy, and public opinion has been favorable to the *rapprochement* between the two countries. The interests of Austria, and her wish for the preservation of peace, imposed upon

her complete abstinence from interference in the German questions that still remain open. The Premier of Austria, Count von Beust, excited, however, the hostility of the Prussian Government and press by the publication of his Red-book, in consequence of which he explained his views regarding German affairs in two dispatches to Count Wimpiffen, the Austrian Minister at Berlin, in which he says that the hostility on the part of Prussia appears to have been partly caused by the publication of the Red-book. He says that "this publication is a necessity for the Austrian Government, as its foreign policy is not discussed in Parliament, but in the delegations, whose business it is to inquire into the budgets of the War Office and the Foreign Office, and who can only obtain an accurate notion of the relations of Austria with foreign states from the Red-book, which offers them a real and tangible source of information on the subject. As regards the policy of Austria toward Rumania, South Germany, and North Schleswig, the count observes that much has been omitted from the dispatches in the Red-book in order to avoid giving any cause of offence to Prussia, but that Austria cannot reject the sympathy which has been manifested toward her by the South Germans, and that Count von Bismarck himself acknowledged her right to interfere in the North-Schleswig question. The second dispatch relates to the plan of forming a South-German Bund. It is addressed to the Austrian ambassadors at Munich and Stuttgart, and begins by recalling the opinion expressed by Count von Beust on this proposal in November, 1867. He then considered that a Southern Bund would be desirable as a guarantee for the maintenance of peace, and communicated his views on the subject to the Prussian Government as well as to those of Bavaria and Wurtemberg. At the same time, though retaining this opinion, he neither then nor since took any steps to promote the formation of the Bund. "Austria has a legitimate interest in the independence of South Germany, and hence, also, in the maintenance of that independence in a definite and secure form. * * * But for the present we will confine ourselves to urging this important truth on all concerned. We do not wish to have even the appearance of taking an active part in the development of affairs in Germany. We ought to wish for a Southern Bund; perhaps we do wish for it; but we neither can nor will create it, or even help to create it. If it should come into existence, no one shall have the smallest right to describe it as the work of Austrian influences."

The Government presented and carried a bill in the Reichsrath, relative to the landwehr (militia), which is to be under the direct control of the military authorities. The primary-school law was strenuously opposed in the Reichsrath by the Polish and Tyrolese members, who, upon the closing of the debate, submitted a protest against its enactment and quitted the Chamber. The law was passed, and received the Emperor's sanction.

The liberal reforms introduced into the empire continued to encounter a determined opposition from the Catholic and Conservative party. The Bishop of Linz was convicted before a civil court of uttering doctrines subversive of public order, and sentenced to three months' imprisonment. He was, however, immediately pardoned by the Emperor.

A serious revolt broke out, in October, in the province of Dalmatia, the inhabitants of the district of Cattaro resisting the execution of the new military law. The insurgents collected a considerable number of armed men, and had control of several towns, among them Pobosi and Maina, and, strengthened by the mountainous character of the country, kept the Austrian troops at bay for several weeks. A battle lasting four hours took place near Lisio, in which the rebels were totally defeated. From the sympathy with which a number of Russian papers regarded the insurrection, it was inferred that it was not merely an outbreak of discontent with a military law, but that it had a Panslavic tendency, directed against both Turkey and Austria. It was reported that the insurgents received large reënforcements from the inhabitants of Montenegro and the Herzegovina, and that the Prince of Montenegro favored the movement. Numerous arrests were made by the Turkish Government in the provinces bordering upon Dalmatia, and it was claimed that discoveries had been made, showing that the rising was to extend successively to Bosnia, the Herzegovina, Albania, Servia, and Montenegro. The Austrian and Turkish Governments concluded a convention, to mass large bodies of troops on the frontier of the disaffected provinces and resist the spread of the rising by combined action. The Austrian Government received permission from that of Turkey to march its troops through Turkish territory against the Dalmatian insurgents, but the Prince of Montenegro entered a protest against this convention, and was said to be supported by the Government of Prussia.

The new session of the Reichsrath was opened by the Emperor on the 13th of December. In the speech from the throne, the Emperor favored a conciliatory course in dealing with the Dalmatian insurrection, dwelt upon the peaceful appearance of European affairs with satisfaction; and declared that the Austrian empire was in excellent relations with the foreign powers, even on a point which had momentarily caused some trouble. Referring to internal affairs, the Emperor announced that important concessions were to be made to the different nationalities. Modifications of the constitution would be necessary, but must be made in accordance with its spirit. He closed by promising that the autonomy of the provinces would be respected as long as it was compatible with the maintenance of the unity and power of the empire.

B

BACON, JOEL S., D. D., a Baptist clergyman, professor, and college president, born in Cayuga County, N. Y., in 1801; died at Richmond, Va., November 9, 1869. Prior to his entering upon his collegiate course, he was engaged for some time in teaching in Amelia County, Va. In 1826 he graduated with the highest honors, at Hamilton College, Clinton, N. Y., after which he was employed as a classical teacher, at Princeton, N. J. In 1831 he graduated at the Newton Theological Institution, and, about that time, having been elected to the presidency of Georgetown College, Ky., he accepted the position, but resigned it after a period of two years, and subsequently was, for the same length of time, pastor of the Baptist Church, in Lynn, Mass. From 1834 to 1837 he was professor in the institution at Hamilton, N. Y., now Madison University. After his resignation there, he was engaged for a time as agent for Indian missions, his conciliatory course with the Indians rendering important service. In 1843 he became president of Columbian College, Washington, D. C.; which office he held for eleven years, resigning in 1854. In 1845 he received the degree of D. D. from his *alma mater*. After leaving Washington, Dr. Bacon was devoted to teaching in female seminaries. For two years he was at the head of an institution in Tuscaloosa, Ala. In 1859 he became established at Warrenton, Va., where he remained during and after the war, until about two years prior to his death. For some time after leaving Warrenton, he was devoted to the self-sacrificing labor of travelling through the Southern States, as agent of the American and Foreign Bible Society, addressing the colored people on the importance of Sabbath-school education and the study of the Bible.

As a student, Dr. Bacon was possessed of a quick and clear apprehension; acquiring with great readiness valuable information, both from men and books. As a teacher, he had an aptness and fertility of illustration which made him a favorite in the lecture-room. As a preacher, he was earnest and practical. As a man, he was remarkable for urbanity, courtesy, and charity; always taking moderate views in controversy, appreciating the truth partially held by different minds, and never becoming a partisan, or even a leader in new organizations. During the late civil war, he had the entire confidence of the adherents of both sections, whose armies were alternately occupying the town where he resided. Dr. Bacon's versatility of mind caused frequent changes in his public life; but in every position his genial spirit and sprightly conversational powers won him warm friends.

BADEN, a grand-duchy in South Germany. Grand-duke, Friedrich, born September 9, 1826; succeeded his father Leopold, as regent, April 24, 1852; assumed the title of grand-duke September 5, 1856. Area, 5,912 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 1,434,970,* of whom 931,000, or 64.9 per cent. (against 65.1 per cent. in 1864) were Roman Catholics, and 475,918 Protestants.

The town population of the grand-duchy is as follows:

Three towns with more than 20,000 inhabitants, together, with 86,813, 6.1 per cent. of total population.
Three towns with more than 10,000 inhabitants, and less than 20,000, together with 45,470, 3.1 per cent.
Eight towns with more than 5,000 inhabitants, and less than 10,000, together, with 57,819, 4.3 per cent.
Three towns with more than 4,000 inhabitants, and less than 5,000, together, with 13,434, 0.9 per cent.
Nineteen towns with more than 3,000 inhabitants, and less than 4,000, together, with 62,950, 4.4 per cent.
Sixty-nine towns with more than 2,000 inhabitants, and less than 3,000, together, with 162,295, 11.3 per cent.
Total one hundred and five towns with more than 2,000 inhabitants, together with 428,470, 29.0 per cent.

The public debt† on January 1, 1869, amounted to 31,285,201 florins; besides which there was a railroad debt of 107,560,330 florins.

The Grand-duke of Baden, several times in the course of the year 1869, declared his sympathy with the union movement going on in Germany, and his wish to see Baden enter the North-German Confederation. In a letter to the Minister of State, Jolly, he stated the task of his reign to be the development of a free public life on the safe basis of mental culture, and a courageous sympathy with the national regeneration of Germany. He expressed himself with a little more reserve on opening the chambers of the grand-duchy in September. The policy of the Grand-duke found a hearty support from the majority of both Chambers. In the first Chamber, the opposition numbered only six out of thirty-one members; in the second, nine out of sixty-two deputies.

BANKS OF THE UNITED STATES. The banking movement of the year 1869, throughout the United States, has been marked by no important changes, or fluctuations, or reverses. The aggregate banking loans of the three leading Atlantic cities have reached $440,000,000, and, at one period, were $396,000,000—a difference of about 10 per cent. The following tables illustrate fully the banking movements of the United States and Great Britain for a series of years.

* The total population here given is what the official accounts call the "actual" ("faktische") population, while the figure (1,438,873) given in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, is designated as the "Customs Union Enumeration" ("Zollvereinsabrechnungs") population. In the same volume of the CYCLOPÆDIA some fuller statements are given of the ecclesiastical statistics and of the large towns.

† For further financial and military statistics, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

STATEMENT, SHOWING THE NUMBER OF NATIONAL BANKS, Etc., IN EACH STATE AND TERRITORY OF THE UNITED STATES, SEPTEMBER 30, 1869.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	ORGANIZATIONS.			Capital paid in.	Bonds on deposit to secure circulation.	Circulation issued by the United States to the banks.	In actual circulation.
	Organized.	Closed, or closing.	In operation.				
Maine	62	1	61	$9,185,000	$8,438,750	$7,682,256	$7,509,196
New Hampshire	41	.....	41	4,835,000	4,897,000	4,394,895	4,281,195
Vermont	40	.....	40	6,810,012	6,538,500	5,916,800	5,751,720
Massachusetts	209	3	206	85,082,000	65,230,500	60,104,670	57,046,930
Rhode Island	62	.....	62	20,364,800	14,193,600	12,040,850	12,486,900
Connecticut	83	2	81	24,606,820	19,758,100	18,215,115	17,433,978
New York	315	21	294	116,284,941	79,096,900	76,067,510	68,553,175
New Jersey	55	1	54	11,565,350	10,710,450	9,736,245	9,407,115
Pennsylvania	205	8	197	50,235,390	44,353,500	40,769,220	38,748,606
Maryland	32	1	31	12,790,202	10,068,750	9,436,780	8,910,880
Delaware	11	.....	11	1,428,185	1,348,200	1,244,725	1,197,625
District of Columbia	6	2	4	1,350,000	1,337,000	1,339,500	1,099,571
Virginia	20	3	17	2,623,300	2,405,000	2,177,580	2,134,980
West Virginia	15	1	14	2,216,400	2,243,250	2,068,950	1,988,050
Ohio	133	6	132	22,954,700	20,642,150	19,076,260	18,405,385
Indiana	71	3	68	12,902,000	12,554,050	11,391,695	11,017,627
Illinois	84	2	82	12,570,000	11,352,850	10,315,885	9,950,275
Michigan	43	2	41	5,460,010	4,365,100	3,957,555	3,824,755
Wisconsin	37	3	34	2,760,000	2,715,050	2,626,750	2,508,102
Iowa	48	5	43	4,017,000	3,671,750	3,436,135	3,217,077
Minnesota	18	1	17	1,840,900	1,772,200	1,604,100	1,548,900
Kansas	5	.....	5	400,000	382,000	371,400	341,000
Missouri	20	2	18	7,810,300	4,786,350	4,419,170	4,164,525
Kentucky	16	.....	16	2,885,000	2,725,700	2,428,470	2,366,720
Tennessee	14	1	13	2,015,300	1,490,200	1,291,170	1,191,551
Louisiana	3	1	2	1,300,000	1,258,000	1,251,120	1,094,589
Mississippi	2	2	.....	.....	.....	66,000	53,333
Nebraska	4	.....	4	450,000	235,000	171,500	170,000
Colorado	3	.....	3	350,000	297,000	255,700	252,000
Georgia	9	2	7	1,600,000	1,333,500	1,239,900	1,234,100
North Carolina	6	.....	6	823,400	445,100	384,700	379,700
South Carolina	3	.....	3	823,500	277,000	192,500	192,500
Alabama	3	1	2	400,000	310,500	353,025	288,647
Nevada	1	.....	1	250,000	155,000	131,700	129,700
Oregon	1	.....	1	100,000	100,000	88,500	88,500
Texas	4	.....	4	525,000	472,100	429,535	407,535
Arkansas	2	.....	2	200,000	200,000	180,200	178,900
Utah	1	.....	1	150,000	150,000	135,500	135,000
Montana	1	.....	1	100,000	40,000	36,000	36,000
Idaho	1	.....	1	100,000	75,000	68,500	68,500
Total	1,694	74	1,620	$432,163,611	$342,475,100	$317,992,516	$299,789,892

RECAPITULATION OF STATE BANKS IN THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER, 1869.

STATES.	Number of Banks.	Capital.	STATES.	Number of Banks.	Capital.
Alabama	2	$1,000,000	Mississippi	2	$400,000
California	2	5,100,000	Missouri	7	1,710,300
Connecticut	7	1,676,900	New Hampshire	13	985,000
Delaware	5	780,000	New Jersey	6	1,125,000
District of Columbia	1	579,000	New York State	34	5,926,000
Georgia	1	300,000	" City	22	12,379,000
Illinois	9	2,240,000	Ohio	6	1,650,000
Indiana	13	488,000	Pennsylvania	11	2,154,000
Iowa	2	100,000	Rhode Island	16	2,828,000
Kentucky	49	12,914,650	Virginia	3	270,000
Louisiana	11	8,270,290	West Virginia	1	137,000
Maine	7	625,000	Wisconsin	15	475,000
Maryland	8	2,453,000			
Michigan	2	200,000	Total	259	$66,974,000
Minnesota	3	200,000			

The national banks have an aggregate capital of $432,163,611; State banks, $66,974,000; together, 1,879 banks, with a combined capital of $479,137,611.

THE BANKING MOVEMENT AT NEW YORK, BOSTON, AND PHILADELPHIA, 1867, 1868, 1869.

THE BANKS OF NEW YORK IN THE YEAR 1869.

Seventy-three in Number. Capital, $84,961,900.

YEARS.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.	Legal Tenders.	Weekly Clearings.
Jan. 5, 1867.....	$257,852,460	$12,794,892	$32,762,779	$202,583,564	$65,026,121	$466,987,787
July 6, "	264,361,237	10,853,171	33,669,397	191,524,312	71,196,472	494,081,990
Jan. 4, 1868.....	249,741,297	12,724,614	34,134,391	187,070,786	62,111,201	483,266,304
July 3, "	281,945,931	11,954,730	34,032,466	221,050,806	72,124,939	525,646,693
Jan. 4, 1869.....	259,090,057	20,736,122	34,379,609	180,490,445	48,896,421	585,804,799
Feb. 1, "	265,171,109	27,784,923	34,231,156	196,985,465	54,747,569	609,360,296
March 1, "	261,371,897	20,832,603	34,247,981	185,216,175	50,835,054	529,816,021
April 5, "	262,933,675	10,737,889	34,816,916	175,325,789	48,496,309	887,823,693
May 3, "	260,435,160	9,267,635	33,972,058	183,948,565	56,495,722	768,768,349
June 7, "	275,919,609	19,051,133	33,982,995	199,124,042	53,289,429	766,281,026
July 5, "	258,368,471	23,520,267	34,217,973	179,929,467	46,787,263	846,763,300
Aug. 2, "	260,530,225	27,871,933	34,068,677	196,416,443	56,101,627	614,455,487
Sept. 6, "	262,549,839	17,461,722	33,960,035	191,101,086	55,829,782	556,889,275
Oct. 4, "	255,239,649	15,902,849	34,169,409	183,124,508	54,209,088	792,893,774
Nov. 1, "	250,948,833	21,926,046	34,136,249	180,828,882	52,177,881	540,450,647
Dec. 6, "	253,235,996	30,633,539	34,140,468	182,690,140	45,989,274	676,011,384
" 31, "	250,406,387	31,166,908	34,150,887	179,129,394	45,034,608	399,355,375

THE BANKS OF BOSTON IN THE YEAR 1869.

Forty-six in Number. Capital, $47,550,000.

YEARS.	Loans.	Specie.	Legal Tenders.	Deposits.	National.
Aug. 5, 1867.....	$96,367,558	$472,045	$15,111,084	$33,398,850	$24,655,075
Jan. 6, 1868.....	94,969,249	1,466,246	15,543,169	40,856,022	24,626,559
July 6, "	100,110,880	1,617,638	15,107,307	43,458,654	25,214,190
Jan. 4, 1869.....	98,428,644	2,203,401	12,938,332	37,538,767	25,151,340
Feb. 1, "	103,696,858	2,161,284	12,964,225	40,228,462	25,312,947
March 1, "	101,309,589	1,237,936	11,200,149	35,689,466	25,301,537
April 5, "	96,969,714	862,276	11,248,884	33,504,099	24,671,716
May 3, "	100,127,443	708,963	12,352,113	36,735,742	25,330,060
June 7, "	103,643,849	640,582	13,454,661	38,491,446	25,292,157
July 12, "	102,633,048	3,140,676	9,595,668	34,851,745	25,335,701
Aug. 2, "	102,528,844	2,577,588	10,574,694	35,797,308	25,230,893
Sept. 6, "	103,904,545	1,715,563	11,792,519	37,041,045	25,202,271
Oct. 4, "	105,289,208	652,197	12,767,004	36,880,894	25,321,464
Nov. 1, "	103,410,990	1,368,721	11,711,185	35,310,364	25,321,519
Dec. 6, "	103,953,810	1,990,720	11,679,107	37,342,225	25,355,364

THE BANKS OF PHILADELPHIA IN THE YEAR 1869.

Thirty in Number. Capital, $16,155,150.

YEARS.	Legal Tenders.	Loans.	Specie.	Circulation.	Deposits.
Aug. 3, 1867.....	$16,733,198	$53,427,840	$302,055	$10,635,925	$38,094,543
Jan. 4, 1868.....	16,782,432	52,009,304	235,912	10,639,000	36,621,274
July 6, "	16,443,153	53,653,471	233,996	10,625,426	44,824,398
Jan. 4, 1869.....	13,210,397	50,716,999	352,483	10,593,719	38,121,023
Feb. 1, "	14,296,570	52,632,813	302,782	10,593,351	39,677,943
March 1, "	13,010,508	52,251,351	256,933	10,458,546	37,735,205
April 5, "	12,169,221	50,499,865	189,003	10,622,896	35,395,854
May 3, "	14,290,371	51,510,982	201,758	10,617,315	38,971,281
June 7, "	15,378,388	52,826,357	169,316	10,619,898	42,390,330
July 5, "	14,031,449	53,937,521	303,621	10,618,846	41,321,537
Aug. 2, "	13,618,911	51,953,853	384,869	10,610,233	39,717,126
Sept. 6, "	13,073,705	51,931,372	247,358	10,611,673	39,212,588
Oct. 4, "	13,335,858	52,105,010	177,303	10,598,934	38,485,284
Nov. 1, "	13,104,244	51,532,214	354,845	10,597,978	37,965,411
Dec. 6, "	12,991,489	51,968,040	932,468	10,603,252	38,878,533

THE BANK OF ENGLAND FOR FIFTEEN YEARS.

Circulation, Deposits, Loans, and Bullion, at the close of each Year, 1854–1868.

YEARS.	LIABILITIES.			ASSETS.		
	Notes in Circulation.	Deposits.	Total.	Securities.	Bullion.	Total.
1854.....	£21,008,000	£14,758,000	£35,761,000	£25,336,000	£13,619,000	£38,947,000
1855.....	20,430,000	16,257,000	36,687,000	28,630,000	11,301,000	39,921,000
1856.....	20,728,000	15,601,000	36,329,000	29,484,000	10,105,000	39,589,000
1857.....	21,070,000	19,296,000	40,366,000	35,025,000	8,788,000	43,813,000
1858.....	21,435,000	20,490,000	41,925,000	36,098,000	18,985,000	45,083,000
1859.....	22,418,000	21,516,000	43,929,000	30,117,000	17,002,000	47,119,000
1860.....	21,482,000	18,750,000	40,232,000	29,433,000	14,009,000	43,442,000
1861.....	21,180,000	18,124,000	39,304,000	27,998,000	14,653,000	42,646,000
1862.....	21,129,000	21,985,000	43,114,000	30,961,000	15,351,000	46,312,000
1863.....	21,730,000	20,805,000	42,535,000	31,777,000	13,934,000	45,711,000
1864.....	20,771,000	19,070,000	39,841,000	29,570,000	13,636,000	43,206,000
1865.....	21,819,000	18,365,000	40,184,000	30,613,000	13,601,000	44,214,000
1866.....	23,728,000	22,740,000	46,468,000	33,110,000	17,478,000	50,588,000
1867.....	24,706,000	23,850,000	48,556,000	29,960,000	22,561,000	52,521,000
1868.....	24,336,000	22,409,000	46,745,000	33,935,000	18,981,000	52,916,000

THE BANK-NOTE CIRCULATION OF THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Average aggregate amount of Notes payable to Bearer on Demand, in circulation in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, at the close of each Year, 1854–1868.

YEARS.	ENGLAND AND WALES.				SCOTLAND.	IRELAND.		TOTAL FOR UNITED KINGDOM.
	Bank of England.	Country Banks.			Chartered, Private, and Joint Stock Banks.	Bank of Ireland.	Private and Joint Stock Banks.	
		Private Banks.	Joint Stock Banks.	Total.				
1854.....	£20,298,000	£3,848,896	£3,072,727	£6,921,623	£4,316,095	£3,260,275	£3,462,374	£38,258,367
1855.....	19,554,000	3,842,755	3,058,159	6,900,914	4,400,763	3,424,025	3,619,254	37,898,956
1856.....	19,808,000	3,696,543	3,044,845	6,741,388	4,349,388	3,529,600	3,777,703	38,206,074
1857.....	21,398,000	3,200,715	2,602,810	5,803,525	4,305,251	3,302,500	2,773,223	37,581,999
1858.....	20,910,000	3,327,369	2,877,253	6,204,622	4,355,438	3,309,750	3,447,189	38,226,949
1859.....	21,896,000	3,480,734	3,017,551	6,498,285	4,591,058	3,569,350	3,824,441	40,379,134
1860.....	20,812,000	3,338,891	2,974,096	6,312,987	4,688,839	3,212,295	3,835,375	38,861,426
1861.....	20,789,000	3,354,244	2,908,986	6,263,180	4,647,725	2,873,275	3,533,974	38,107,154
1862.....	20,607,000	3,205,026	2,875,211	6,080,237	4,572,937	2,570,525	3,272,243	37,102,942
1863.....	21,355,000	3,220,086	2,899,560	6,119,696	4,639,664	2,538,500	3,411,753	38,054,513
1864.....	20,330,000	3,058,981	2,754,068	5,812,999	4,626,796	2,491,000	3,381,706	36,642,501
1865.....	21,294,000	2,977,264	2,789,654	5,766,918	4,903,980	2,744,950	3,946,290	38,656,138
1866.....	23,404,000	2,766,878	2,334,127	5,101,005	4,967,168	2,648,175	3,803,855	39,924,203
1867.....	24,447,000	2,854,611	2,332,414	5,187,025	5,055,794	2,713,400	3,702,901	41,106,120
1868.....	24,128,000	2,792,450	2,305,524	5,097,974	5,139,060	2,997,975	4,057,658	41,420,667

THE BANK OF FRANCE IN 1867, 1868, AND 1869.

Comparative condition of the Bank of France, in January, 1867, 1868, *and November*, 1869.

LIABILITIES.	Jan. 2, 1867.	Jan. 2, 1868.	Jan. 2, 1869.	Nov. 25, 1869.
Capital of the Bank	182,500,000	182,500,000	182,500,000	182,500,000
Profits in addition to capital	7,044,776	7,044,776	7,044,776	7,044,776
Reserve of the Bank	22,105,750	22,105,750	22,105,750	22,105,750
New reserve	4,000,000	4,000,000	4,000,000	4,000,000
Notes in circulation	1,016,558,625	1,196,653,475	1,371,732,250	1,362,207,800
Drafts outstanding	16,578,406	38,618,884	33,737,418	48,715,100
Treasury account	185,083,313	98,153,963	154,893,198	241,426,479
Accounts current	240,089,390	360,967,433	270,906,510	314,063,991
" " in the provinces	39,844,905	47,000,645	45,016,198	46,226,102
Dividends payable	12,398,251	9,513,968	6,411,114	918,241
Various discounts	1,088,087	786,196	1,228,865	8,018,542
Re-discounts	1,574,256	980,377	933,791	991,661
Sundries	11,919,127	7,140,855	19,455,844	9,707,959
Total liabilities, francs	1,740,684,765	1,955,485,621	2,119,475,209	2,247,986,401
RESOURCES.	**Jan., 1867.**	**Jan., 1868.**	**Jan., 1869.**	**Nov., 1869.**
Coin and bullion	675,053,965	983,082,945	1,080,232,773	1,234,840,626
Commercial bills overdue	527,209	4,686,373	222,948	180,858
" " " in Paris	336,902,178	279,334,908	326,675,237	319,822,421
" " " in the branches	368,338,363	272,209,465	301,365,105	295,998,399
Advances on bullion	33,943,300	57,084,000	40,326,100	18,815,100
" " " in the provinces	8,224,400	11,511,577	4,088,100	2,581,380
" " public securities	14,125,400	12,477,600	13,251,900	19,058,300
" " " in the provinces	7,828,700	28,084,250	6,873,700	8,965,600
" " railway shares, &c.	37,606,200	37,234,800	37,156,400	39,968,700
" " " in the provinces	26,084,900	7,722,800	28,920,700	33,063,150
" " the Credit Foncier	742,600	990,300	962,200	1,097,600
" " " in the provinces	613,050	942,450	883,700	1,266,600
" " " to the State	60,000,000	60,000,000	60,000,000	60,000,000
Government stock	12,980,750	12,980,750	12,980,750	12,980,750
Other securities	36,065,237	35,988,737	80,638,437	80,595,187
Securities held	100,000,000	100,000,000	100,000,000	100,000,000
Bank buildings	8,304,097	8,274,805	8,956,249	9,187,784
Expenses	5,510	43,934	7,221	2,123,069
Sundries	13,408,107	42,856,627	15,418,599	7,490,877
Total resources, francs	1,740,684,765	1,955,485,621	2,119,475,209	2,247,986,401

BAPTISTS. I. REGULAR BAPTISTS IN AMERICA.—The following are the statistics of the Regular Baptists in the United States, as given in the *American Baptist Year Book*, for 1869:

STATES.	Associations.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.
Alabama	30	572	390	54,773
Arkansas	23	424	219	15,160
California	2	42	32	2,326
Colorado	..	5	...	180
Connecticut	7	112	98	18,934
Delaware	..	5	8	.....
District of Columbia	..	16	26	.....
Florida	5	106	63	5,131
Georgia	43	1,193	658	92,287
Idaho	..	.....	1	.....
Illinois	41	86c	732	58,536
Indiana	31	505	348	32,664
Indian Territory	..	9	...	.....
Iowa	17	303	234	17,395
Kansas	4	66	31	2,536
Kentucky	39	1,000	500	100,000
Louisiana	12	256	36	16,785
Maine	13	260	182	19,833
Maryland	1	39	36	5,134
Massachusetts	14	264	303	39,457
Michigan	14	264	211	17,062
Minnesota	7	114	61	3,040
Mississippi	24	73	40	44,042
Missouri	43	100	600	39,195
Nebraska	2	19	9	697
New Hampshire	7	85	90	7,815
New Jersey	5	100	155	23,599
New York	46	820	708	96,703
North Carolina	44	393	162	67,904
Ohio	32	512	364	37,522
Oregon	4	40	35	1,580
Pennsylvania	18	448	335	50,497
Rhode Island	3	59	64	9,248
South Carolina	20	488	223	51,343
Tennessee	24	669	343	50,563
Texas	27	550	306	22,590
Vermont	7	111	104	8,433
Virginia	22	690	396	87,244
West Virginia	8	249	116	14,692
Wisconsin	12	171	120	9,989
Total in the U. States.	651	12,011	8,695	1,121,988

The number of baptisms during the year was reported as 60,787.

Some of these returns, especially those from the South, are pronounced very imperfect, through failure of clerks and others, upon whom compilers are dependent, to make full returns. The table is therefore unsafe for purposes of comparison, and places the gains of the denomination very much below what they really are.

Thirty-five periodicals are enumerated in the *American Baptist Year Book*, as published in the United States, of which twenty-one are weekly, twelve monthly, and two quarterly. Two of these are published in the German, and one in the Welsh language. Four weekly periodicals are published in the British Provinces. There are twenty-five Baptist colleges in the United States, and one in Nova Scotia. The number of theological seminaries and theological departments is fourteen.

The anniversaries of the (Northern) Baptist Societies were held in May, in Boston. The fifty-fifth anniversary of the *American Baptist Missionary Union* occurred on May 18th. A summary of this report shows that the whole number of the missions is 18, the increase being one in the African mission during the year. In the Asiatic mission there are 19 stations where American missionaries reside, 328 outstations, and 315 churches, having an aggregate of 15,974 members, and the baptisms during the year were 1,295. The whole number of Americans connected with this mission, including those under appointment, is 101, of whom 47 are males and 54 are females. The native teachers, preachers, and colporteurs, number 423, of whom 74 are ordained. Taking those churches in Burmah not immediately under its supervision, the Union has 427 out-stations, 414 churches, with a membership of 20,193, and 1,528 baptisms during the year. The native helpers number 512, of whom 80 are ordained. The tables from France and Sweden represent 301 churches, with 24,388 members, 300 preachers and colporteurs, and 678 baptisms during the year. Combining the missions in Europe and Asia, there are 715 churches, with 44,581 members, and there have been during the year 2,207 baptisms. The report of the Secretary of the Home Department showed that the total receipts for the year were $196,897. The total expenditures, including the debt of the year previous, were $210,273, leaving a balance of $13,376 against the treasury on the 1st of April last. The amount received from donations was $168,363, an increase of $11,317 over the year previous; and the legacies of the year were $17,986, against $6,406 the year before. The following amounts were received from foreign mission fields: Assam, $838; Burmah, $25; Madras, $20; China, $866; France, $457; Germany, $187. The treasurer's report further showed that the invested funds of the Union amount to $56,303, and that, of the $180,137 expended, all was for foreign missions except $573 for the Cherokees, $3,712 for publications, $15,412 for agents, and $12,575 for rent, salaries, and other office expenses. The anniversary of the *American Baptist Publication Society* was held May 20th. The receipts amounted to $272,160.63. Of this sum $227,083.88 were received in the business, and $45,076.75 in the missionary department. The increase over last year in the business is $35,973.31. The increase in the missionary work is $1,774.69. The total gain of the two departments over the receipts of the previous year is $37,748. Branch houses have been opened in New York, St. Louis, and Chicago. Sixty-five colporteurs and Sunday-school missionaries have been at work. Number of days of service, 12,991; miles travelled, 195,618; volumes sold, 50,859; volumes given away, 9,521; pages of tracts distributed, 514,170; sermons preached, 5,160; prayer-meetings held, 3,548; persons baptized, 980; families

visited, 32,948; families found without the Bible, 1,730; families supplied with the Bible, 2,188; Sunday-schools organized, 250; churches constituted, 48; visits on vessels, 3,371; Bibles given to seamen, 48. The number of copies of new publications issued during the year has been 161,500; new editions of old publications, 451,000; tracts, 820,000 copies; *Young Reaper*, 3,075,940 copies; total pages, 222,845,020, an excess of more than 40,000,000 over last year. Gratuitously distributed by missionaries, etc., 9,521 books, and 514,170 pages of tracts. Forty-seven white and twenty-eight colored preachers have been provided with small libraries, and 250 students and others have been supplied with one or two books each. Money value of such grants, $12,566. The society accepted the basis of union with the Bible Society unanimously. The thirty-seventh anniversary business meeting of the *American and Foreign Bible Society* was held May 20th. The receipts for the year were reported at $30,186.46; expenditures, $29,629.82; balance, $556.64. From the beginning, the gross receipts have been, from all sources, $1,106,580.92, and the society has put into circulation 2,230,583 volumes of Scripture at home and abroad. The report, in favor of union with the American Baptist Publication Society, was adopted. It transfers the entire Bible work to the Publication Society; the name of the joint organization to be selected after union. The consummation of the union is dependent upon action of the New York Legislature to amend the charter of the Bible Society. Subsequently, there was a joint meeting of the two societies, in commemoration of the anticipated completion of the union. The thirty-seventh anniversary of the *American Baptist Home Mission Society* was held in Boston, May 29th. The report of the Executive Board showed that, six years ago, less than $36,000 constituted the total annual receipts of the society, while during the past year more than $144,000 has been paid into the treasury. The number of missionaries then employed was 96, now there are 276. The embarrassing debt that hung over the society two years ago has been liquidated. Thirty-two States and Territories are represented in the contributions to the funds this year. One-third of the missionary force is employed in the South. Secular education has been prosecuted there to the extent of specific contributions for that purpose, and the preparation of colored preachers has been carried on with energy. The Indian missions are recovering from the hindrances of the late war, and the work among the foreigners in the West has been vigorously carried on with good results. The church edifice fund has been increased $30,000 by the will of the late Tracy H. Harris. There are demands for increased effort in the Northwest, along the line of the Pacific Railway, on the Pacific coast, among the Southern freedmen, and in the Republic of Mexico, and the Board is profoundly impressed with the importance that every lawful and possible agency should be employed to draw forth larger offerings.

The anniversary of the *American Baptist Free Mission Society* was held in Richmond, Va., in May. The cash receipts were reported at $17,222.54, and the expenses at $16,603.88. Twenty-four missionaries have been employed in the home work; eleven in Virginia and the District of Columbia; the rest in the Gulf States. Of the foreign missions, the number of members in the Bassein mission is stated at 5,883, or more than one-fourth of all the Christians in Burmah; and of those in the independent Vintore and Luther's mission, at 2,416, with over one thousand pupils under instruction. The former mission contributes nearly 9,000 rupees annually, and the latter over that sum. The ministers of the Japanese mission are engaged in translating and printing the Bible in Japanese. The society decided in favor of coöperation with the Consolidated Convention and Home Mission Society.

The anniversary of the *National Theological Institute* was held on the 20th of May. The report showed that 90 students were obtaining an education at the Washington school, thirty of whom were in the theological department. The Richmond school has 195 pupils, with two Latin and two Greek classes. These, with the schools at St. Helena, S. C., and Augusta, Ga., are in a thriving condition. Special instruction has been given by Rev. Dr. Parker to 588 colored teachers and preachers in several places. The receipts were reported at $14,615. A resolution was adopted concurring in the unification of the work under the direction and control of the Baptist Home Missionary Society, and recommending that the institute at Washington, D. C., be adopted and sustained by the society.

The *Southern Baptist Convention* met at Macon, Georgia, on the 6th of May. The condition of the colored people was a prominent subject of consideration. The mind and intention of the convention were expressed by the adoption of resolutions recognizing the high and sacred duty of giving a pure gospel and enlightened ministry to the colored population, and recommending district and State associations to pay especial attention to their religious instruction and spiritual interests. The Domestic Mission Board is prosecuting its work among them, as well as in the German and Indian missions, with all the energy in its power, but suffers from the lack of money. Similar reports were made from the Sunday-school Board and other agencies of the Church. A favorable report was given of the conferences with the American Baptist Home Missionary Society. The foreign missions were represented in a progressive condition. An interesting feature of the sessions of the convention was the presence of Mr. Broadus, as a delegate of the North Street Baptist Church

of Tung Chan, China, who read a letter which was written by a native deacon and clerk, without aid or suggestion from the missionary. The theological seminary was represented as in improved condition and prospects, having had during the year forty-six students—the highest number in any Baptist seminary on the continent. The means of obtaining more funds and a greater number of laborers to carry out the enterprises of the Church received a prominent share of attention.

The number of Regular Baptists in the British Provinces of America is as follows:

PROVINCES.	Associations.	Churches.	Ministers.	Members.
Nova Scotia	3	159	87	17,163
New Brunswick	2	66	69	9,472
Ontario and Quebec	10	284	216	14,836
West Indies	....	.....	.....	22,000
Total	15	509	372	63,501

The number of baptisms in the British Provinces was 2,435.

II. FREE-WILL BAPTISTS.—The following are the statistics of this denomination as given in the *Free-Will Baptist Register* for 1870:

YEARLY MEETINGS.	No. of Quarterly Meetings.	No. of Churches.	No. of Ordained Preachers.	No. of Communicants.
New Hampshire	9	135	130	9,338
Maine Western	4	70	58	4,377
Maine Central	5	100	95	6,188
Penobscot	10	114	76	3,986
Vermont	6	62	49	2,864
Rhode Island & Massachusetts	3	45	45	5,263
Holland Purchase	5	41	39	1,968
Genesee	5	31	22	1,517
Susquehanna	5	40	28	1,426
New York and Pennsylvania	4	44	28	1,078
Central New York	5	43	36	19.88
St. Lawrence	2	14	16	661
Union	3	12	13	580
Ohio and Pennsylvania	4	34	23	1,484
Pennsylvania	5	21	14	1,195
Ohio Northern	4	15	12	549
Ohio	2	8	10	700
Ohio River	5	47	29	2,598
Marion, Ohio	3	18	11	880
Indiana	2	10	3	302
Michigan	11	102	91	3,781
St. Joseph's Valley	4	20	19	688
Illinois	8	66	52	2,694
Wisconsin	8	67	63	2,607
Iowa	3	23	19	1,085
Iowa Northern	5	33	30	1,126
Canada West	3	17	13	646
Minnesota	4	23	19	674
Kansas	2	7	4	173
Minnesota Southern	1	13	7	304
Liberty Association	..	27	20	1,798
Ohio Association	..	16	..	646
Quarterly Meetings not connected	6	30	33	897
Churches not connected	..	4	4	54
Total, 33 Yearly Meetings	150	1,375	1,141	66,691

The number of "licensed" preachers is 133. The increase is 97 churches, 26 ministers, and 5,447 members.

The literary institutions of the Free-Will Baptists are Bates College, at Lewistown, Me.; Hillsdale College, at Hillsdale, Mich.; West Virginia College, at Flemington, W. Va., and Ridgeville College, at Ridgeville, Ind. There are thirteen seminaries, academies, etc., and a Society for the Promotion of Education in the South.

III. OTHER BAPTIST DENOMINATIONS IN AMERICA.—The fifty-fifth session of the *Seventh-day Baptist General Conference* met in Shiloh, Cumberland County, N. C., on the 29th of September. The new constitution, proposed at the previous General Conference, was declared not adopted, two-thirds of the churches not having voted in favor of it. The vote was 28 for it, 18 against it, 8 not voting. The reports exhibited a condition of solid growth, both in the churches and in the Sunday-schools. A communication of a fraternal character was received from the Second Adventists, and responded to in a like spirit, though with a qualification against committing the Conference to the importance in which the doctrine of the immediate second coming of Christ is held by that denomination.

The twenty-seventh anniversary of the Seventh-day Baptist Missionary Society was held during the session of the General Conference. It has missions in the home field, and at Shanghae, China. It has a special fund of six thousand dollars, of which the annual interest is applied to current expenses, and the principal is reserved for a "future emergency," like the reënforcement of the China mission, or the establishment of some other mission.

The Seventh-day Baptists have 75 churches in the United States, with a total membership of 7,129. The oldest church is that at Newport, R. I., founded in 1671. They have a flourishing university at Alfred, N. Y.

The number of *Mennonite* churches in the United States is said to be about 400, with 250 ministers and a membership of about 60,000. This estimate does not include the Mennonites of Canada, where the denomination is quite numerous. The estimate of ministers is no doubt far below the actual number, as there are few churches that are not supplied with at least one minister, and a large number of churches have more.

The Menonnites publish an English paper at Elkhart, Ind., and two German at the same place, and at Milford Square, Pa.; two Mennonnite almanacs, one in the English and one in the German language, are published likewise at Elkhart.

IV. BAPTISTS IN GREAT BRITAIN.—The Baptists in England have been classified into four divisions on the question of communion. The union churches are composed of Baptists and Pedo-Baptists. They employ a Baptist pastor when the Baptists are in the majority, and *vice versa*. Another class are the Open-membership Baptist Churches, in which persons are admitted to membership on a simple basis of personal piety, and are afterward baptized if

they wish to be. Of this class are such churches as those of Dr. Landells, Dr. Brock, Baptiste Noel, Stowell Brown, etc. The third class are open communion, with restricted membership. Thus, Mr. Spurgeon holds that adult immersion is the indispensable requisite for church membership, but that all Christian believers may be invited to the communion. A fourth class are the regular strict-communion Baptists, who exclude the unimmersed both from the Lord's table and from membership. Dr. Stork is a representative minister of this class.

The *Baptist Manual* for 1869 reported the statistics of the Baptists in Great Britain as follows:

COUNTRIES.	Number of Churches.	Number of Chapels.	Members.	Sunday-school Scholars.
England	1,840	2,088	168,385	219,565
Wales, etc.	475	527	55,013	43,763
Scotland	100	108	6,855	3,146
Ireland	33	34	1,354	922
Total, Great Britain and Ireland,	2,447	2,707	231,506	267,396

Increase of membership in reporting churches, 9,972.

BATES, EDWARD, LL. D., an eminent statesman and jurist, born in Goochland County, Va., September 4, 1793; died at St. Louis, Mo., March 25, 1869. He descended from a family of "Friends" of some distinction, who had lost their position in that connection, by reason of their having borne arms in the Revolutionary War, and was educated under the supervision of Benjamin Bates, a relative of cultivated literary tastes. While still young, he served in the Virginia militia, at Norfolk, for six months. His elder brother, Frederick Bates, having been appointed Secretary of the new Territory of Missouri, Edward emigrated thither, and under his auspices soon entered upon the practice of the law. As early as 1816 he was appointed Prosecuting Attorney for the St. Louis Circuit, and in 1820 had so gained the confidence of the community as to be elected a delegate to the State Constitutional Convention. Toward the close of the same year, he was appointed Attorney-General of the new State of Missouri, which office he held for two years. In 1822 he was elected to the lower branch of the State Legislature, but in 1824 he abandoned this to accept the appointment, tendered him by President Monroe, of State Attorney for the Missouri District. Active political life still enticed him, and in 1826, while yet quite a young man, he was elected a representative in Congress, serving but one term. Soon afterward he was returned to the State Senate of Missouri. The condition of his private fortune now compelled him definitely to abandon all idea of a further active political career, and, with occasional exceptions in the way of services in the State Legislature, he devoted himself for the next twenty-five or thirty years almost exclusively to the practice of his profession. In 1847 Mr. Bates was sent as a delegate to the Convention for Internal Improvement, held in Chicago, and here made a favorable impression upon the country at large. In 1850 Mr. Fillmore offered him the position of Secretary of War, which he declined. Three years later he accepted the office of Judge of the St. Louis Land Court. In 1856 he presided over the Whig Convention held in Baltimore, and four years later became a prominent candidate for the presidency. Up to this period Mr. Bates had been known solely as a Whig, having been in full sympathy with the most important movements of that party; but, when the question of the repeal of the Missouri Compromise was agitated, he earnestly opposed it; and thus, although his habits of mind and tastes were eminently conservative, he became identified with the "Free-Labor" party in Missouri, and was reckoned by them an ally, not only in measures of State policy, but also in hostility to the admission of Kansas under the Lecompton Constitution. With the growth of antislavery principles in Missouri, he gradually became more prominent as one of the men who were valued for the high personal character they brought to the movement, till, in 1859, when men began to cast about them for a Western candidate for the presidency, to be selected by the Republican party, Mr. Bates's name was prominently mentioned. For a time it seemed probable, or at least possible, that the opposition to Governor Seward might concentrate upon him. The State of Missouri warmly supported him, and his prospects were at one time thought to be excellent. When, however, the convention assembled at Chicago had cast several ballots, and it was apparent that Mr. Lincoln was the favorite Republican candidate, Mr. Bates's name was withdrawn by his friends. When Mr. Lincoln, after his election, decided upon selecting the leading men of the Republican party, including those who had been his principal competitors, for his Cabinet, the eminent reputation of Mr. Bates as a lawyer induced his assignment to the office of Attorney-General. In the Cabinet he played a dignified, safe, and faithful, but not conspicuous part. In 1864 he resigned his position, and returned to the quiet of a retired domestic life at his home in St. Louis. From this time he never again entered into active politics.

BAVARIA, a kingdom in South Germany. King, Ludwig II., born August 25, 1815; succeeded his father, Maximilian II., on March 10, 1864. Prime minister (since January 1, 1867), Prince Clovis von Hohenlohe-Schillingsfürst. Bavaria has an area of 29,373 square miles, and, according to the census of 1867, a population of 4,824,421,* of whom 3,441,029 were Roman Catholics; 1,325,446 Protestants; 49,840 Jews; 3,267 Reformed; 143 Greeks; and

* For the population of each of the eight provinces in 1867, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, for 1868; also for a statement of the army.

4,696 Mennonites, Baptists, and German Catholics. The population of the principal towns of the kingdom, in 1867, was as follows:

Munich	170,688	Landshut	14,554
Nuremberg	77,895	Hof	14,397
Augsburg	50,067	Passau	13,883
Wurzburg	42,185	Anspach	13,018
Ratisbon	30,357	Amberg	12,312
Bamberg	25,972	Erlangen	11,546
Furth	22,496	Straubing	11,419
Baireuth	19,464	Landau	11,081
Ingolstadt	17,684	Kempten	10,998
Kaiserslautern	15,289	Aschaffenburg	10,288
Spires	14,806	Germersheim	10,181

The public debt, in November, 1868, amounted to 168,197,384 florins. The annual revenue and expenditures during the ninth financial period (1868 and 1869) is estimated at 87,144,606 florins.

A new election of the Second Chamber took place on May 12th. Three parties were in the field, the "Fortschrittspartei" (party of progress), which in the German question sympathized with the National Liberals in Northern Germany, and desired the speedy entrance of Bavaria into the North-German Confederation; the "Mittelpartei" (middle party), which supported the ministry, and advocated intimate alliance, but no political union with Northern Germany; and the "Patriotische Partei" (patriotic party), which made the entire independence of Bavaria its prominent principle and fused with the Catholic party. The election resulted in giving about one-half of the new deputies to the patriotic party, most of the other half to the party of progress, and only a small number to the middle party. On the meeting of the Second Chamber, the two latter parties united in voting for the same candidate for president of the Chamber, when it was found that each candidate received 71 votes. As it was found impossible to arrive at a compromise and thus at an election, the Government dissolved the Chamber and ordered a new election, which took place in November. Though the Government had so changed the electoral districts as to improve the chances of the liberal candidates, the result was a victory of the patriotic party. Prince Hohenlohe, therefore, tendered to the King his resignation, which, however, was not accepted.

BEERIZING PROCESS, The. This recently-patented process consists simply in treating wood with a boiling solution of borax in water, which easily and effectually removes the sap, or all perishable substances, without injuriously affecting the woody fibre; that, on the contrary, becomes harder, impenetrable by and impregnable to water, vermin-proof, indifferent to the moisture or dryness of the atmosphere, and almost incombustible.

No wood is fit to be used for building, or in the arts and trades, in the green state in which it is felled. The tissues, being then distended with sap, contract when the water in the sap evaporates; and, if green wood is placed in a confined situation, the sap rapidly decomposes, and induces the decomposition of the wood. All wood, therefore, has to undergo some process—commonly called "seasoning"—before it can be worked up. The ordinary process of seasoning consists in exposing the green lumber to the action of the air, "*to dry the sap out.*" Its well-known deficiencies are slow and imperfect drying, and considerable loss on shaky, split, and warped lumber.

An excellent way of seasoning wood, which was extensively used in former ages, when lumber was cheap and time no object, consisted in washing the sap out of the wood before it was dried, by placing it, while green, under running water. For the French, and partly for the English Navy, the timber is so prepared. But the slow penetration of wood by water renders this method impracticable and too expensive for general use.

Steaming of wood is another variation, tried and still used, to remove sap by mere action of water. But, while cold water dissolves sap, hot water or steam does not. It coagulates albumen, fills up the pores, and impedes the removal of the sap from inside. The uneven action renders lumber very shaky, and naturally the more so the thicker it is. Still more destructive to the fibre is the fermentation which takes place by steaming, which, being uncontrollable, varies in effect, sometimes honeycombing the lumber, and sometimes sinking it in with concaved outsides. The loss on damaged lumber by steaming varies, but is very considerable.

The method of Beerizing is as follows: In square tanks 12 feet long × 6½ high, and 7 wide, or of other suitable size, with pierced steam-pipes running along the inner side of the bottom, 18 to 20 inches apart from each other, are the boards to be prepared, put close to each other without intermediate space; the wood is then fastened on top to prevent it from floating thereafter, but a space of one or two inches is left to its expansion.

A solution of borax in water, containing about ten pounds of borax to each one thousand feet of lumber to be treated, is then admitted till covering the wood, and the whole heated to boiling. The boiling is continued for about four hours and then the whole left to cool, boiled again for about two hours and the liquid then removed and clean water substituted, in which the lumber is boiled for about two hours. This washing in water may be repeated, according to the quality of lumber and its exposure. If for mere *seasoning* dark lumber, no washing is needed, while white lumber must be repeatedly washed till the water remains nearly colorless thereby, if its light color is desirable.

For *preserving* wood, the operation with the borax solution may be repeated after the first or second washing; and even the washing in water may be repeated, according to the exposure and quality of the lumber. The borax used in this process is not crystallized, but pre-

pared in solution, by adding cautiously, to a boiling solution of one hundred and twenty pounds of sal-soda, one hundred pounds of Italian boracic acid. When the lumber is taken out it is placed in a drying-room, heated by a current of hot air, at from 100° to 180° Fahr. The dissolved sap may be precipitated by alum or otherwise, and the clear liquid treated with a small quantity of lime or soda, or both, and the precipitate may be used as a color or for manure, etc., while the liquid may be used over again, with some additional borax.

Experience and science agree that the most impeding deficiencies to the purity, strength, and lasting durability of wood result from the sap, which remains therein, after the trees have been felled. The sap, being destined by Nature to absorb and retain a sufficient quantity of water for the subsistence of the living tree and to provide all parts of the plant with the proper nourishment, is fully endowed with properties beneficent thereto. Consisting mainly of albuminous substances dissolved in water, it is extremely deliquescent and very prone to spontaneous decomposition. Its quantity in green wood amounts to over fifty per cent. in weight.

The borax acts as a solvent in the most neutral and indifferent manner, neither decomposing itself, nor the wood, nor the soluble matter, which it keeps dissolved, like sugar in water, and can, therefore, always be reworked and used over and over again without any material loss.

Spruce-wood cut for sounding-boards was carefully seasoned, first in the air and then in the heated dry-room of one of our first piano-manufactories, and considered well dried. It was then Beerized, when it was found to have still shrunk more than one inch on every foot in width across the grains and very perceptibly lengthwise. The increased density was easily observed with the naked eye, the knife proved increased hardness, and other trials showed increased strength.

We know that the sap substances, which unprepared wood contains, are of a deliquescent nature, and that timber, therefore, never can be perfectly dried or kept in that condition by mere exposure to action of the air. Scientific researches prove that beams and other timber, after having been kept in a dry place for a century, retain still from twenty to twenty-five per cent. of water, and that wood, when rendered perfectly dry by the aid of heat, re-absorbs a certain quantity of water, when again exposed at common temperature to the atmosphere in its ordinary state of humidity.

The whole quantity of invisible sap-liquid present in apparently dry wood can, therefore, be not less than twenty-five per cent., which acts upon the wooden substance in the same manner as a deliquescent liquid affects paper, that is to say, it expands the wood considerably and diminishes its cohesion, tenacity, and strength.

We have not here the space to enumerate the various advantages consequent to the improved quality wood experiences by its purity, perfect dryness, and complete protection from decay. The chemist will, hereafter, be relieved from many very tedious and still defective operations, he has had thus far to resort to, in getting the wooden substance chemically pure and freed from its soluble portion.

The skilful mechanic will use such prepared wood with admirable success for clock pendules and a thousand other purposes, where the deficiencies of the common wood fail to answer. Other properties of the prepared wood, which may be more generally useful, are the perfect dryness which enables it, in spite of its increased compactness, to readily and thoroughly absorb any oily, resinous, or like matter, with which it may be easily saturated to form a durable, water-tight material. This circumstance, in connection with the absence of all albuminous or putrescible matter, makes such wood highly adaptable to street-pavements. By merely varnishing the prepared wood, the durability and brilliancy of the surface are greatly increased.

In cases where dry wood is objectionable and a surplus quantity of water in the wood is necessary in order to obtain constant pliability, as, for instance, in manufacturing wood-hangings, any deliquescent matter, such as glycerine, chloride of calcium, etc., has to be added to the last water used in the process to extract the borax absorbed by the wood.

In such cases the Beerizing is necessary to protect the wood from decay.

The sound of Beerized wood is materially improved by its purity and compactness, and still more strikingly by traces of borax remaining in the sounding-boards, which contribute considerably to its hardness and elevate its resonant power wonderfully.

The increased hardness consequent on this process results from the same cause from which stale bread becomes harder than fresh bread. But, as hinted above, traces of borax left in the wood increase its hardness very considerably.

A reduction of its inflammability and combustibility by Beerizing wood may easily be obtained by not washing out all the borax used. Mere traces of this fire-proof body will prevent the wood from burning too readily and render its combustibility difficult; the access of air being impeded by the film of fused borax. This process is the invention of Sigismund Beer, of New York.

BELGIUM, a kingdom of Europe. King, Leopold II., born April 9, 1835; succeeded his father, Leopold I., on December 10, 1865. Heir-apparent, the brother of the King, Count Philip of Flanders, born March 24, 1837; married April 25, 1867, to Princess Maria of Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen; has one son, Baldwin Leopold, born June 8, 1869.

The area of Belgium is 11,373 square miles. The population, according to the census of

December 31, 1866, was 4,829,320; and on December 31, 1867, was estimated at 4,897,794. According to an official statement of July 1, 1868, there were at that time, in Belgium, 4,928,814 Roman Catholics, 8,193 Protestants, 1,522 Jews, and 1,844 connected with other ecclesiastical denominations. The Catholic clergy received from the state, on salaries, 3,800,000 francs. The Protestant (inclusive of the Anglican), 60,000 francs, and the Rabbis 25,000 francs. As regards nationality, the Flemish part of the population in the northern provinces is estimated at 58 per cent. of the total population; and the Walloon, in the southern provinces, at 42 per cent. In the eastern districts of the provinces of Luxemburg and Liege there are about 30,000 Germans.

The ministry* remained during the year without change. The budget for 1869, as approved by the Chambers, fixed the revenue at 174,691,700 francs, and the expenditure at 176,163,041 francs.

The exports and imports of Belgium, in 1866 and 1867 were as follows (value in millions of francs):

COUNTRIES.	Exports.		Imports.	
	1866.	1867.	1866.	1867.
Europe	579.27	613.78	611.36	567.86
America	157.78	149.93	29.94	28.56
Asia	8.92	9.08	0.51	0.86
Africa	1.38	2.45	1.29	0.53
Australia	....	....	0.10	....
	747.35	775.24	643.20	597.31

The Belgian Government and Chambers placed an interdict upon the transfer of the "Great Luxemburg Railway" to the "Eastern Company" of France. Considering the part which railways now play in warlike operations, and the geographical situation of the Luxemburg line, the Belgians discovered in the proposed transfer a possible menace to their independence. Besides, by a recent decree, all French railways are placed under the direct control of the Minister of War, and, if the Eastern Company had been allowed to buy up the Luxemburg Railway, the result would have been to give the French War Office authority over an important branch of the international communications of Belgium. In putting a veto on this bargain, the Belgian Parliament only availed itself of a discretionary power which is both claimed and exercised by the governing power of every other state in Europe. The negotiations relative to this matter resulted in a triumph for Belgium, the French Government being obliged to withdraw its pretensions. The contracting parties agreed that the Great Eastern of France and the Luxemburg of Belgium might conclude conventions for traffic with each other. The Eastern Railway may henceforward run through-trains between Antwerp and Basle, the management of which, while upon Belgian territory, will be in the sole charge of Belgian railway officers. Reductions in the tariff may be made between stations in France and stations in Belgium, provided that such reductions are not inconsistent with the tariff of the Belgian line. No reduction is to take place in the rates between Switzerland and Holland, which might induce Swiss shippers to send their goods to Dutch ports rather than to those of Belgium.

The following convention was agreed upon between the United States and Belgium, on the subject of naturalization, and signed at Brussels, November 16, 1868:

The President of the United States of America and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, led by the wish to regulate the citizenship of those persons who emigrate from the United States of America to Belgium and from Belgium to the United States of America, have resolved to make a convention on this subject, and have appointed for their plenipotentiaries, namely: The President of the United States of America, Henry Shelton Sanford, a citizen of the United States, their minister resident near his Majesty the King of the Belgians; and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, the Sieur Jules Vander Stichelen, Grand Cross of the Order of the Dutch Lion, etc., his Minister of Foreign Affairs; who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, found to be in good and proper form, have agreed upon the following articles:

ARTICLE 1. Citizens of the United States who may or shall have been naturalized in Belgium will be considered by the United States as citizens of Belgium. Reciprocally, Belgians who may or shall have been naturalized in the United States will be considered by Belgium as citizens of the United States.

ART. 2. Citizens of either contracting party, in case of their return to their original country, can be prosecuted there for crimes or misdemeanors committed before naturalization, saving to them such limitations as are established by the laws of their original country.

ART. 3. Naturalized citizens of either contracting party, who shall have resided five years in the country which has naturalized them, cannot be held to the obligation of military service in their original country or to incidental obligation resulting therefrom in the event of their return to it, except in cases of desertion from organized and embodied military or naval service, or those that may be assimilated thereto by the laws of that country.

ART. 4. Citizens of the United States naturalized in Belgium shall be considered by Belgium as citizens of the United States when they shall have recovered their character as citizens of the United States, according to the laws of the United States. Reciprocally, Belgians naturalized in the United States shall be considered as Belgians by the United States when they shall have recovered their character as Belgians, according to the laws of Belgium.

ART. 5. The present convention shall enter into execution immediately after the exchange of ratifications, and shall remain in force for ten years. If at the expiration of that period neither of the contracting parties shall have given notice six months in advance of its intention to terminate the same, it shall continue in force until the end of twelve months after one of the contracting parties shall have given notice to the other of such intention.

ART. 6. The present convention shall be ratified by the President of the United States, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and by his Majesty

* See the names of the ministers in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1866.

the King of the Belgians, with the consent of the Parliament; and the ratifications shall be exchanged at Brussels within twelve months from the date hereof, or sooner if possible.

In witness whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same and affixed thereto their seals.

Made in duplicate at Brussels the sixteenth of November, one thousand eight hundred and sixty-eight.

JULES VANDER STICHELEN.
H. S. SANFORD.

An additional article to the treaty of commerce and navigation of July 17, 1858, between the same contracting parties, was signed December 20, 1868, and is as follows:

The President of the United States of America and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, deeming it advisable that there should be an additional article to the treaty of commerce and navigation between them, of July 17, 1858, have for this purpose named as their plenipotentiaries, namely: The President of the United States, Henry Shelton Sanford, a citizen of the United States, and minister resident near his Majesty the King of the Belgians; and his Majesty the King of the Belgians, the Sieur Jules Vander Stichelen, Grand Cross of the Order of the Dutch Lion, etc., his Minister of Foreign Affairs; who, after having communicated to each other their full powers, have agreed to and signed the following additional article:

The high contracting parties, desiring to secure complete and efficient protection to the manufacturing industry of their respective citizens, agree that any counterfeiting in one of the two countries of the trade-marks affixed in the other on merchandise, to show its origin and quality, shall be strictly prohibited and shall give ground for an action of damages in favor of the injured party, to be prosecuted in the courts of the country in which the counterfeit shall be proven.

The trade-marks in which the citizens of one of the two countries may wish to secure the right of property in the other must be lodged, to wit: The marks of citizens of the United States at Brussels, in the office of the clerk of the Tribunal of Commerce, and the marks of Belgian citizens at the Patent-Office in Washington.

It is understood that, if a trade-mark has become public property in the country of its origin, it shall be equally free to all in the other country.

This additional article shall have the same duration as the before-mentioned treaty of the 17th July, 1858, to which it is an addition. The ratifications thereof shall be exchanged in the delay of six months, or sooner if possible.

In faith whereof, the respective plenipotentiaries have signed the same and affixed thereto their seals.

Done at Brussels, in duplicate, the twentieth of December, eighteen hundred and sixty-eight.

H. S. SANFORD.
JULES VANDER STICHELEN.

The Belgian Chambers adopted the bill for the abolition of imprisonment for debt, by a large majority, and refused to exempt from the benefit of its provisions even editors unable to pay their fines.

The young Prince Royal died, after a lingering and distressing illness at Brussels, on January 22d. By his decease, the Count de Flanders, brother of the King, became heir-apparent to the throne, and as such took his seat in the Senate.

The import and export trade of Belgium represented before 1830 an annual average of 300,000,000 francs, or £12,000,000. Thence up to 1840 it fluctuated between 300,000,000 francs and 400,000,000 francs; between 1840 and 1850 it increased to an average of about 900,000,000 francs, or £36,000,000; between 1850 and 1860 the average reached 1,700,000,000 francs; and a report presented to the King by the Minister of Foreign Affairs estimates that, for the period between 1860 and 1870, it will reach an annual average of 3,000,000,000 francs, or £120,000,000. The minister, however, remarks in his report that the direct trade between Belgium and countries out of Europe is tardy in its developement; that the Belgian, though apt at manufacture, is slow in finding new markets. The Belgian Government, as a stimulus to foreign trade, has appointed a consul in the Danubian Principalities under the orders of the Belgian legation at Constantinople, a consul-general at Odessa, and a consul-general at Tauris; and a gentleman well versed in commercial matters has been attached to the Belgian legation at Washington, who is to have no fixed residence, but is to move about the United States in order to report where there may be an opening for Belgian trade. Mr. Hugh Wyndham, second secretary of the British legation at Brussels, sending these statements in his last report to the Foreign Office, observes that Belgium has no trade at all with California, and but little with China and Japan; whereas Holland and Switzerland, both small states, are actively fostering their commerce with those distant regions.

BELL, JOHN, a statesman of Tennessee, born near Nashville, Tenn., February 15, 1797; died at Cumberland Iron Works, Tenn., September 10, 1869. His father was a farmer in fair circumstances, who bestowed upon him a good education, and at so early a period that he was graduated at Cumberland College (now the University of Nashville) at the age of seventeen. Devoting himself to the study of the law, he began his professional career at nineteen. A year later, and when he was not of age, he was chosen a member of the Senate of Tennessee; and, though he remained through the term, he would not accept a reëlection, but adhered to his profession until 1826, when he was nominated for Congress, in opposition to the well-known Felix Grundy, over whom he triumphed, after an animated contest, by a thousand majority. He was a Democrat at that time, though General Jackson opposed his election; and he must be classed with the Calhoun branch of the Jackson party. He was so popular that the Jacksonians concluded to overlook his independence; and he was reëlected six times, serving in the House of Representatives until 1841, or fourteen years. Long before the expiration of these years he had left the Democratic party. Opposing the nullifiers, he was separated from Mr. Calhoun; and he parted from President Jackson on the question of the removal of the deposits from the United

States Bank, and virtually became one of the founders of the Whig party, in 1834. That year Mr. Stevenson left the office of Speaker of the House of Representatives, to become minister to England; and the candidates for the vacant chair were Mr. Bell and Mr. Polk. The former was supported by all the Whigs, and by those Democratic members who were opposed to Mr. Van Buren, and he was elected. He joined with Judge White in the anti-Van Buren movement in Tennessee, which completed his sins in the estimation of President Jackson, who could not, however, prevent his return to Congress, as his popularity in his district remained unshaken. When General Harrison became President of the United States, in 1841, he appointed Mr. Bell Secretary of War, in which office he was continued by President Tyler; but, when Mr. Tyler vetoed the bill for creating a third United States Bank, Mr. Bell resigned office, as did all the members of the Cabinet, except Mr. Webster. The Tennessee Legislature then offered him the place of United States Senator, which he refused to accept, on the ground that it ought to be bestowed on Mr. Foster, an eminent Whig. He remained in retirement six years, save that he was chosen a member of the State Senate, in 1847. The same year he was elected to the national Senate, to which he was reëlected in 1853, thus serving two full terms in that body. His entire congressional life extended to twenty-six years. As a member of Congress, Mr. Bell is entitled to honorable mention and remembrance, for he was one of the very few Southern men whose course was really national in its character. When petitions for the abolition of slavery in the District of Columbia were first presented to the House of Representatives, he did not join with those who were for suppressing the irrepressible, but voted for their reception. He also opposed "the Atherton gag." For thus acting, he encountered opposition at home; but his constituents invariably sustained him. He pursued the same course when in the Senate, though the slavery question had then become all-important. It is true he supported the compromises of 1850, but it is not easy to see how he could have done otherwise, when even Mr. Webster was their advocate, and when many other Northern men gave them their voices and their votes. When the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was brought forward, in 1854, Mr. Bell opposed its passage with all his power, taking a position among its most decided opponents, not only as violating the Missouri compact, to which the honor of the South was pledged, but as unsettling the compromise of 1850, to which both the great parties had solemnly subscribed. Four years later, he was equally earnest in his opposition to the Lecompton constitution that had been framed for Kansas. In 1860, Mr. Bell was nominated for the presidency by the "Constitutional Union party," Mr. Everett receiving the nomination for the vice-presidency. This ticket had no chance of success, but it was well supported. After the election of Mr. Lincoln, Mr. Bell was disposed to support his Administration, seeing in his success no reason at all for secession on the part of the South. For some time he remained firmly in this position, but at length he was induced "to go with his State." His after-life was without incidents.

BENTON, NATHANIEL S., an active politician and political leader for many years in New York, born in Cheshire County, New Hampshire, February 19, 1792; died at Little Falls, N. Y., June 29, 1869. He was educated at the Fryeburg Academy, Maine, having for one of his instructors at one time Daniel Webster, who was principal of the institution. During the War of 1812 he served first as private in the Thirty-fourth U. S. Infantry, then as ensign, lieutenant, and adjutant, acting on two occasions as Judge-Advocate-General at Plattsburg. At the conclusion of the war he studied law, and was admitted to practice. In 1816 he removed from New Hampshire to Little Falls in this State. In 1821 he was appointed Surrogate of Herkimer County, which office he held until 1828, when he resigned, in order to take his seat in the State Senate. He remained in the Senate three years and four months, when he resigned to accept the position of United States District Attorney for Northern New York. This office he held until removed by President Harrison in 1841. During this period, in 1832, he was appointed first Judge of Herkimer County by Governor Marcy. In 1845 he was elected Secretary of State by the Legislature, which office he held until 1848, when the new constitution went into effect. At that time the State Superintendency of Public Schools was an *ex officio* duty of the Secretary of State, but generally devolved mainly on a deputy. Mr. Benton had for his efficient deputy Hon. S. S. Randall, since and now Superintendent of Schools in the city of New York, but he gave more personal attention to this department than his predecessors had done. From 1848 to 1856 Mr. Benton was not in office, though he had transferred his allegiance to the "American party," and was their candidate at one time for Canal Commissioner, and at another for Lieutenant-Governor. In 1855 that party was successful in carrying the State, and in electing a majority of the Canal Board. At that time the Auditor of the Canal Department was chosen by the votes of the Canal Board, and Mr. Benton was elected to that office in 1856. He soon began to add to the duties and powers of the office, by securing the passage of certain legislative enactments. One of his first steps was to have the appointment of the Auditor transferred to the Governor and Senate, to fix its duration for three years, and to make the salary $2,500. Other acts were subsequently passed increasing the power of the office, and among them was one making the Auditor a member of the Contracting Board.

With the demise of the "American party," Mr. Benton allied his fortunes with the Republicans. He held the office of Auditor until 1868, a period of twelve years, when he was succeeded by James A. Bell, the present incumbent. Mr. Benton was a man of great industry, strict integrity, and strong will. He took great pains to impress his ideas of canal management upon the canal policy of the State. His reports were ably written, and his arguments clearly stated.

BERLIOZ, Louis Hector, a distinguished French musician, composer, and author, born at Côte-Saint-André, Department of Isère, France, December 11, 1803; died in Paris, March 9, 1869. He was the son of a physician of distinction, who, with the intention of educating him for his own profession, sent him, at an early age, to pursue a course of medical study at Paris, but his passion for music led him, at the age of twenty-three, to desert his college, and enter the *Conservatoire*. Under the instruction of Lesueur, and of Reicha, the influence of whose peculiar teachings has always been more or less perceptible in his works, Berlioz advanced so rapidly as to gain, in 1828, the second prize, and in 1830 the first prize, for musical composition. During his four years at the *Conservatoire*, he wrote a Mass for four voices, chorus and orchestra, the "Waverley" overture, a "Symphonie-Fantastique," a "Fantaisie sur la Tempête," a second "Fantaisie," entitled "Scènes de Faust," the cantata of "Sardanapale," and a "Symphonie Funèbre et Triomphale," in commemoration of the revolutionary events of July. These works were highly valued by musicians, mainly, it would seem, on account of the technical proficiency and the remarkable skill in orchestration which they exhibited; but it does not appear that they attracted any degree of popular attention. In 1830 Berlioz visited Italy, not so much for purposes of study as of recreation. While at Rome, he composed "Lélio, ou le Retour à la Vie," a monodrame; "La Ballade du Pêcheur" (words by Goethe); "Le Chœur des Ombres" (suggested by "Hamlet"), and two overtures, "King Lear" and "Rob Roy." Upon his return to Paris, in 1832, he became a regular contributor to the *Gazette Musicale* and the *Journal des Débats*, his writings in which were models of eloquence, force, and perspicuity. It is probable that he won more adherents by strength of argument than his musical works, unaided, could ever have obtained for him. He became the centre of a little group of enthusiasts, whose united power was sufficient to induce operatic and other managers to give him a hearing, though not to persuade the public to tolerate him. His first opera, "Benvenuto Cellini," produced in 1838, was a disastrous failure, and was condemned by every voice in Paris except those of Berlioz and his friends, the composer himself endeavoring to justify the work in a series of essays, than which nothing more brilliant and spirited has been known in musical literature. The world admired the writer, but refused to admit the claims of the composer. The disappointment and the mortification brought on a severe fit of illness, a circumstance which called forth a remarkable and unprecedented action on the part of the violinist Paganini. He communicated his sympathy in the form of a present of twenty thousand francs, and his admiration by a bold statement that the erratic French composer was the equal of Beethoven. Although unfortunate with his opera, Berlioz enjoyed a certain success, about this period, with one or two symphonies. "Harold" and "Romeo et Juliette," both, we believe, inspired by Paganini, were readily accepted and applauded. His Requiem Mass, the most remarkable, in respect of instrumentation at least, of all his works, was performed, in 1837, at the obsequies of General Damremont, and, if not enthusiastically welcomed, was not condemned. The year 1843 he devoted to a series of concerts in Belgium and Germany, for which he composed the lively overture, "Le Carnaval Romain," and by means of which he laid the foundation of his fortune. At the Industrial Exhibition of 1844 he enjoyed, for the first time, the opportunity of presenting one of his works on a scale of magnitude commensurate with his designs. This was the "Hymne à la France," which was executed by an orchestra and chorus of one thousand musicians. In 1846 he produced, at the Opéra Comique, a "legend in four parts," entitled "La Damnation de Faust," which met with a most flattering reception. "L'Enfance du Christ," a "sacred trilogy," soon followed, and was well received, though not so heartily as its immediate predecessor. Between 1855 and 1863 he brought out a number of symphonies, all avowedly intended to exemplify and elucidate his special theories and convictions, and all exhibiting his talents in their worthiest aspect. His last composition of importance was a heroic opera, "Les Troyens," performed at the Théâtre Lyrique in 1863, a work regarded by critics with great interest. While denied the public acknowledgments which he craved, Berlioz was not left wholly without personal marks of recognition. In 1839 he received the decoration of the Legion of Honor, and the office of librarian of the *Conservatoire;* and in 1856 he was appointed to the seat in the Institute left vacant by the death of Adolphe Adam. He was also an active member of the juries on Musical Instruments, at the International Exhibitions of London and Paris. By his literary works he acquired hosts of friends and admirers in quarters where his musical achievements would never have given him a footing; and even the hostility of those who were opposed to his æsthetic theories was disarmed by his masterly "Treatise upon Modern Instrumentation, etc.," a work the value of which to students, and to practising musicians

as well, cannot be too highly rated. His orchestral compositions far excel those of any other writer, and, in his development of the resources of instrumentation, he was thoroughly original. The last years of his life were passed in comparative retirement, although he came indirectly before the public ten years ago, when "Alceste" was revived at the Grand Opera. The managers of that institution fixed upon him as the man most capable of any in France to restore the traditions and recall the exact spirit of Gluck's noble work. "Alceste" was superbly produced, under his exclusive direction. Aside from the Treatise on Instrumentation, already mentioned, M. Berlioz's principal literary works were: "A Musical Tour in Germany and Italy: Studies of Beethoven, Gluck, and Weber," 2 vols., 8vo, 1845; "Orchestral Soirées," 18mo, 1854; and "Musical Comicalities," 18mo, 1859.

BOLIVIA, a republic in South America. President, in consequence of the successful revolution of December, 1864, Mariano Melgarejo dictator, after the abolition of the constitution in February, 1869. The ministry, in September, 1869, was composed as follows: M. D. Muñoz, head of the Cabinet, Minister of State and of External Affairs; M. de la Lastra, Minister of Finances; M. J. Ribera, Minister of Justice and Public Instruction; General G. Lanza, Minister of War; M. Montero, Minister of Worship and Industry. The area of the republic is estimated at from 22,500 to 30,000 geographical square miles (1 geographical square mile=21.26 English square miles). The republic is divided into eleven departments, which had, in 1858, 1,742,352 inhabitants, to which must be added about 245,000 Indians, giving a total population of 1,987,352. Later statements give the population, exclusive of Indians, as 1,811,368. In point of ecclesiastical jurisdiction the republic is divided into the archdiocese La Plata or Charcas (embracing the departments of Chuquisaca, Potosi, Oruro, Tarija, Atacama), and the dioceses La Paz (departments of La Paz, Megillones), Santa Cruz (departments of Santa Cruz, Beni), and Cochabamba (departments of Cochabamba, Melgarija). The standing army, consisting of 31 generals, 359 officers of higher grade, 654 subaltern officers, and 3,034 men, annually costs the republic two million pesos.

Bolivia is, on the west, almost cut off from the Pacific, while on the east Brazil interposes a vast territory between her and the Atlantic. The great chain of the Andes here branches out into mighty parallel ridges. A great elevated table-land, about 13,000 feet high, and held between the two grand ridges of the Andes, extends almost from the northern confine of the Argentine Republic northwest to the frontier of Peru. All the water-courses to the east of this table-land flow into the Atlantic. The three larger streams are affluents of the river Madeira; their names are the Beni, Mamore, and Guapore. The Mamore, nearly 900 miles long, flows through the very heart of Bolivia. The Guapore, forming the boundary-line between Brazil and Bolivia, has its head-waters almost in sight of the head-waters of the Rio de la Plata. The aggregate length of the affluents of the Madeira with their tributaries cannot fall short of 5,000 miles, for at least 4,000 of which it is suited to steamboat navigation. The banks of these rivers afford excellent natural landing-places. All travellers attest to the climate being one of the healthiest in the world.

The population is in great part upon the Amazon slope. Many populous centres are found upon the banks of the rivers far in the east and northeast. Among these towns are Santa Cruz, containing some 12,000 inhabitants, and Trinidad, capital of the great Beni province, having 6,000. Cochabamba is a city of 35,000 inhabitants; it is already the trade centre of 500,000 people, and will eventually become the great commercial emporium of Bolivia, furnishing La Paz, with its 83,000 inhabitants, Chuquisaca, with its 36,000, and Potosi, with its 40,000, the luxuries of other nations. The canoe-trade, which has sprung up since Brazil opened the Amazon, is astonishing. The Indian canoemen are tough, docile, and of great endurance.

The people may be divided into two great sections—mining and agricultural. One-half of the people are of the Quichua and Aymara Indian races. The latter have their centre of population at La Paz. The Spanish is the dominant race, and is gradually gaining ground over the Indian. The Bolivian people are among the most hardy, energetic, and industrious, of Spanish South America.

The most valuable products are the potato, banana, Indian corn, wheat, barley, and rice, and almost every variety of fruit. The finest Peruvian bark is cut in northwest Bolivia, and three-fourths of the entire crop of the world come from this district. Cinnamon of excellent quality grows wild in great abundance. Tobacco is extensively grown. Cocoa or betel is sold in the La Paz market to the amount of about $4,000,000 annually. The chocolate of the Beni has no superior in the world. Coffee is largely cultivated for home use. Sugar is produced and largely manufactured from the cane in the Santa Cruz district; its quality is excellent. Cotton grows wild in great abundance; it is of two kinds—white and yellow—both of a fine, long staple. With the vast wild-indigo fields it covers an immense extent of the Bolivian territory. Dye-woods and dyes are numerous. The cochineal is found in its native state, and abundant. Vanilla, wild sarsaparilla, wild almonds, saffron, laurel, and white wax, yellow and black beeswax, rhubarb, gentian, jalap, aloes, and ipecacuanha, are also abundant. A great variety of balsams are found. Sixty-four different kinds of forest-trees are counted on the banks of the great rivers. Vast herds of cattle and horses roam

in the Beni and Chiquitos provinces. On the higher lands are found the llama, the sheep, goat, and the vicuna. The mineral wealth of Bolivia is fabulous. Besides silver, there are found gold, lead, tin, copper, iron, coal, and fossil salts. The gold washings of the headwaters of the affluents of the Madeira are celebrated, and from the single silver mountain of Potosi nearly enough silver has been taken to pay our national debt.

The foreign trade passes through the Peruvian port of Arica. The foreign European trade in imports amounts to about $8,000,000 annually. This is offset in exports of Peruvian bark, guano, copper, etc. The balance of trade against the country is paid for by a part of her silver product, which is about $2,500,000 annually.

Bolivia made, in March, 1867, a treaty of limits, commerce, and navigation, with Brazil. This was, late in 1868, ratified by both nations, and the party favorable to the treaty hope that it will open the way to steam communication, *via* the Amazon, with the world. On the other hand, discontent with it still prevails.

There is an internal trade in Bolivia amounting to about $50,000,000 annually.

The revolution prevailing in 1867 was ended in the beginning of 1868, by the revolutionary leaders emigrating to the Argentine Republic. President Melgarejo caused his first cousin, Colonel Lozada, one of the bravest officers in the army, to be shot for having attempting to raise a counter-revolution. The despotic act excited great indignation; but Melgarejo had the army perfectly under his control. The general dissatisfaction with President Melgarejo continued, however, and the President proclaimed himself, in February, 1869, again dictator of the republic. His Cabinet approved unanimously of this step. In May he issued a decree restoring the constitution, and ordered elections for Congressmen and Senators. The people received this return of their constitutional rights with enthusiasm. He continued, however, to exercise full control.

The Government recognized, in June, the belligerent rights of Cuba by the following decree:

To His Excellency the Minister of Foreign Affairs of the Provisional Government of Cuba:

SIR: I have the honor to transmit herewith to your Excellency a copy of the decree by which Bolivia recognizes the belligerent rights of the Cuban patriots and the legitimacy of the Provisional Government which they have organized. The cause espoused by General Cespedes is thoroughly American, seeking for independence and the destruction of Spanish despotism. God and right sustain its justice, and the prayers of the Continent are offered for its success. I have the honor, etc.

MARIANO DONATO MUÑOZ.

LA PAZ, *June* 10, 1869.

Mariano Melgarejo, Provisional President of Bolivia, decrees:

1. That the Government of Bolivia recognizes the Cuban patriots as belligerents, and the legitimacy of the government organized by them.

2. Bolivia sends her heart-felt sympathy to the noble upholders of such a sacred cause, and to General Cespedes, as a first homage to his American spirit and heroic efforts for the liberty and independence of his country.

A new revolutionary movement against Melgarejo was begun at the close of October, by General Morales, consul of Bolivia at Callao, who a few years since attempted the overthrow of President Belzu. He appeared upon the frontier of the country with three hundred muskets and rallied a number of adherents to his standard; but the movement was speedily crushed.

The Government continues to make great efforts to develop the resources of the Amazon Valley. On October 1, 1869, it gave to Mr. A. D. Piper, a citizen of California, a concession of a vast tract of land. Mr. Piper, who represents a California company, contracted, on the other hand, to introduce 1,000 families for each five years during twenty-five years. A great impulse to Bolivian commerce is also expected from the new railroads which the Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Peru, expect to build to the Bolivian frontier.

BOTTS, JOHN MINOR, a Virginian politician and statesman, born in Dumfries, Prince William County, Va., September 16, 1802; died at his residence in Culpepper, Va., January 7, 1869. Soon after his birth his parents removed to Fredericksburg, and from thence to Richmond, where they perished in the great theatre fire in 1811. Young Botts received a good school education notwithstanding the loss of his parents during his youth, and so thorough a preparation for the law, which was the profession of his choice, that he was admitted to the bar at the age of eighteen. After he had practised law for about six years, he retired to a farm in Henrico County, and established himself as a Virginia country gentleman. He did not long remain in quiet, however, for, in 1833, he was elected to represent his county in the Legislature of the State. He at once took a prominent position among the leading members of this body, and soon became one of the most active politicians in Virginia, working with the Whig party. He was several times reëlected to the Legislature. In 1839 he was elected to Congress, and there stood earnestly and ably by Henry Clay, zealously advocating most of the points of the great leader's programme—a national bank, a protective tariff, and the distribution among the States of the proceeds of the public lands. After serving two terms he was defeated by Mr. Seddon, but, in 1847, succeeded in gaining a reëlection. In 1839 he was a delegate to the National Whig Convention, which nominated Harrison and Tyler. He had been a warm personal friend of John Tyler, elected Vice-President in November, 1840, and who, by the death of General Harrison, in April, 1841, became President of the United States; but, soon after Mr. Tyler's accession to office, Mr. Botts, in a conversation with him, learned his intention of seceding from the party which had elected him, and he at once denounced him, and pro-

claimed open war with him, which he carried on as long as Mr. Tyler was President. In the presidential campaign of 1844 he labored earnestly and indefatigably for the election of Mr. Clay. In 1852 Mr. Botts resumed the practice of his profession in Richmond, and speedily met with the large success to which his great talents and high legal ability entitled him. On the disruption of the Whig party, he joined the American party, and in 1859 an attempt was made by that political organization to nominate him for the presidency, but it proved a failure. He continued his practice and remained in Richmond till the commencement of the war, but, being devoted to the Union, and having used all his efforts, without avail, to prevent Virginia from taking the suicidal step of secession, he retired to his farm near Culpepper Court-House, where he remained most of the time during the war, hated yet respected by the enemy. He was, however, subjected to a great deal of trial and inconvenience. One night in March, 1862, a squad of a hundred men, under the orders of General Winder, came to his house, took him from his bed, and carried him to prison, where he was held in solitary confinement for eight weeks. His arrest was caused by the well-founded suspicion that he was writing a secret history of the war. Search was made for the manuscript, but nothing was found. After the close of the war, this missing manuscript (of which a portion had been in 1862 confided to the Count de Mercier, French minister at Washington), formed the basis of a volume prepared by Mr. Botts, and published in New York by Messrs. Harper & Brothers, with the title of "The Great Rebellion, its Secret History, Rise, Progress, and Disastrous Failure!" The work was too much of the nature of a personal narrative, and was published in a time too thickly crowded with great events, to have any very considerable sale, and was, perhaps, less important in its revelations than the author deemed it. After his release from prison Mr. Botts returned to his home at Culpepper. Here he was continually persecuted by the enemy. His farm, too, was repeatedly overrun by both armies, and dug over, time and again, for military operations. When the war had closed, Mr. Botts again took a deep interest in political matters. He labored earnestly for the early restoration of his State to the Union, but without success. He was a delegate to the National Convention of Southern Loyalists in Philadelphia in 1866, and in 1867 signed his name on the bail-bonds of Jefferson Davis. From that time his energies steadily declined. He declared his intention to take the stump during the last canvass, for General Grant, but was unable to do so, or take any active part in the contest, on account of his failing health.

BRADY, James Topham, a learned, accomplished, and eloquent advocate and political leader, born in New York City, April 9, 1815; died there, February 9, 1869. His father, Thomas S. Brady, an accomplished scholar, had emigrated with his family from Ireland in 1812, and, after teaching a classical school for some years, entered the legal profession, and died in the prime of life, a Judge of the District Court, leaving eight children to the care of this son. James T. Brady was educated mostly by his father, in his school, and subsequently in his office; and, at the early age of sixteen, such was his thorough mastery of the law, that he acted the part of junior counsel to his father. He was admitted to the bar in 1835, when but twenty years of age, and though "there were giants" among the members of the New York bar "in those days," men like Graham, Sanford, Lord, Blunt, George Wood, and Ogden Hoffman, he, almost at a bound, sprang into the front rank of the profession, and maintained his place there ever after, sustained by his profound knowledge of the law, his ready tact, his extraordinary eloquence, and his genial and courteous manners. He was conspicuous for his ability in all departments of the law, winning verdicts from judges and jurors, alike in great patent cases, like that of Goodyear *vs.* Day; cases involving questions of medical jurisprudence, like the Allaire and Parish will cases, and the moral-insanity plea in the case of the forger Huntington or the homicide Cole; divorce cases, like that of Mrs. Edwin Forrest, and, indeed, in civil cases of all sorts; but his special power was seen to the best advantage in criminal cases, where he usually undertook the defence. At one time he successfully defended four clients, charged with murder, in a single week, and all without fee or reward. His defence of Daniel E. Sickles, at Washington, in 1859, was one of his most splendid achievements as a great criminal lawyer. In most of the remarkable civil or criminal causes of the past thirty years he had been retained on one side or the other. His success as an advocate was not due to any chicanery, not even to any of the generally considered admissible advantages taken by many members of the profession. He was clear, frank, and honest, in the statement of his cases, skilful and almost invariably courteous in his cross-examination of witnesses, but his arguments were put with such tact, his statement of facts was so lucid and candid, and his appeals were so eloquent and impressive, that he almost invariably carried judge and jury with him. It was said of him that he never lost a case in which he was before a jury for more than a week; by that time they saw every thing through his eyes. With his rare gifts of quick insight and brilliant eloquence he was necessarily a political leader; but no man was ever more thoroughly free from personal aspiration for office. He would have nothing to do with any office which was out of the line of his profession. He did not desire any higher honor than that of being a great lawyer; yet, as a Democrat, he was one of the

most thoroughly-trusted and trustworthy members of his party. As a politician, Mr. Brady was of what might be called a conservative turn of mind, but his impulses and his acute sense of justice often overbalanced these tendencies. He never held office except once, when he was Corporation Counsel; he consented to accept this position because it was in the line of his profession, and while occupying the place he made many important improvements in the administration of municipal law. Before the war he was an ultra States-Rights man. In 1860 he had supported Breckinridge, and even carried his support so far as to discourage fusion on the electoral ticket between the two Democratic presidential candidates, while he consented to be a candidate for Governor himself on the Hard ticket, against William Kelly, the Soft candidate, in order to uphold a principle. If there had been any chance of his election, he would not have been a candidate. But, while supporting the war measures of Lincoln's Administration, on one point, and only one, he differed with the Government. He did not believe in the doctrine of military necessity as applied to Northern States or without the hostile lines of the enemy. Politics, however, never entered into his professional life, and one of his greatest cases was his defence of the spy executed at Governor's Island. No man ever adhered to a determination not to accept office outside of the line of his profession more firmly than Mr. Brady. Nearly every place in the gift of the Democracy of New York was offered to him, and declined by him. He was pressed to accept a seat in the Legislature and in Congress, but he steadily refused, and in 1861 he peremptorily declined the Tammany nomination for Mayor. During the period that intervened between this action on his part and the close of the war, he made many speeches on national questions, some of which produced a profound impression upon the country. In October, 1862, he was induced to address the Seymour Association of New York, and in his remarks on that occasion he boldly said, "The South, in leaving us at the particular time she did, did so without the slightest pretext of justification or excuse." These speeches were followed up by other and bolder efforts. In March, 1864, he had the satisfaction of addressing a war-meeting in Tammany Hall. Near the close of the war Mr. Brady was appointed a member of a commission, of which General William F. Smith was chief, to inquire into the administration of the Department of the Gulf under General Butler and General Banks. The commission discharged the duties of their appointment, and made their report to the Secretary of War, but there the matter ended. The report has never been published, notwithstanding the public interest felt in the subject of their inquiry, both at the time and since. Outside of professional and political life Mr. Brady was peculiarly amiable, and he was exceedingly fond of social enjoyments. He idolized the children of his sisters, and was always happy in winning the confidence and esteem of the little ones. But he could readily turn away from social pleasures to the duties of the office and court. To his social accomplishments and legal attainments must be added an excellent literary taste. In the brilliant days of the old *Knickerbocker Magazine* he was a frequent contributor, and he wrote besides for other periodicals. One of the most beautiful of these waifs, "A Christmas Dream," originally contributed by him to Park Benjamin's literary paper, *The New World*, in 1846, was subsequently, by one of his friends, put into a little Christmas volume, exquisitely illustrated, and for years formed one of the most beautiful of the minor holiday books. High-minded, generous, prodigal to a fault, hating meanness in every form, delicate in the matter of fees from his clients, taking whatever was given him oftener than what he might have asked, so averse to even the appearance of evil that he never took a case in the court of which his brother was the Judge, he went down to the grave with a record such as few men leave behind them.

BRAZIL,* an empire in South America. Emperor, Pedro II., born December 2, 1825; succeeded his father April 7, 1831; has two daughters: Isabella, married to the Count d'Eu, son of the Duke de Nemours; and Leopoldina, married to Duke Augustus of Saxe-Coburg Gotha; eldest son of the latter, Pedro, born March 19, 1866. The conservative ministry, appointed July 15, 1868, remained in power throughout the year 1869. Area, 8,231,000 square miles. Strength of the army 78,784; the army of operation in Paraguay was estimated in January, 1868, at 42,817 men. The total population was (1867) estimated at 11,280,000, 1,400,000 of whom are slaves. The wild Indians, not included in the total population, are said to number 500,000.

The number of immigrants landed at Rio Janeiro, during 1868, was 8,355, to which must be added about 3,500 landed in the southern provinces, making the total immigration for the year, throughout the empire, not more than 12,000 at the outside. More than half of the immigrants were Portuguese; the Germans rank second in point of numbers; and the English (with whom are included the Scotch and the Irish) come next. Spaniards are few, but there is a respectable number of French and Italians. Of the French, there were several families from Algiers, hardy, robust farmers, who left their homes on account of a terrible drought which reigned in that country. They settled in the province of Parana, where they have since been joined by nearly a hundred of their countrymen, who sailed directly from Marseilles for Brazil. The

* *See* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, for the names of the ministers, a fuller account of the Brazilian army, and commercial and navigation statistics.

number of North Americans is put down at 405. About 250 of these were from the Southern States, of whom more than half went to Brazil at their own expense, and nearly all had friends or relatives already settled in the empire. The German immigration has augmented rapidly in the last few years, owing to the good management of the Brazilian immigration agent in Germany.

A table is given showing the emigration from the port of Rio Janeiro, from which it appears that the immigration exceeded the outgoings by 4,196. No fewer than 338 North Americans left the country during the year—convincing proof of the failure of the scheme for establishing an American colony in Brazil. With 405 arrivals and 338 departures, the remnant is seen to be very small. Of the 338 who left, about 100 were immigrants from the Southern States.

The Brazilian Government, in its anxiety to promote immigration to its shores, has made liberal arrangements to assist in paying the passages of immigrants to Brazil. During the year 1868 the aggregate number of those who received "assisted passages" was 1,286. More than half this number were British subjects; 385 were Germans; 182 North Americans, and only two Portuguese. This is remarkable, considering that more than one-half of the total of immigrants of the year were Portuguese. During the year, 55 vessels, of variou snationalities, arrived at Rio Janeiro with immigrants. Brazil has a Passengers' Act intended to protect immigrants on board the ships which take them to its shores. This law applies to all ships carrying four passengers in the steerage to every hundred tons of burden. Its execution is confided to the Official Agent of Colonization, who visits the ship immediately on its arrival in port, makes minute inquiries with regard to the treatment which the immigrants received on their voyage, proceeds at once to an investigation, if the complaints are sufficient to warrant it, and imposes such a fine on the vessel as he may deem just, if those complaints prove to be well-founded. It is claimed that, owing to these excellent regulations, which are rigidly carried out, emigrants to Rio Janeiro are better protected than even those to New York. The great majority of the emigrants going to Brazil are laborers and agriculturists.

The Brazilian navy now consists of sixteen monitors and casemates, and one building in Rio, forty wooden steamers, eight transport steamers, two auxiliary propeller sailing-corvettes, and eleven sailing-vessels of various kinds. These mount 298 cannon—the heaviest one-hundred-and-fifty-pounder rifles—are manned by 7,353 men, and the sixty-five steamers have engines of 7,299 horse-power; fifteen iron-clads, seventeen steam gunboats, two steam corvettes, and four other vessels, form the squadron in Paraguay, to which are attached two transports and a host of chartered steamers and sailing-craft. The squadron mounts 151 cannon, and is manned by 4,227 men. Other vessels are posted at Montevideo and on the Uruguay. Twelve small iron steamers were being built in Europe for service on the Amazon, and a gunboat was building at Para. An extraordinary credit of over $6,000,000 was opened to the Minister of Marine for extraordinary expenses.

According to the budget brought forward by the Minister of Finance for the year 1870–'71, the revenue was estimated at $28,100,000, and the ordinary expenditure $32,090,500, leaving a deficit of nearly $4,000,000. This deficit the minister proposed to meet by increased import duties, and in accordance with his views the House Committee reported a bill adding 40 per cent. to the present duties on foreign goods entered for consumption (abolishing the collection of 15 per cent. in gold), and raising the duties on free goods to 5 per cent. besides placing 5 per cent. of "additional" duties on the goods not chargeable with such. It was also proposed to levy landing and shipping dues in the custom-house, and to charge for warehouse rent therein from the day of landing the goods. The distressing condition of the Treasury, which was without means to satisfy the exigencies of the war, or meet its obligations with the creditors of the state, compelled the Government, previous to the meeting of the legislature, to resolve on a decree authorizing a fresh issue of paper money.

According to the Treasury return published, the ascertained indebtedness of the nation, exclusive of the foreign debt, which is about £14,000,000, was, on September 30, 1869, as follows:

	Milreis.
Bonds payable in currency.....	180,015,700
Bonds payable in gold.....	30,000,000
Paper-money in circulation.....	181,054,735
Treasury bills bearing interest.....	69,859,900

Of the above, 35,279,700 milreis have been added since the 28th of February, 1869, viz.: Bonds, 24,249,900; paper money, 6,140,000; interest-bearing treasury bills, 4,889,900. Adding the foreign debt to the internal debt, the total of the Brazilian debt becomes, taking the foreign debt at the present rate of exchange, about 643,000,000 milreis, or $321,500,000 currency. Of this total, 181,054,735 milreis bears no interest. The charges of the debt are estimated by the Minister of Finance at 29,000,000 milreis, but it is expected that next year they will be 36,000,000, owing to the further expenses of the war, which will require the borrowing of 60,000,000 to 70,000,000 more milreis.

The exports, during 1868, are valued at $52,376,000. The exports of coffee from Rio Janeiro show a falling off of 337,028 sacks during the first nine months of 1868 as compared with the same period of 1867, when 1,583,163 sacks were exported. The exports to the United States show a decrease this year of

22,000 sacks, having been only 344,154 against 366,192 in the first nine months of 1867. A part of the deficiency is, however, made up by an increased stock on hand, namely, 189,000 sacks against 59,000 sacks October 1, 1867. It is notable that a cycle of about five years appears to obtain in regard to the coffee crop of Brazil, a very large crop being usually followed by crops successively decreasing to the third year, after which it rises gradually to another extraordinary crop about the fifth or sixth year. It is said, however, that, if the coffee plantations be ploughed, the yield is tolerably regular and the average much increased.

The movement of the liberal party toward carrying through much-needed reforms has been gaining ground in the nation. The necessity of depriving the authorities of some part of their excessive power is deeply felt. The great wants of Brazil are independent courts to protect the people from illegal oppression, for at present the judicial power is wholly subordinate to and dependent on the executive. The Emperor is a ruler of enlightened views; but Brazil has a constitutional Government, with ministerial responsibility, and the present conservative ministers are opposed to liberal reforms. The accession of the conservative party to power has given a serious check to the emancipation movement. The liberal part of the press is, however, bold in denunciation of a policy which compromises the nation in the eyes of the whole civilized world. In fact, the day of independence was in general kept in the provinces with a freeing of slave children by societies already formed.

Brazil was, during 1869, still actively engaged in her war with Paraguay. The return of the chief commander of the Brazilian forces, Marshal Caixas, in the beginning of 1869, without asking leave, enraged the people and embarrassed the government. The army had lost within a month one-third to one-half its number, and an extraordinary proportion of its general officers; in fact, the whole army was in need of immediate reorganization. When the marshal's departure became known in the army, it almost produced a disbandment. The command was turned over to Marshal Souza, who knew nothing of the details of his command. In March, Count d'Eu, son-in-law of the Emperor, was appointed commander-in-chief. (*See* PARAGUAY.)

Owing to the demand of the American Government (dating as far back as 1857) for indemnity in the case of the American whaleship Canada, which demand was renewed in November, 1868, a rupture of diplomatic relations between Brazil and the United States took place in May, 1869. General Webb, the United States minister at Rio Janeiro, had been authorized to propose to the Brazilian Government the payment of $70,000 as a full satisfaction for the claim. The Brazilian Government, however, declined this proposition, declaring that, "inasmuch as the minister from Brazil in the United States has not advised this Government that he has been informed by Mr. Seward of his having issued renewed instructions to the United States minister in Brazil, no action can be taken upon such instructions until such advice has been received from our minister, informing this Government that the matter has again been referred to this legation." Against this decision General Webb remonstrated, stating that, if such a course was persisted in, he would resent the offence to his Government and demand his passports. On the 1st of May, General Webb received a dispatch from the Foreign Office, in which he was again officially told that "The American Government not having announced to the Brazilian minister in Washington the result of the promised reconsideration, nor of the issue of renewed and modified instructions to General Webb, keeps this Government in the same state of uncertainty that it was in before; and from which it cannot depart, except in such manner as shall have full consideration for the respect due to our minister, and from one Government to the other."

To this General Webb replied in a note, dated the 3d of May, in which he employed very strong language of indignation and reproof, stating that he did not consider it any honor to be present and flattered at his country's expense, and concluding in the following terms:

> The undersigned, in closing his mission of now nearly eight years' duration, has the satisfaction to reflect that he has on all occasions, under all circumstances, and at no inconsiderable personal sacrifice, proved himself a very sincere friend of Brazil and of the Brazilian people. That friendship will not yield to the injustices so recklessly done him and his Government; attributable, as it is, to a conservatism and a contempt for republics and republican institutions which belong to another age.

This note was returned to General Webb by Baron Cotegipe, with the remark, "it wounded not only General Webb's own dignity, but also that of the Government and the country, and could not be preserved in the archives of the Brazilian ministry." At the same time the passports for which the general had asked were sent him, with the assurance that "not the least obstacle would be placed in the custom-house to the embarkation of his effects."

This rupture produced great excitement and alarm among all classes of the population. Commercial men dreaded the worst consequences, not only to the general trade of the country, but to the credit of Brazil in Europe. Public opinion turned decidedly against the Government, and compelled it to yield. The diplomatic relations were restored, and all was granted that General Webb had demanded.

The opening of the Amazon, in 1867, has proved a great benefit to the bordering Hispano-American republics, and to the maritime nations of the earth. The exports and imports of Para for October and November,

1867, were double those of 1866. This is but the beginning. It already becomes apparent that it is cheaper for all Bolivia, Peru, Ecuador, and Colombia east of the Andes, to receive their goods from and to export their India rubber, cinchona, etc., to the United States and Europe *via* the great water highway which discharges into the Atlantic, than by the long circuitous route of Cape Horn, or the trans-Isthmian route of Panama. The Purus and Madeira are hereafter to be navigated by steamers. The valley of the Amazon in Brazil is as large as the area of the United States east of Colorado, while the whole valley of the Amazon in and out of Brazil is equal to all the United States east of California, Oregon, and Washington Territory, and yet the population is not equal to the single city of Rio de Janeiro, or the combined inhabitants of Boston and Chicago. It is estimated that a larger population can be sustained in the valley of the Amazon than elsewhere on the globe. The total value of exports in 1866 amounted to £799,983 sterling. The imports at Para for the same year were £510,429 sterling. Ten large Brazil steamers are plying on the Amazon proper, while smaller steamboats ascend to Peru and Ecuador. In 1865 the Brazil packets transported, between Para and Manaos, goods to the value of £800,000 sterling, according to their returns made to the Brazilian Government. In fifteen years, counting from 1850, the commerce tripled even under the restrictive rule which characterized it. The city of Para has a population of 36,000. Its imports and exports in 1868 were over £1,500,000 sterling. The opening of the Amazon has given a new impulse to the exploration of its affluents. The little steamer, in which Dr. Conto de Magalhaens set off to attempt the ascent of the Tocantins rapids, had successfully reached the Araguaya, thus proving the practicability of running a steamboat line from the Amazon to within 200 miles of the navigable waters of the Paraguay. A decree was issued, extending to the end of 1869 the permission conceded to foreign vessels to engage in transport between Brazilian ports possessing custom-houses.

The ratifications of the powers accorded in the international telegraph concession made to Ballestrini having been exchanged, Brazil should, by the terms of the concession, be placed in telegraphic communication with Europe and the United States within three years, by laying a cable from Para to one of the French Antilles, to which the European cable will be laid, and from which the communication with the United States will pass by Hayti and St. Thomas. The parties to the convention are Brazil, Denmark, France, Hayti, Italy, and Portugal.

BREMEN,* a republic belonging to the North-German Confederation. Burgomasters, Johann David Meyer (1867–'71), President of the Senate for the year 1870; Arnold Duckwitz (1865–'69), President of the Senate for the year 1869. Area, 74 square miles; population of the republic in 1867, 109,572; of the city of Bremen, 74,945. In the budget for 1869, the revenue is estimated at 2,220,114 thalers; the expenditure at 2,162,406 thalers; surplus, 57,708 thalers. The imports, in 1868, were valued at 52,680,000 thalers (gold); the exports at 69,490,000 thalers. The merchant navy, at the close of the year 1868, consisted of 307 vessels, together of 122,356 lasts (one last 4,000 lbs.). The statistics of emigration from the port of Bremen, in 1867 and 1868, were as follows:

EMIGRANTS FROM	1867.	1868.
North-German Confederation.	38,666	42,370
South Germany	16,199	12,382
Austria	15,303	7,398
Other Countries	3,833	4,263
Total	74,001	66,413
Of whom went to the United States	70,951	64,663

BROUGHTON, Sir John Cam Hobhouse, first Baron, G. C. B., F. R. S., an English liberal statesman and cabinet officer, born near Bristol, Eng., June 27, 1786; died in London, June 3, 1869. He was the eldest son of Sir Benjamin Hobhouse, a wealthy manufacturer of Bristol, and was educated at Westminster, and at Trinity College, Cambridge, taking his degree at Cambridge in 1808. While at the university, he contracted an intimacy with Lord Byron, and in 1809 accompanied the poet in his travels in Turkey and Greece, and other parts of Southern Europe, and subsequently in Switzerland and Italy; and, after his return to England, he published an account of these travels in a book which he called "A Journey through Albania and other Provinces of Turkey, with Lord Byron," London, 1812, which was highly commended. He also appended some notes, over his own signature, to Byron's "Childe Harold," the fourth canto of which the poet dedicated to him. This, however, was not his first work, for in 1809 appeared, with his name, a collection of compositions, under the title of "Imitations and Translations from the Classics, with Original Poems." Four years after the publication of his "Journey," he appeared again before the public with an elaborate work, entitled "The Last Reign of Napoleon." This was in two volumes, and gave a complete and entertaining description of the eventful "hundred days," of which he was an intensely interested eye-witness. He also published "Historical Illustrations of the Fourth Canto of Childe Harold," and was a frequent contributor to *Blackwood*, *Fraser's*, the *Westminster Review*, and other periodicals. He first became conspicuous in political life in 1819, by the publication of his "Letters to an Englishman," which were tinged with strong radical opinions, and contained such a severe attack on the House of Commons, that he was

* For further information, see the article Germany in this volume, and article Bremen in the American Annual Cyclopædia for 1868.

imprisoned in Newgate on a charge of having committed a breach of privilege. These letters and his imprisonment brought him prominently before the public, and, upon his release, he was taken up by the electors of Westminster, who, feeling that he had been unfairly treated, in spite of the strenuous and animated opposition of the Whigs, returned him to Parliament after a memorable contest. In Parliament he showed himself an able speaker and an energetic reformer, but his radical opinions became so far modified that in 1831 he entered the Cabinet of Earl Grey as Secretary of War. In 1833 he was made Secretary of State for Ireland, but was defeated in his canvass for a re-election before the Westminster electors. The next year he was returned from Nottingham, which he represented till 1847; and he sat for Harwich for a few years previous to his elevation to the peerage as Lord Broughton, Baron Broughton of Gyford, in 1851. In the Cabinet of Lord Melbourne he was president of the Board of Control, and Chief Commissioner of Woods and Forests; and in the Russell Administration in 1846–'52 he again held the former position. In 1853 he was for a short time a member of the Coalition Cabinet, but with that exception had taken no active part in public affairs after his elevation to the peerage. He received at that time the grand cross of the Order of the Bath, and was soon after named one of her majesty's Privy Council. Lord Broughton retained his intellectual faculties in great perfection till the close of life.

BRUNSWICK, a duchy belonging to the North-German Confederation. Duke, Wilhelm I., born April 25, 1806; succeeded his brother, Duke Karl, in 1830. (*See* GERMANY.)

C

CALIFORNIA, one of the Pacific States of the American Union, bounded by Oregon on the north, by Nevada and Arizona on the east, Lower California on the south, and the Pacific Ocean on the west. Area, 188,981 square miles. Its population in 1866 was 470,597, and in 1869 was estimated at somewhat more than 600,000. (For the various nationalities of which this population is composed, *see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.) The State is said to contain 120,947,841 acres of land, of which it is estimated that 89,000,000 can be devoted to profitable husbandry. The election which occurred on the 20th of October, 1869, was for eighty members of Assembly; one-half (twenty) members of the State Senate, eight or ten of the fourteen District Judges, and two Associate Judges of the Supreme Court. The term of office of the other State officers does not expire till 1871. The two parties held their conventions in June, and, among other topics, both considered the subject of Chinese immigration.

The Republican Convention nominated Lorenzo Sawyer and O. C. Pratt for Judges of the Supreme Court, and passed resolutions pledging support to the Republican party and indorsing the Administration; asserting that the negro question has ceased to be an element of American politics, and declaring that the ratification of the Fifteenth Amendment should be followed by an act of universal amnesty and enfranchisement to the Southern people; regarding with satisfaction the immigration to the State from the Atlantic States and Europe, but, while giving preference to the people of our own race, holds inoffensive immigrants from China entitled to full protection, but opposing suffrage to the Chinese in any form, and any change in the naturalization laws of the United States; recognizing the power of the General Government to restrict or prevent Chinese immigration by terminating our commercial relations with China, but believing that the closing of our ports at present against the Chinese would be injurious to the national interests and cast reproach upon the intelligence of the American people, as being contrary to the spirit of the age; approving of the eight-hour law; indorsing the action of Congress respecting the Alabama treaty, and considering it the duty of the General Government to demand full reparation for the injury inflicted by the British Government and people upon our commerce during the rebellion; favoring the equalization of taxation of all kinds of property in the States; and approving the grants of State aid to railroads.

The Democratic Convention nominated Joseph B. Crockett and William T. Wallace for Justices of the Supreme Court, and passed resolutions declaring their confidence in the intelligence, patriotism, and ability of the white people of the country to administer and control their government without the aid of either negroes or Chinese; expressing their alarm at the attempts of the unscrupulous majority in Congress to absorb the powers of the Executive and Judicial departments of the Federal Government, and to annihilate the rights of the State governments; declared the subjection of the whites of the South to a mass of ignorant negroes and their disfranchisement, etc., an unparalleled outrage and wrong; opposed the policy of lending the credit of the State to railway and other corporations; advocated the eight-hour law and the rights of the working-men; opposed the adoption of the Fifteenth Constitutional Amendment, for a variety of reasons, among which were the influence it would exert in favor of Chinese immigration, the probability of their being allowed to vote and hold office, and the consequent creation of an aristocratic class, created and maintained by Chinese votes; opposing the admission of

the Chinese into the State, and their competition with white laborers; arraigning the Radical party for its profligacy, tyranny, extortion, disfranchisement, and contempt of constitutional obligations, and for its appointment of healthy and able-bodied negroes to office, while capable white citizens were suffering for the common necessaries of life; and approved of the economy and efficiency of the Democratic State government.

At the election the Democratic candidates were elected; Wallace by a majority of 5,756 votes, and Crockett by a majority of 10,292 votes, and the new Legislature stood as follows: Senate, 26 Democrats, 11 Republicans, and 3 Independents. House of Representatives, 67 Democrats, 10 Republicans, and 3 Independents. Of the District Judges elected, all were Democrats.

The railroad enterprises in California have made great progress during the year 1869. The Central Pacific, which had at the beginning of the year passed her borders, was, in May, united to the Union Pacific at Ogden, and a continuous railway line bound together the Atlantic and Pacific coasts; quickening immensely the commerce and the mechanical, manufacturing, mining, and agricultural interests of the State, and giving it at once a position of equality with the older States of the East. Of this Central Pacific road, 138 miles only are within the bounds of California; but aside from this there are twenty-three other railroads in progress, or completed in the State, with a total finished length on the 1st of November, 1869, of 672 miles, and a projected extent of about 2,500 miles. The roads already completed have cost, in round numbers, $46,650,000, and those in progress will undoubtedly require $80,000,000 for their cost of roadway and equipment.

The amount of gold mined in the State, in 1869, is not accurately known, considerable sums having been sent to San Francisco from adjacent gold-producing territories, while a portion of the State product, since the opening of the Pacific Railway, finds its way eastward without going to San Francisco. From the best data, however, there is reason to believe that it did not vary greatly from the aggregate of the previous year; new processes, and greater care and labor, having made up for the less abundant yield of some of the mines. For the first six months of the year, $21,046,000 in coin and bullion were exported from San Francisco. The exports of merchandise from the same port from September, 1868, to July, 1869, were $21,844,000; one-half of which was of flour and wheat; quicksilver, $921,000; furs, $987,000; wool, $2,378,000; and wine, $800,000.

The time has passed when the products of the gold-mines of the State will constitute her greatest source of wealth or of exports. While the export of gold and silver will probably not vary much from $40,000,000 (not wholly from her own territory), merchandise, including quicksilver, wheat and flour, wines, silk, both in cocoons and manufactured, fruits, in which the traffic since the opening of the Pacific Railroad is large, wool and woollen manufactures, in some of which the State greatly excels, barley, esculent roots, olives and olive-oil, figs, etc., etc., will speedily equal and surpass her exports of treasure. Her manufactures at the beginning of 1869 exceeded $35,000,000, and during the year took a great step forward, especially in wine and silk. The agricultural products of the State at the same time exceeded $36,000,000, and every year is bringing larger quantities of new land into cultivation, and in the districts hitherto affected by drought is accomplishing almost miraculous results by means of irrigation. The swamp or *tule* lands, overflown hitherto by the rivers in the rainy season, have to a considerable extent been drained and diked, and, the *tule* rushes having been burnt, reveal a soil of the most wonderful fertility, yielding in the case of the Suisun Bay Islands 83.5 bushels of wheat to the acre, and 112 bushels of barley to the acre, without ploughing. New articles of cultivation are constantly introduced; during the past year colonies of Japanese have taken up lands in the State, and commenced the culture of tea and the rearing of silk-worms, according to their customs. The orange, fig, pomegranate, and olive, are coming extensively into cultivation in the southern part of the State, and the production of wheat (the Californian wheat being in great demand from its peculiarly nutritious character) increases largely with each year. The culture of the grape in California, both for wine and brandy, and as a table-fruit, has become unprecedented in extent. It is estimated that there are sixty millions of vines now growing in the State, and most of them bearing. Over one hundred and fifty varieties of the grape are cultivated, including the choicest European kinds, which do better in that climate and soil than they ever did in their native region. California wines are now a staple article of commerce, and the demand for them is increasing fully as fast as the supply. It is said that large quantities of spurious wines are manufactured in San Francisco, and shipped to the Eastern States; but the genuine product of the California vineyards in 1869 was over 10,000,000 gallons. The silk culture, it was estimated, would reach a production of sixty million cocoons during 1869, with a very much greater increase in the coming years, the only difficulty now experienced being that of providing sufficient food for the silk-worms. The assessed value of real and personal estate for 1869 (the assessed value never exceeding 50 per cent. of the real value, and often falling below it) was above $250,000,000, to which were to be added about $23,000,000 exempt from taxation. Of this assessed valuation one-half was of property in San Francisco County.

The wool product of California has been

steadily and rapidly increasing for several years. The product of the Pacific coast in 1868 was 16,086,656 lbs., of which 706,800 lbs. were from Oregon, Washington Territory, and British Columbia; in 1869 the product of the coast was a little more than twenty million pounds, of which nineteen million pounds were from California. About three million pounds were consumed by the woollen-mills of the State, and the remainder was shipped to New York and Boston. The refining of sugar and the cultivation of both the sugar-cane and sorghum are making very great progress. The cultivation of the sugar-beet for sugar has not yet, we believe, been attempted to any great extent in the State, but in the deep, rich soil and the long, rainless season of California, it could not fail to be followed with greater success than has attended it elsewhere.

The iron and steel manufactories and the founderies, and machine and locomotive works, the greater part of them located in San Francisco, are constantly increasing and enlarging their facilities for work. The greater part of the locomotives, and most of the cars for supplying the twenty-one railroads finished or in progress in the State, are manufactured in that city; as are also the arastras, quartz-crushers, steam-engines, and other machinery required both in quartz and hydraulic mining in California, Nevada, Montana, Idaho, Oregon, Washington, and Arizona. This business seems to admit of an almost indefinite extension, and the iron and copper of the State furnish supplies of the raw material for a considerable portion of the work. We have alluded to the culture of fruit, as a specialty in which California would undoubtedly excel any other State of the Union. The fruits are generally larger and finer than those of other sections of the country, and the trees commence bearing earlier and yield more profusely. It is said that some of the fruits, and especially apples, plums, and apricots, have not so fine a flavor as those of the Eastern States, but the pear, the peach, and the cherry, are unrivalled both in size and quality. The following table shows the number of fruit-trees and fruit-bearing plants which were reported in the State in 1867. The most intelligent agriculturists of the State say that the number has been more than doubled since that time, and, in the case of the fig, lemon, orange, and olive trees, quadrupled. The quantity of small fruits has also been more than quadrupled:

Fruit-trees, Vines, etc.

Apple-trees	1,217,790
Peach "	969,692
Pear "	802,892
Plum "	195,896
Cherry "	93,998
Nectarine-trees	43,999
Quince "	40,404
Apricot "	52,808
Fig "	33,924
Lemon "	3,712
Orange "	17,281
Olive "	14,833
Prune-trees	6,527
Almond "	25,319
Walnut "	15,614
Gooseberry-bushes	172,783
Raspberry "	1,336,048
Strawberry-vines	9,981,575

The mulberry-trees, reported in 1868 as 1,175,000, had reached over two millions in July of 1869, and were being put out as fast as slips could be obtained. Mr. Prevost, the pioneer of the silk culture, reports, in Los Angeles County, the growth of single shoots, fourteen feet in length in one year, and that cuttings planted in the spring, or, rather, in February, furnished abundant food for the silk-worms of the second crop, in August following.

The cultivation of sumac for tanning purposes has been commenced on a large scale on the foot-hills of the Sierra Nevada and on the sterile plains, which have been hitherto regarded as utterly worthless. It is said to yield from one to two tons to the acre, and to be very easily cultivated. This quality of sumac brings in the New York market from $100 to $120 per ton.

The timber and lumber product of California itself is diminishing; the redwood, their principal and best forest-tree for these purposes, being confined to the fog belt of the Pacific slope of the Sierra Nevada, and being so susceptible of climatic changes, that where it is cut off it does not make a second growth, but is replaced by other hardier, but less valuable woods; but the supply of timber and lumber from Oregon, Washington, and British Columbia, is apparently inexhaustible, and this insures lumber to California at low prices. The Central Pacific Railroad has consumed immense quantities of lumber and timber, not only in the construction of the road, but in the erection of its miles of snow-sheds and its stations.

The immigration to California, since the completion of the Pacific Railroad, has been very large, both by that road and by the steamships. Much of this immigration is from Europe, though the tide is also setting strongly toward its shores from China and Japan, and there is a certainty of the speedy settlement of large colonies of Japanese, to engage in agriculture in the State. The southern portion of the State, which had long been somewhat neglected, has, for two or three years past, attracted the attention of immigrants, and the population of the southern counties has in that time more than doubled. The climate of this part of the State is said to be salubrious and delightful, well adapted to the relief of invalids suffering from pulmonary diseases, and the subtropical fruits, the fig, orange, lemon, pomegranate, banana, and the more delicate varieties of grapes, grow there in great profusion.

Education in California is making excellent progress. The schools of the cities and larger towns are unsurpassed by those of any section of the country, and the academies and schools

for higher education take rank with the best in the country. The University of California has, in the autumn of 1869, opened its doors to all comers who can pass its preliminary examinations, without fee of any kind for tuition, being the first absolutely free college in the world. The advantages it offers, though of course not in all respects equal to those of the older and more amply-endowed universities of the East, are yet of such a character that the student, who is in earnest to acquire an education, will find the facilities for attaining it above the average of our younger colleges.

CANDIA, or CRETE. *See* TURKEY.

CARLETON, WILLIAM, an Irish novelist of remarkable ability, born in Clogher (or, according to Chambers, Prillisk), County Tyrone, Ireland, in 1798; died in Dublin, January 30, 1869. He was the son of a tenant farmer in comfortable circumstances, a man of more than ordinary intelligence, and remarkably familiar with the prejudices, the sympathies, superstitions, and legends of the Irish peasantry. The early education of young Carleton was meagre and desultory, being obtained in part from his father's teachings, and in part from a hedge-school, but his father was desirous to have him educated for the priesthood, and he was accordingly sent at the age of seventeen to a school at Glasslough, kept by a relative who was a priest. Here, while acting as an usher, he picked up a tolerable acquaintance with Latin, and a considerable acquaintance with English literature. At the age of nineteen, he left this school, and after leading a sort of vagabond life for some years, writing occasionally for the papers, and having abandoned all idea of the priesthood, and all regard for Catholicism, he repaired to Dublin with but three shillings in his pocket, and sought to obtain a livelihood by his pen. He wrote first a controversial story, published by a Protestant society, which gained him some fame; but his "Traits and Stories of the Irish Peasantry," the first series of which appeared in 1830, gave him his first considerable reputation. Their freshness of style pleased the public and won the favor of the critics. A second series, equally popular with the first, appeared in 1832, and Carleton became thenceforth for some years a regular contributor to the *Dublin University Magazine*, the *Dublin Penny Journal*, and other periodicals. His "Fardorougha the Miser," one of his most powerful novels, appeared in 1839, and in 1841 he published three volumes of stories, mostly of pathetic interest, but including his fine humorous sketch of "The Misfortunes of Barney Branagan," which was very popular. In 1845 appeared his "Valentine McClutchy," a half-political novel, defending the Irish Catholic clergy, and advocating the repeal of the Union. To this followed "Rody the Rover," 1846; "The Black Prophet," 1847; "The Tithe Proctor," all political and partisan novels, but exhibiting in a marked degree his genius. "Willy Reilly," in three volumes, was published in 1855, and "The Evil Eye" in 1860. While other writers have been more or less successful in depicting many phases of Irish life, William Carleton is the only writer who has presented with exactness, and a thorough insight into its peculiarities, the real character of the Irish peasant, with whom he seemed to be in perfect sympathy. His merits as a writer, notwithstanding his partisanship, were so thoroughly appreciated by the British Government, that he was awarded a literary pension of £200 a year. For some years past he had been unable to write.

CENTRAL AMERICA. There are at present in Central America five independent republics: Costa Rica, Guatemala, San Salvador, Nicaragua, and Honduras.

The area and population of the five republics, in 1869, were as follows:

REPUBLICS.	Area.	Population.	CAPITALS.	Population of Capitals.
Costa Rica,.....	21,400	135,000	San José.....	25,000
Guatemala	44,800	1,180,000	Guatemala....	40,000
San Salvador...	7,300	600,000	San Salvador..	20,000
Nicaragua.....	58,100	400,000	Managua	10,000
Honduras.....	47,100	350,000	Comayagua ...	8,000
Total.....	178,700	2,665,000		

1. *Costa Rica.*—This republic is one of the best governed in Central America. The inhabitants are industrious and prosperous, and internal strife, the curse of Spanish America, is less known than in most of the other States. Its new constitution seems to be quite a liberal one, except in relation to the law on liberty of the press. Jesus Jimenez has been elected to the presidency for the term 1869 to 1872. The Government has entered into a contract with several citizens of the United States for the construction of an interoceanic railroad from Simon Bay to the Gulf of Nicoya. The capital was to be $10,000,000, divided into shares of $100 each. The company was to commence work within three months after the ratification of the contract; the first thirty miles of the road were to be completed eighteen months from the date of the ratification, and the remainder in five years. The Government, in aid of the enterprise, was to issue bonds, payable forty years after the completion of the road, in United States currency, drawing an annual interest of eight per cent.

2. *Guatemala.*—The industrial and agricultural interests of Guatemala are highly prosperous, owing to the peace and tranquillity which this republic has so long enjoyed. The cultivation of indigo and sugar has received the special attention of the Government.

A very large commerce is carried on with San Francisco, and an effort is being made to establish a line of steamers between the ports of Central America and California. The reduction of ten per cent. on the dues on foreign merchandise imported through the ports of Izabal and Santo Thomas will be continued for six years longer.

Peace prevailed throughout the republic, with unimportant exceptions. There was an attempt at revolution on the Mexican frontier, headed by Serapio Cruz, who, for two years past, was constantly trying to disturb the peace. He and his band secreted themselves in the mountains, and made occasional raids in the surrounding country. On the 6th of December, 1869, a severe fight took place between the forces of Serapio Cruz and those of the Government, in the town of Huehuetenango. The Government forces to the number of 200, under the command of Captain Calonge, were intrenched in the plaza, behind barricades, which were defended by two small pieces of artillery. Cruz had 1,000 of all arms, a majority of whom were Indians, under his command. He endeavored to take the place by assailing it simultaneously at all available points, and at the same time setting fire to the houses in different parts. The firing lasted twenty-five hours, at the end of which Cruz retired with the loss of 100 killed and 150 wounded, besides war material lost in the retreat.

President Cerna granted full pardon to all prisoners undergoing punishment for crimes, who rendered useful service during the late epidemic in Escuintla. He was, in 1869, reelected to the presidency, for the period from May 24, 1869, to December 31, 1872.

3. *San Salvador.*—The President Dueñas, who was reëlected to the presidency for the period from 1868 to 1873, draws in his message to Congress, in January, a cheerful picture of the condition of this little republic.

The indigo crop of 1868 was estimated at 14,000 ceroons. Several large sugar-machines were imported, and have given a new impulse to the growth of sugar-cane. Coffee and cotton are the next most important articles of export. The official report of the income and expenses of the Government for 1868 shows a balance in favor of the State of $59,988. The revenue for the same year has been $938,412, being $106,251 over 1867, showing how the country is progressing under the management of the present Government. The reports from Acajutla, the most northern port, show a great increase in the export of coffee and sugar. The value of the exports for the nine months, ending September 30th, amounted to $739,680.

4. *Nicaragua.*—President Guzman enjoys the confidence and esteem of the republic. When an attempt was made by some of his political enemies to poison him and his family, the greatest sympathy was expressed for him throughout the country. Had the attempt succeeded, probably a general revolution would have been the consequence. Some serious charges having been made in and out of Congress against the President, he made known his intention to resign, when Congress passed, on the 19th of March, a resolution approving all his acts and those of his ministers; for all that he sent in his resignation in a message terminating in these words: "I am resolved to retain no longer a position wherein I have only reaped deceptions, bitterness, and miserable disappointment." Congress returned an answer full of praise and satisfaction, refused to accept the resignation, and amid much apparent rejoicing succeeded in prevailing upon him to retain power.

The contract made by Mr. Ayon, minister of Nicaragua at Paris, in October, 1868, with the French Senator, Chevalier, for the opening of a canal across Nicaragua, was ratified by the Senate, and Senator Montealegre was appointed special envoy to the Republic of Costa Rica to enter upon negotiations. Treaties of friendship and commerce with Costa Rica and San Salvador were likewise confirmed by the Senate.

Congress authorized the Government to establish at the most convenient place a hospital for lepers. By another decree, approved by the President, Frederick H. Alberding and his copartners are granted the privilege to introduce Chinese coolies, engaged voluntarily in their own country or elsewhere, and brought directly to Nicaragua. The privilege is for ten years, the coolie contracts to be for eight years, after which they shall be free. Vessels bringing coolies are to be exempt from anchorage and tonnage dues; the said Alberding & Co. to pay fifty cents for each coolie brought to the hospital at Leon.

Nicaragua has not enjoyed peace throughout the year 1869. There was, however, a mutual desire to settle pending questions without shedding much blood. An armistice was agreed to between the Government and the insurgents, which was followed by an agreement signed October 25, 1869. The terms of peace are briefly as follows:

"1. That the Government will in no way persecute those who have taken part in the revolution, who shall have entire liberty to leave or return to the republic. 2. That the Government will nominate General Sebastian Gutierrez as Governor of Leon. 3. That the Government will, within six months, convoke a Constituent Assembly. 4. That this Assembly shall decide in what manner the debt created by the revolution shall be paid. 5. That all arms and munitions of war in the power of the revolutionary forces shall be warehoused in Leon and handed over to a person to be nominated by the commander-in-chief (the United States minister was the person subsequently so nominated); clauses 6 and 7 guarantee liberty in the elections, and arrange for the appointment of civil officers; and, finally, the eighth article stipulates for the punctual observance of the foregoing clauses."

Immediately afterward a general disarmament commenced in Leon, the previous headquarters of the revolutionary party. The President, with his troops, entered Leon on the 30th October. Of the revolutionary leaders, General Martinez went to San Salvador, and General Jerez to Costa Rica. Great credit is due

to the United States ministers of Nicaragua, Costa Rica, and Honduras, for their efforts in restoring peace to Nicaragua. Later, however, hostilities were renewed, and some engagements took place, resulting in favor of the Government party, and in the suppression of the insurrection. In December, 1869, the President issued a decree, appointing January 1st as the day on which martial law should cease, and convoking the Congress of the republic for the same day.

The Government issued a decree exempting from import dues many articles applicable to manufacturing and agricultural purposes, as follows:

The Citizen President of the Republic to its Inhabitants:

Whereas, in the decree of the 31st of March last, setting forth the internal dues to be levied upon the original value of merchandise imported into the republic, nothing is said in relation to articles exempt from duties, in order to avoid embarrassments to the prompt dispatch of business at custom-houses, in the exercise of his powers, he decrees:

ARTICLE 1. No import duty whatever shall accrue at any of the ports of the republic upon the following articles: Quicksilver, ploughs, large hammers, wool-cards, weed-hooks, scythes, grinding and winnowing machines, shovels, yokes, hand-pumps for cisterns, cases of agricultural implements, pruning-shears and tar, empty barrels, hydraulic pumps and pitch; drays, hand-carts, children's carriages, cultivators, geographical charts, crucibles for melting metals, copper nails for vessels, bags or sacks of all kinds, and Roman cement; barrel staves or shooks, surgical and mathematical instruments, and oakum; guano and any other matter for manuring lands, and globes for geographical instruction; flour and grains of all kinds, printing-presses, astronomical, physical, hydraulic, and chemical instruments, not already specified; printed books and printing-type, cotton duck for vessels' sails, and manta drill, when imported by owners of ships or vessels; organs for churches, and gold coined or in bullion, mills for pulverizing coffee or any other grain, machetes, or large knives, and "macanas;" maguey cords for rigging, when imported for their own use by the owners of ships; silver in plate or coined, ruled paper for music, areometers, millstones, pieces of machinery for all industrial purposes; corrosive sublimate, and seeds of all plants, lumber for house-building, poisons prepared for the preservation of skins and hides, and spirits of turpentine.

ART. 2. The invoice value of the principal of the articles expressed will be deducted by the administration of the customs at the time of effecting the liquidations.

ART. 3. The present law will commence to have effect forty days from and after this date.

Given at Managua, the 2d of November, 1869.

PEDRO JOAQUIN CHAMORRO.

RAMON SAENZ, Secretary of the Treasury.

In December, a decree was published with reference to customs regulations, providing that all shippers of goods to Nicaraguan ports should produce to the Nicaraguan Consul, for his signature, in the port from which they are shipped, an invoice in duplicate, expressing the quantity and description of the merchandise, the number, weight, and measurement of the packages, without which goods entering the ports of the republic will be liable to seizure.

CHEMISTRY (*see, also*, HYDROGENIUM).—*A New Fluorescent Substance.*—Mr. John Parnell gives to the *Philosophical Magazine* for August an account of a new fluorescent substance, which he calls Fluoraniline. When aniline is heated with mercuric chloride, this substance is produced in considerable quantities, besides the ordinary formation of aniline red. His mode of obtaining it is as follows: The crude mass resulting from the heating of aniline with mercuric chloride is dissolved in dilute hydrochloric acid; ammonia is then added in excess, and a final washing-out given with ether. The ethereal solution thus obtained must be repeatedly washed with water until the washings cease to acquire a pink color. Thus purified, it has a greenish-yellow color, and exhibits a green fluorescence. When evaporated to dryness spontaneously, the residue consists of two amorphous substances, one red and the other orange, the fluorescence being apparently due to the latter, which exists in the proportion of about 10 per cent. of the amount of aniline red. Fluoraniline is almost insoluble in water when cold, but slightly soluble in hot water, being precipitated as the water cools. It is soluble in dilute hydrochloric, nitric, sulphuric, and acetic acids, giving fluorescent solutions; is not affected by sulphide of ammonium, and but slightly by hypochlorite of calcium. When a beam of sunlight, made conical by a quartz lens, is projected on a concentrated ethereal solution of fluoraniline, all the rays capable of developing fluorescence are absorbed at the surface, so that no cone of light is visible in the solution; but with a dilute solution a brilliant green cone is produced. The colors of the ethereal solution and its fluorescence bear a remarkable resemblance to those of uranium, but with this difference, that when the fluorescent light is examined in the spectroscope, while the fluorescent spectrum of uranium is discontinuous, that of fluoraniline is continuous. The author has also discovered, in the aniline red made from stannic chloride, another fluorescent substance associated with fluoraniline, of which the fluorescent spectrum consists of red, a very bright-green band, and some blue only. To the unassisted eye, the fluorescence has a cold blue tint.

Ammonium Alloys and Nascent-Hydrogen Tests.—In a paper communicated to the *Philosophical Magazine* for July, Albert H. Gallatin, M. D., of New York, throws some light on the vexed question of the existence of the metal ammonium, as determined from its alloys. He starts out with the proposition that if hydrogen escaping from an ammoniacal amalgam can be shown to be in a nascent state, it would be evidence that it had just been in chemical combination with the ammonia—in other words, that metallic ammonium existed in the amalgam. This he claims to have established as follows: Some pellets of sodium were placed in contact with some particles of the transparent variety of phosphorus, wrapped in bibulous paper and

plunged beneath the surface of water. A red glow was seen; and, as the nascent hydrogen came into contact with the phosphorus, bubbles of phosphide of hydrogen were formed. Occasionally one would inflame as it came in contact with the atmosphere, placing the nature of the reaction beyond doubt. As phosphide of hydrogen cannot be formed by direct synthesis if ordinary free hydrogen be employed, this becomes a test for the presence of that gas in a free state. Hydrogen escaping from an ammoniacal amalgam was now tested by this process. A sodium amalgam dipped beneath a solution of chloride of ammonium was employed, and it became necessary to wait until the sodium was exhausted, that the result might not be vitiated by the nascent hydrogen escaping from the water. At the proper time the decomposing amalgam was covered with fragments of transparent phosphorus, when many bubbles of inflammable phosphide of hydrogen were obtained. The hydrogen must therefore have been in the nascent state, and just escaping from the ammonium.

Dr. Gallatin then proceeded to ascertain whether an alloy could be effected between ammonium and bismuth. He melted some bismuth in a porcelain dish and alloyed it with sodium by dropping a piece of that metal on the clear surface of the melted bismuth. Chloride of ammonium was then dusted on the fluid alloy, and water added in a fine, quick stream. The bismuth swelled, appeared pasty and porous, and then congealed, an abundance of hydrogen escaping at the time, and the ammoniacal odor being set free. The remaining substance was then dried. If placed near the ear, a distinct crackling sound was heard—a phenomenon which lasted several days. To ascertain if this was ammonium escaping from the bismuth, the body was placed beneath water, when bubbles of hydrogen escaped, easily collected and recognized. A variety of tests showed this to be nascent hydrogen, thereby demonstrating that there had been a true alloy between the metals ammonium and bismuth. The temperature of the alloy being raised, it rapidly decomposed with a crackling noise—and on one occasion exploded sharply, scattering the metal. Some of the superficial differences between an ammonium amalgam and an alloy of ammonium with bismuth is this: that in the former pores may be seen, produced by the escaping ammonium long after the water has exhausted the sodium, but those pores are evanescent; while in the latter the same pores, produced by the same cause, remain, and may be examined at leisure.

The *American Journal of Science* for May gives the following statement of interesting experiments upon the ammonium-amalgam, made by Landolt, and reported in detail in the *Ann. Chem. Pharm.*:

It (the ammonium-amalgam) was prepared from a solution of ammonic chloride by electrolysis in the ordinary way, the negative electrode being connected with mercury contained in a porous cup filled with the ammoniacal liquid, while the positive electrode dipped into mercury in an outer glass vessel, also filled with the solution of chloride of ammonium. When the current from 6 to 10 Grove's cells was employed, the positive electrode became covered with a layer of calomel, while the mercury in contact with the negative electrode slowly increased in bulk, evolving no gas until the point of saturation was reached. Landolt first determined the ratio of the ammonia gas evolved to the hydrogen, by placing the amalgam in dilute hydrochloric acid of known strength, and measuring the hydrogen evolved. The ammonia was then calculated from the quantity of the acid which it saturated. To free the amalgam from the ammonia contained in the solution, it was washed with water; but, as the decomposition continued and only the hydrogen escaped, it was evident that the ammonia thus retained must give too high a result. The first experiment gave 1 : 2.15 as the ratio between the hydrogen and the ammonia by volume. The second—in which the amalgam was less quickly placed in the acid—gave the ratio 1 : 2.4. These results, which entirely confirm those of Davy, establish, as Landolt believes, the conclusion that the compound NH_4 is taken up as a whole by the mercury. This is proved by the above ratio, because, were the gases separately absorbed, they would be set free again in very different proportions. In the second place, Landolt attempted a determination of the amount of the ammonium thus combined with the mercury. The amalgam was placed in a standard dilute hydrochloric acid as before; the ammonium was calculated from the quantity of acid neutralized, and the mercury was determined by collecting and weighing it. The results varied from .054 to .090 per cent. of NH_4, owing to the rapid decomposition which took place. Evidently the maximum result is nearest the truth; and, if 100 parts of mercury take up 0.09 parts of NH_4, the amalgam in decomposing should yield for each volume of mercury 15.2 volumes ammonia and 7.6 volumes hydrogen; numbers which hold good for the compound prepared at ordinary temperatures. On the metallic nature of ammonium, too, Landolt made some experiments. Starting with the well-known fact that potassium or sodium-amalgam will throw down most metals from solutions of their salts, he argues that the ammonium-amalgam, if analogous, should do the same. Freshly-prepared ammonium-amalgam was placed in the metallic solution, the separated mercury was washed with water, dissolved in nitric acid and examined for the metal whose solution had been used. The result with cupric sulphate, argentic nitrate, and ferric chloride solutions was entirely negative, though at least 100 grammes of the amalgam were employed. While, therefore, NH_4 combines as such with the mercury, its metallic character is doubtful; further researches only can decide its nature.

Jargonium, a new Element.—Mr. H. C. Sorby, in his researches into the constitution of zircons, discovered, in a variety of that mineral known as the Ceylon jargon, evidences of a new substance, which he has called Jargonium. He describes the spectrum of it as most remarkable. He says: "It is quite unlike any thing previously seen. It contains about a dozen absorption bands, which are not mere shades, like what is generally seen in solid bodies, but in narrow, perfectly black lines, like those seen in the spectra of colored gases. It is not due to zirconia, because some zircons show no trace of such a spectrum. As far as I can make out, the lines are not due to any substance known to produce absorption bands. So far, it is a com-

plete puzzle, and I am half inclined to believe that it may turn out to be due to some unknown element. Unfortunately, the amount of material at disposal is far too small to admit of analysis, and, curiously enough, it does not give any bands when melted with borax, but only a colorless bead. I may say that the mineral which gives this wonderful spectrum is nearly colorless, and becomes almost absolutely so when red-heated, and remains colorless, but gives the same wonderful bands, when cold. I have since examined a number of jargons and other zircons. There does not seem to be a trace of the new substance in any except those from Ceylon, and most of these only contain a small quantity, in comparison with the very remarkable specimen which must contain so much."

In a note to the London *Chemical News*, of April 30th, Mr. Sorby gives the following additional information: "In my last note I told you that I had found in zircons what appeared to be another elementary substance. I have, since then, made many experiments, and find that the facts are really far more interesting than if they were the effect of a new element. Judging from analogy with all other known substances, no other conclusion could have been formed; but I now find that jargonia exists in two distinct conditions, which have different specific gravities and optical properties. The flamed borax-beads give two entirely different spectra, according to the temperature to which the enclosed crystals have been exposed; and there is an analogous difference in the silicates. On taking a pale-green jargon, which, naturally, showed a mere faint trace of the absorption bands, and keeping it at a bright-red heat for some time, the specific gravity gradually increased from 4.20 to 4.52, and the spectrum then showed all the narrow black absorption bands in as great perfection as my best specimen. This fact is, of course, very interesting; since we can now artificially alter jargons so as to show the bands in the same splendid manner as a few do naturally, and shall thus be able to obtain them without much difficulty, to use as a most excellent natural standard scale, to measure the position of the absorption bands in other spectra."

It is an interesting fact that, at a meeting of the New York Lyceum of Natural History, prior to the report of the discovery of jargonium by Mr. Sorby in England, Prof. Locer announced his own discovery of the same supposed element. There is no doubt that the two discoveries were made independently of each other—a coincidence which not unfrequently happens in the world of science.

Apomorphia.—Dr. Matthiessen has succeeded in preparing a new base, to which he gives this name. He seals up morphia in a tube with a large excess of hydrochloric acid, and heats it to 140° or 150° C. for two or three hours. The residue in the tube contains the hydrochlorate of a new base, differing considerably in its properties from morphia. It may be obtained in a state of purity by dissolving the contents of the tube in water, adding excess of bicarbonate of soda, and extracting the precipitate with ether or chloroform, in both of which the new base is readily soluble, while morphia is almost insoluble in both menstrua. After being exposed to the air, it turns green, and when dissolved in water gives it a fine emerald color, in alcohol a green tint, in ether a magnificent rose-purple, and in chloroform a fine violet color. Its physiological effects are different from those of morphia. A small dose produces speedy vomiting and considerable depression; but this soon passes off, leaving no after ill effects. One-tenth of a grain subcutaneously injected, or a quarter of a grain taken in the mouth, produces vomiting in from four to ten minutes.

Artificial Production of Alizarin.—Synthetic chemistry, or the chemistry which artificially produces substances formed by natural processes in plants and animals, has achieved another triumph during the year, in the manufacture of alizarin (the principal coloring matter in madder-root). Messrs. Griebe and Liebermann are the discoverers of the process, the details of which are not yet published. They obtain alizarin from anthracene; the latter being a body found in the heavy semi-fluid portions of coal-tar. Anthracene, as separated in an impure state, is a yellow, soft, butter-like substance, but when purified is obtained in colorless plates with a silky lustre, very like naphthaline in appearance. Its relation to natural alizarin is represented in the following formulæ:

$$\underbrace{C_{14}H_{10}}_{\text{Anthracene.}} \qquad \underbrace{C_{14}H_{10}O_4}_{\text{Alizarin.}}$$

But the formula of the artificial alizarin is said to be $C_{14}H_8O_4$, which represents the abstraction of two equivalents of hydrogen and the addition of four equivalents of oxygen to the anthracene. The discovery is chiefly interesting when regarded from a scientific point of view, as it is reported that alizarin can be obtained directly from madder at a far less cost than it can possibly be made from anthracene.

Artificial Production of Ice.—The *Scientific American* has published an article, by P. H. Vander Wyde, M. D., in which is calculated the amount of ice that can be produced from the given quantity of coal in the modern ice-machine. The author remarks that it has been proved that the combustion of one pound of anthracite coal produces, in round numbers, 14,000 units of heat, and that, in order to freeze water of 72 F., it is necessary to abstract, besides 40° of sensible heat, 140° of latent heat—together 180°—which, for one pound of water, is equivalent, of course, to 180 units of heat. This number being (about) the eightieth part of the 14,000 units produced by the combustion of one pound of coal, it is clear that the heat produced by the combustion of one ton of coal is equivalent to the heat abstracted

from 80 tons of water of 72°, in order to change it into ice. But in practice we find here exactly the same state of things as in the operation of the steam-engine. Theoretically a steam-engine ought to produce at least 700 units of force (foot-pounds) for every unit of heat consumed; in practice, good machinery only produces from about 70 to 100 foot-pounds—from about one-tenth to one-seventh part of the theoretical amount. In the best ice-machines thus far constructed, instead of freezing 80 tons of water, for every ton of coal consumed, only from about 8 to 11 tons of ice are produced, also, from one-tenth to one-seventh part of the theoretical amount; proving, thus, the remarkable fact that, in both the steam-engine and the ice-machine, exactly the same relation exists between the theoretically calculated effects and the practical results.

As, however, all the best ice-machines accomplish the conversion of the heat of the fuel into the freezing operation by the intervention of a steam-engine, the fact that they practically produce only from one-tenth to one-seventh of the amount of the cold they theoretically should produce, is solely due to the other fact, that the steam-engine itself practically produces only from one-tenth to one-seventh of the amount of power which would be strictly equivalent to the number of heat-units consumed. It must not be lost sight of that it is only the power of the steam-engine which generates the cold in the freezing-machines, and that, therefore, improvements in the steam-engine, which bring its practical results nearer to the theoretical standard, will at once exert their influence on the amount of ice the ice-machines can produce, and, consequently, also on the cost of the ice manufactured in these machines.

Moreover, it appears that the kind of freezing-machines in question, which convert power into cold, notwithstanding they are yet in their infancy, have already attained such a degree of excellence, that they are ahead of that class of machines which convert heat into power, either by steam, hot air, or any other possible means, as it is proved that they produce the full theoretical equivalent of cold (negative heat) for the number of foot-pounds employed; namely, cooling one pound of water one degree for a power equivalent to 700 pounds descending one foot, which, expressed in the adopted scientific manner, is one unit of negative heat for every 700 foot-pounds consumed.

A New Chrome Green.—M. Casthellaz has discovered a process of making a chrome green, said to be far more beautiful than any now in use. He slowly precipitates chrome salts by treating them with hydrated metallic oxides, insoluble, or but slighly soluble in water, or by hydrated metallic carbonates, or hydrated metallic sulphides, or by salts of weak acids which easily leave their bases. The action is produced progressively, and the oxide of chromium precipitated in the hydrated forms. The color of the compound is a magnificent emerald green. A gelatinous alumina, oxide of zinc, carbonate of zinc, and sulphide of zinc, are among the reagents most economical to be used. The same result may also be obtained by treating chrome salts with non-alkaline metals, such as iron and zinc. M. Casthellaz claims that the superb green color produced by his method possesses properties which will enable manufacturers ultimately to renounce the justly-condemned copper and arsenic greens, and he looks for its adoption in oil-painting, colored paper, and artificial-flower making, printing on stuffs and on paper, lithography, perfumery and soap manufacture, as well as in the making of glass and in the ceramic arts.

New Method of obtaining Oxygen. — MM. Montmagon and Delaire claim to have discovered a new method of obtaining oxygen cheaply and easily. They expose fresh wood charcoal to atmospheric air, when it occludes the oxygen and nitrogen of the air in certain proportions. 100 litres of charcoal will occlude, it is said, 925 litres of oxygen, but only 705 litres of nitrogen. The charcoal holding these amounts of the two gases is then thoroughly saturated with water, when there will be expelled 650 litres of nitrogen, but only 350 litres of oxygen—thus, there will be left in the pores of the charcoal 575 litres of oxygen and only 45 litres of nitrogen; in other words, the oxygen will be practically pure for industrial purposes. To extract these remaining gases, the authors employ a pump. By again allowing the extracted gases to be exposed to fresh charcoal, they obtain the oxygen nearly pure. No cost of the process—the all-important item—is given.

Manufacture of Oxygen on the Large Scale.—The works of the Oxygen Gas Company in West Forty-first Street, New York City, are now in full operation. The process of making oxygen in their establishment is that invented by M. Tessié du Motay, of France. M. du Motay's object was to supply oxygen cheaply, and in sufficient quantity for the practical introduction of the oxyhydrogen-light in place of the common gaslight of Paris. The method of manufacture may be briefly described as follows: A retort, of the kind ordinarily used in gas-works, is partly filled with a manganate of potash or soda, and heated to a cherry red. Atmospheric air is then forced into it, at a considerable pressure. The manganate, in its heated condition, possesses the property of absorbing a large proportion of oxygen from the air, and retaining it like a sponge. After an exposure of about ten minutes to this operation, the air is then cut off, and steam is injected into the retort at a high pressure. Passing through the manganate, the steam takes up the oxygen left by the air, and carries it into a condenser, where the steam is converted to water again, while the oxygen passes off free into a receiver. There are various stages of

purification which it is not necessary to describe. In the Forty-first Street works the process is made continuous by admitting the air to one series of retorts at the same moment that the steam is let into another series, from which the air, deprived of a portion of its oxygen, has already been shut off. The manganates can be used over and over again, and, theoretically, require no renewal. The oxygen thus produced is delivered through pipes, like common street gas, and, when used in connection with the latter on the familiar plan of the oxyhydrogen-light, produces a flame of intense brilliancy and beauty, white, like sunlight, and showing objects in their true colors. After making many experiments to determine the best material for a pencil upon which to impinge the gases at their point of combustion, M. du Motay found that oxide of zirconium offered the best advantages; and that substance is now used with his light in preference to calcium or magnesia. The zirconia pencils are about one-eighth of an inch thick, and require renewal not oftener than once a month when in constant use. This new oxyhydrogen-light is gradually being introduced into large edifices in this city, and gives general satisfaction. The actual cost is the practical point yet to be determined; but the company claim that the use of their gas, with the diminished amount of street gas that will be necessary in connection with it, will result in a great saving of the present expense, and give an infinitely better light. It is proposed to lay pipes through the city for the delivery of this gas to consumers now using the street gas; and unless the company are greatly disappointed in their expectations, this city will soon be the best-lighted one in the world, and the new oxyhydrogen-light will take the place of other existing means of artificial illumination in cities and towns.

Sulphide-of-Carbon Light.—M. de Wistanley has invented an apparatus, consisting of a water-bath, heated by a Bunsen gas-burner, within which bath is placed a vessel to hold bisulphide of carbon, the outer and inner vessels being firmly soldered together, and the outer vessel being provided with a neck to hold a thermometer serving to indicate the temperature at which the bisulphide of carbon in the inner vessel boils.

The inner vessel is provided with a neck, closed by a well-fitting cap when the apparatus is in use, for the introduction of the fluid bisulphide of carbon; besides this, there is soldered to the inner vessel a gas-pipe of small bore, which pipe projects at a convenient height above the outer vessel; to this pipe is soldered and connected at right angles another pipe, provided with a stop-cock, and further connected, by means of elastic tubing, with a gas-holder containing oxygen gas made from chlorate of potash. After the application of gas-flame beneath the water-bath, the thermometer is watched, until it indicates that the vapor of the bisulphide of carbon is issuing from the burner (from the gas-pipe connected with the inner vessel); the heat is allowed to continue beneath the water-bath until the flame reaches the flaring-point, when it is lessened almost to extinction. The oxygen gas is then cautiously introduced, upon which the flame at once diminishes in size and increases greatly in brilliancy. This light is proposed for use in photography on account of its great actinism; as a source of intense heat, it may also perhaps be recommended.—*British Journal of Photography.*

Substitution of Sodium for Phosphorus in Lucifer Matches.—Dr. H. Flack, of Dresden, has made a series of experiments, with a view to obtain a non-poisonous paste for application to lucifer matches. He ascertained that sodium, when minutely divided along with explosive substances, becomes highly inflammable when simply moistened with water. The following mixture fulfilled the desired purpose the best. On being touched with a moistened glass rod, it ignited like gunpowder:

5.0 grammes of sodium,		= 4.65 per cent.	
66.0	"	nitrate of potash	=61.39 "
36.5	"	sulphide of antimony	=33.96 "

Provided that during its manufacture this mixture is kept thoroughly dry, it has been found to answer admirably well. The mode of making it up is briefly as follows: Pure solid paraffin is put into a well-stoppered glass flask, and melted over a sand bath; when fluid, clean pieces of sodium are added, and liquefied under the paraffin. As soon as the metal is thoroughly liquefied, the flask is closed and shaken for about ten minutes, which has the effect of granulating the metal, or rather reducing it to a fine powder. The metal is then poured out of the flask along with the paraffin, and the sodium taken out of the paraffin by means of a clean dry spoon: from 30 to 35 per cent. of paraffin remains adhering to the metal; this, however, does not impair its inflammability, while it tends to preserve the metal. Owing to this increase, instead of 5 grammes, 6.6 grammes of the metallic powder thus obtained must be weighed off. The incorporation with the other ingredients, previously well dried and warm, is effected under petroleum in metallic mortars, but each of the substances is first mixed with some petroleum, and pulverized separately before being triturated with the sodium; instead of gum or glue, caoutchouc, previously soaked in light petroleum-oil at 110° C. for ten or twelve hours, is used as mass to form an adhesive paste with the other materials. According to several accounts from Germany, this plan of substituting sodium for phosphorus has been favorably taken up by some of the largest and leading manufacturers of lucifer and fusee matches. There is said to be not the least danger in the transport.

Ozone and Sea-Phosphorescence.—Dr. J. Moffat has laid before the British Association a theory, establishing a connection between the phosphorescence of the sea and the variation of ozone in the atmosphere. He was led to its adoption by observations, taken between latitudes 58° and 79° N., and longitudes 6° E. and 67° W., as presented in the annexed tables:

TABLE I.

Showing the Amount of Ozone with (at Sea)—

Barometer.		Directions of the Wind.				Phosphorescence.	
Increasing.	Decreasing.	N. to E.	S. E.	S. to W.	N. W.	None.	Brilliant.
2.9	4.7	1.6	2.7	3.7	3.2	2.4	3.0

TABLE II.

Showing the Mean Reading of the Barometer, Mean Temperature, and Daily Mean of Ozone at the Commencement and Termination of Phosphorescence of the Sea, between Latitudes 58° and 73° N., and Longitudes 6° E. and 61° W.

Phosphorescence.	Barometer.	Thermometer.	Ozone.
Commencement of...	29.46	34.8	2.9
Termination of.....	29.65	30.0	1.5

TABLE III.

Showing Mean of the Barometer and Thermometer, and the Daily Mean of Ozone, with Commencement and Termination of Periods of Luminosity of Phosphorus, deduced from the Observations of Six Years (on Land).

Periods of Luminosity of Phosphorus.	Mean of Barometer.	Mean of Thermometer.	Mean of Ozone.
Commencement....	29.640	47.5	5.0
Termination	29.734	43.4	3.0

By these results, it appears that the phosphorescence of the sea and luminosity of phosphorus occur under similar atmospheric conditions.

Amount of ozone the day before phosphorescence 0.8
" " day of " 2.5
" " day after " 1.9

Of auroral displays, one was without ozone, and 50 per cent. were accompanied by phosphorescence.

Absorption of Gases by Charcoal.—In his course of lectures before the Royal Institution on chemical changes of carbon, Mr. William Odling gave the results of experiments, made by him to determine the absorbing power of charcoal upon various gases. He used for the purpose 1 cubic inch of cocoanut-shell charcoal, and found that quantity would absorb gases as follows: oxygen, 18 cubic inches; carbonic gas, 68 do.; sulphuretted hydrogen, 100 do.; ammonia gas, 170 do. The lecturer then went on to say: "Now, you can scarcely form any idea of the amount of force which is required for that absorption. If we were to take 2 cubic inches of oxygen, and endeavor to compress them into the space of one, we should require the pressure of 15 lbs. weight; but to compress 18 cubic inches of oxygen into the space of 1 cubic inch, we should require eighteen times 15 lbs., which would be equivalent to about two hundredweights and a half. Here is a half-hundredweight, and it is almost as much as I can lift. Now, we should require about five such half-hundredweights to compress 18 cubic inches of oxygen into the space of 1 cubic inch; but you must observe that the cubic inch of charcoal which can absorb these 18 cubic inches of oxygen appears to be already full of the substance of the charcoal itself. There seems to be scarcely any space left; and what gas the charcoal will contain must occupy its pores. Now, if we imagine that the pores occupy even as much as a twentieth part of the whole mass, we should then require, not five times, but about one hundred times the pressure of this half-hundredweight, to compress 18 cubic inches of oxygen into a cubic inch of charcoal. Nevertheless, so great is the absorptive power of this kind of charcoal that it gradually exerts upon the oxygen a compressing effect equal to the force of some 50 hundredweights."

New Explosive Powders.—M. Designolle has invented a new system of powders, of which carbozotate or picrate of potash is the base. His researches upon the subject were undertaken with a view to supply the peculiar wants of breechloading arms. The *Bulletin de la Société de Encouragement* gives a description of the powders, of which the following abstract is prepared by the *Chemical News:* "These powders are of four kinds—viz., a musket powder, gunpowder for short-bore cannons, slow gunpowder for cannons with long bores, and an explosive powder for torpedoes and projectiles destined for the undermining of fortifications. The principal advantages of these new powders are the following: Increase of balistic power without increase of explosive power; the base remaining the same, possibility of regulating and varying the effects between the limits of one to ten; also of regulating, at will, the rapidity of combustion of this powder, and of increasing the balistic power without changing the mode of manufacture. Other advantages are—regularity in the manner of action; suppression of sulphur, and consequently of the vapors of sulphide of potassium and sulphuretted hydrogen; absence of action on metals and almost entire suppression of smoke. Into the explosive powders only two components enter—picrate of potash and nitrate of potash; the musket and gun powders contain carbon in addition to the above-named ingredients. To prepare these powders, the ingredients are beaten from three to six hours with a proportion of water varying from 6 to 14 per cent., according to the nature of the mixture; the powder is condensed by means of the hydraulic press, with a pressure of from 80,000 to 100,000 kilos., graining the powder, and pressing and drying it according to the methods employed for the black powder. In order to increase the balistic power, the relative proportion of picrate of potash in the mixture must be increased. For musket-powder it has been proved that not more than 20 per cent. of picrate of potash is required, while for gunpowders its proportion varies from 8 to 15 per cent. This component (picrate of potash) is of a beautiful golden-yellow color, and crystallizes into prismatic needles possessing a brilliant reflection; it is insoluble in alcohol, but soluble in about 260 parts of water at 15° or 14 parts of boiling water. Heated with care, it becomes orange red at a temperature of 300°, but, on cooling, it assumes its original color. Heated to 310°, it detonates with violence. The researches of M. John Casthellaz on the action of nitric acid on phenic acid improved the method of manufacturing picric acid, and produced chemically pure picrate of potash at such a reasonable price that the new powders are not more expensive than ordinary black powder."

An explosion with most disastrous effects occurred in Paris at an establishment where powders were manufactured, into the composition of which picrate of potash entered, along with (as conjectured) the chlorate of potash.

The accounts of the affair at hand do not state whether M. Designolle's process, or some improper modification of it, was employed there.

Prevention of Nitroglycerine Explosions.—A correspondent of the London *Chemical News*, moved by the occurrence of the frightful explosion of three-quarters of a ton of nitroglycerine in Wales, involving a deplorable loss of life, suggests the probable cause, and the easy prevention of such calamities. He says:

"Yet it is stated that nitroglycerine is *safer* than gunpowder. It is certainly less liable to be exploded by fire, and to disrupt the slender link which retains its elements, subject to chemical force, and set its mechanical force at liberty, by concussion, needs that concussion be sudden and forcible. I believe that a bottle full of blasting-oil may be dashed to the ground without much danger, yet a drop of it upon a stone may be exploded by a blow from a hammer. Now, what can be the possible cause of such unexpected explosions as have taken place? I can see only two possible reasons: first, that the oil undergoes decomposition or chemical change under certain at present unknown conditions, of time, temperature, shaking, etc., which predispose it to undergo a complete and sudden decomposition from causes ordinarily inadequate; secondly, that the cases and bottles in which it is contained being air-tight, are liable, from a very trifling escape of gas from the liquid, to arrive at a state of tension in which the passage to a sudden break is easy. But would the mere bursting open of a bottle or tin case produce concussion sufficient to determine an explosion of the oil, unless we suppose the latter to be altered in quality? I think it would. I have known a stout glass bottle, used in an ethyl experiment, to be shattered, by slowly-gathered, internal pressure, into *dust*, with a report like the firing of a pistol. In a close vessel, full or very nearly full of the oil, not much gas relatively to the quantity of liquid need be evolved in order to induce such a degree of pressure as might cause explosive rupture of the vessel. If one vessel burst, the concussion would certainly explode also any that might be near.

"If the true cause of these seemingly anomalous explosions is indicated above, the remedy is both simple and inexpensive. Let every vessel containing the oil have fitted to it a tube, with a capillary bore, such as a piece of thermometer tubing, one end of the tube entering the oil, the other exposed outside.

"If the tube were enlarged below to make room for any expansion of the liquid by elevation of temperature, none could be forced out by that alone, and none could be spilt through the capillary orifice of the tube by inverting the vessel. With a little management in the arrangements, any overflow might be made certainly indicative of the formation of permanent gases, which would be a warning signal. This method might also be applied experimentally to determine the probability or otherwise of the suggestion I have made as to the cause that may have led to these fearful explosions."

The Aniline Colors.—M. Block publishes the following recipe to produce an aniline gray color: 1 kilo of aniline at 190°, and 5 kilos of arsenic acid in a liquid form at 75°, are heated on the open fire in a caldron, care being taken to maintain the heat at the boiling-point, till the substance thickens and rises, when the operation is terminated and the vessel is removed. The substance obtained presents a blackish appearance; it is thick and insoluble in water. In order to purify the product, about 20 litres of water and 1 kilo of muriatic acid are taken and boiled with steam for half an hour; after which the mass is filtered. The matter which is deposited on the filter is collected, washed with boiling water, and operated upon a third time by a small quantity of carbonate of soda in solution, so as completely to neutralize the acid. Finally, the collected matter is dried, and gives a fine black powder. The solution of this product is made by treating it with alcohol, with an addition of 10 per cent. of sulphuric acid. Nothing now remains to be done but to filter it. With this liquor magnificent grays of all shades are dyed, by submitting its mordant to the dyeing-bath. For the dyeing and printing of this gray color, the matter must first be passed through a water-bath, strongly acidulated with sulphuric acid. A skein of silk or wool is dyed by five drops of this liquor.

It is stated that Dr. Hofmann and Mr. Charles Girard, at Berlin, have successfully obtained pure aniline green, which is only distinguished from the aniline violet by the elements of iodide of methyl, so that the violet can be readily converted into the green and the green into the violet.

Artificially-colored Wines.—Dr. T. L. Phipson sends to the London *Chemical News*, of November 12th, a note on varieties of coloring matter, used in certain districts of France, in the treatment of wines. He says that at Fismes and Poitiers, and probably in other parts of France, regular establishments exist where coloring matter for wine is manufactured on a somewhat extensive scale. The material made at Fismes is obtained from elderberry, both from the fruit of *Sambucus niger* and *S. ebulus*. The process is very simple: 250 to 500 parts of this richly-colored fruit, with 30 to 65 parts of alum, and 600 to 800 of water, are the proportions generally employed. It has been stated that beet-root juice, blackberries, Brazil-wood, logwood, etc., are occasionally used, but the author believes by no means so frequently as the substances above named. Many methods have been tried in order to detect the presence of artificial coloring matters in wines, but, it appears, with a very small amount of success. Œnocyanine may be precipitated from the wine, and its properties, studied with care, will show at once the pres-

ence of an adulterating material; but the process is rather long and delicate. Dr. Phipson has shown, in a note on the "Absorption Spectra yielded by Certain Organic Substances," that the pure coloring matter of the grape gives no absorption bands, but only a general absorption, increasing gradually toward the violet; while the coloring matter of the purple holyoak, dissolved in water containing a little alum, gives a distinct and wide absorption band. This allows its presence in wine to be detected without much difficulty; and the same method applies equally well to the coloring matters of logwood and Brazil-wood. He has not yet ascertained how the coloring matter of elderberry-fruit affects the spectrum, but it is not difficult to discover in wine, according to M. Fauré, by means of gelatine. The fact is that œnocyanine is easily precipitated along with the tannin when gelatine is added to red wine, while other coloring matters (and, among them, that of the elderberry) are left in solution. If there happen to be not enough tannin naturally present in the liquid to precipitate all the œnocyanine, a little more must be added. Alum will be often found in wine which is artificially colored; it vivifies the tint, and is supposed to preserve the wine. Its presence is not only highly injurious to the health, but will effectually prevent the ripening of wine and the development of the bouquet. The test to which the author has called attention may be made as follows: Take a specimen of the wine to be examined, and, if its color is too powerful when examined in a thin tube by means of the prism, it must be diluted with distilled water until a proper degree of transparency is obtained. A minute quantity of alum is then added, and the specimen examined in the spectroscope. If an absorption band of any kind shows itself, the wine may be suspected.

Lowering of Temperatures in Saline Solutions.—Experiments, conducted by Rüdorff, yield much valuable information with regard to the lowering of temperature by the solution of salts in water. It is well known that the decrease of temperature will be the greater, the larger the quantity of any salt which water takes up at a certain temperature. Since, however, water at a certain temperature only dissolves a definite quantity of any salt, the maximum decrease will be about that at which, under given circumstances, a fully-saturated solution is produced. To conduct the experiments successfully, the saturated solution should be obtained as rapidly as possible. Rüdorff proceeded in the following manner: The finely-powdered salt and the requisite quantities of water were, previous to the making of the experiments, each put in separate beakers made of very thin glass, and placed for from twelve to eighteen hours in a room wherein the temperature could be kept as nearly as possible constant. In consequence of this, the beakers and contents attained the same temperature throughout. The mixing was effected by pouring the water on to the salt, and stirring up with a very delicate and highly-sensitive thermometer; the maximum decrease of temperature took place within a minute after the mixing of the salt and water was made. The results of the experiments are exhibited in the following tabulated form, recording the average of a series of several experiments with one and the same substance, which were concordant within 0.2°:

SUBSTANCES.	Soluble in 100 parts of water.	Mixed with 100 parts of water.	The temperature falls		Number of Degrees.
			From °C.	To °C.	°C.
Crystallized alum	10.0	14	+10.8	+ 9.4	1.4
Chloride of sodium	35.8	36	12.6	+10.1	2.5
Sulphate of potassa	9.9	12	14.7	+11.7	3.0
Crystallized phosphate of soda	9.0	14	10.8	+ 7.1	3.7
Sulphate of ammonia	72.3	75	13.2	+ 6.8	6.4
Sulphate of soda (crystals)	16.8	20	12.5	+ 5.7	6.8
Sulphate of magnesia (crystals)	30.0	35	11.1	+ 3.1	8.0
Carbonate of soda (crystals)	30.0	40	10.7	+ 1.6	9.1
Nitrate of potassa	15.5	16	13.2	+ 3.0	10.2
Chloride of potassium	28.6	30	13.2	+ 0.6	12.6
Carbonate of ammonia	25.0	30	15.3	+ 3.2	12.1
Acetate of soda (crystals)	30.0	35	10.7	− 4.7	15.4
Chloride of ammonium	28.3	30	13.3	− 5.1	18.4
Nitrate of soda	69.0	75	13.2	− 5.3	18.5
Hyposulphite of soda (crystals)	98.0	110	10.7	− 8.0	18.7
Iodide of potassium	130.0	140	10.8	−11.7	22.5
Chloride of calcium (crystallized)	200.0	250	10.8	−12.4	23.2
Nitrate of ammonia	55.0	60	13.6	−13.6	27.2
Sulphocyanide of ammonium	105.0	133	13.2	−18.0	31.2
Sulphocyanide of potassium	180.0	150	10.8	−23.7	34.5

The quantity of water applied varied between 250 and 500 grammes, and the quantity of salt used corresponded therewith. The decrease of temperature obtainable in this manner can never fall below the freezing-point of the saline solution in question, but can very nearly reach that. The sulphocyanide of potassium is the best salt to be adopted for the artificial production of ice: when 500 grammes of this salt are dissolved in 400 cubic centimetres of water, and the mixture stirred with a test-tube filled with water, the latter will be frozen in from two to three minutes. The degree of solubility of the salts referred to in the first column is made up according to G. J. Mulder's highly-elaborate researches on this subject.

Recovery of Sulphur from Alkali Waste.—Mr. Ludwig Mond read a paper on this subject at a session of the Newcastle Chemical Society, in May. The following is the substance of his statements: He said that in 1860 he commenced, in a chemical manufactory in Germany, a series of experiments on several processes for the recovery of sulphur from waste, and took out a patent in 1861. When he came to England (at the time of the Exhibition) he found, to his surprise, that a process, somewhat resembling his own, had been proposed as early as 1836. At the same time as himself, three different parties—in Glasgow, in Newcastle, and in Bristol—had been work-

ing in the same direction. His process, however, had clearly the merit of being the first that extracted great quantities of sulphur, and did away with the waste nuisance. He found the process a more expensive one in England, where labor was dearer, than in Germany. He found a difference in the English waste and that which he had been formerly accustomed to. In September of 1863 he took out the new patent. He had previously experimented on tank waste, and had obtained as much as 55 per cent. of sulphur. The first to introduce his process on the Tyne was the Tyne Chemical Company, at South Shields. He believed that the waste of that district was more suitable for using his process than that of Lancashire, as being somewhat more porous. Mr. Mond then explained, by means of a diagram, the working of his process, and exhibited specimens of the sulphur obtained from the waste. He calculated that the cost of extracting the sulphur from the waste would be £1 per ton, but the profit to manufacturers would be about £4 per ton (at Messrs. Hutchinson's, it cost £1 5s. 5d. + 15s. for royalty = £2, working on a comparatively small scale). The cost of the apparatus he calculated to be £1,509, or (providing for all contingencies) £1,660. He thought that the alkali manufacturers ought to be satisfied with the process in a mercantile point of view, and, also, as it enabled them to remove a great nuisance. Mr. Mond stated his belief that 40,000 tons of sulphur could be utilized from alkali waste in England, in one year. The reading of the paper gave rise to a discussion in which the merits of Mr. Mond's discovery were fully recognized, and a vote of thanks was tendered to him.

Reduction of Oxides by Hydrogen.—Mr. M. W. Müller has made numerous experiments to determine precisely the temperature at which the oxides of metals begin to be reduced by hydrogen gas, the results of which are presented in Poggendorff's *Annalen*, and may be summed up as follows:

Oxide of iron, prepared by cautiously heating metallic iron in contact with air, was reduced at 285° C.; the same oxide prepared from nitrate of iron at 286°; when rather moist hydrogen was applied and the oxide of iron prepared from oxalate of the protoxide, the temperature of reduction was found to be 278°. Oxide of copper prepared from the sulphate of that metal and precipitated by caustic soda, and previously heated to 300°, was reduced at 185°; strongly ignited oxide of copper, at 142° on an average of five experiments; oxide of cobalt, at about 132°; oxide of zinc could not be reduced at a temperature whereby glass became fused; oxide of tin, about 174°; oxide of lead, at from 310° to 315°; peroxide of mercury, 230°; oxide of silver, at between 73° and 78°. The experiments have been extended to the chlorides and sulphides of some metals. Chloride of gold does not appear to be acted upon below 200°, but at a higher temperature an explosion took place. The action with chloride of platinum was rather strong at 85°, and rather violent at 165°; reduction of the metal took place. The chlorides of silver and lead are not reduced below the boiling-point of mercury, but require a red heat; sulphide of gold is reduced at 200°, while sulphide of platinum is reduced at the ordinary temperature, sulphuretted hydrogen gas being formed in both cases.

New Method of extracting Iodine.—M. Lauroy, of France, has received a patent for a new method of extracting iodine and treating the salts derived from kelp. When the lixivium has been freed from the less soluble salts, and concentrated to a density varying between 45° and 55° Baumé, it may contain free alkali, carbonates, sulphites, sulphides, and hyposulphites of alkalies as well as alkaline iodides and bromides. The treatment varies, according as it is desired to separate the salts contained, or to extract at once the iodine and bromine. When it is desired to extract the iodine and bromine at once, the liquid is saturated with hydrochloric acid; the deposit which forms is separated, and the gaseous mixture which is evolved in the reaction of nitric acid on organic matters (as in the preparation of oxalic acid, picric acid, etc.) introduced. When these gases are principally formed of binoxide of nitrogen, a quantity of air is admixed. The application of the nitrous gases may be made in several ways—sulphuric acid, in which nitrous gases have previously been dissolved, may be added to the liquid, or, when the liquor contains sufficient alkali, nitrous acid may be admitted as long as there is absorption, and any acid whatever added afterward to precipitate the iodine. In whatever way one operates, the precipitation of the iodine is determined by the reaction of the nitrous compounds. The precipitation is complete, and the bromine is not set at liberty. When the iodine has been thus separated, the mother liquor is submitted to treatment, and the bromine extracted by the ordinary method.

Crystallisation of Metallic Oxides.—The *Comptes Rendus* for July 19th contains a contribution by M. Lidot, in which he records a number of experiments made by him in order to obtain artificially-crystallized metallic oxides, starting from the well-known fact that most native oxides and sulphurets exhibit a crystalline form. The author has been occupied in researches with the view to obtain these forms by artificial means, and has succeeded, in many instances, by simply submitting some oxides—for instance, the peroxide of iron—to long-continued and strong heat. By this means, the said peroxide loses a portion of its oxygen, magnetic oxide is formed and simultaneously obtained in a crystalline shape; the sesquioxide of manganese, the oxides of cadmium and zinc, have also been obtained in

distinctly crystalline state, by various manipulations and the application of suitable very high degrees of temperature.

Protection of Woodwork from Fire.—At one of the collieries at Ibbenbüeren, Westphalia, the woodwork is protected from fire by being painted with a mixture consisting of 5 parts of alum, 7 parts of rye-meal paste, and 30 parts of previously-washed, i. e., finely divided clay (this mixture is used for woodwork not exposed to open air); for woodwork so exposed, a mixture is used consisting of 2½ parts of crystallized sal-ammoniac, 1 part of white vitriol (commercial sulphate of zinc), 2 parts of joiners' glue, 20 parts of zinc-white, and 30 parts of water. These mixtures have been found to prevent wood bursting into flame on ignition, and greatly to delay its destruction even when severe fires are raging.

Decomposition by Sunlight.—M. Morren communicates to the *Comptes Rendus* for August 9th some observations on the phenomena of decomposition produced by sunlight. While repeating some of Prof. Tyndall's experiments, but applying, instead of electric light, the bright sunlight of Marseilles's clear sky, he discovered that several inorganic substances are decomposed when a ray of sunlight is made to pass through them; among these sulphurous acid gas is enumerated, this gas being decomposed into oxygen and vapor of sulphur. This phenomenon is caused, according to the author, by a peculiar dissociation called into play by the vibratory motion of the light, which has the effect of breaking up the chemical combination; by means of spectrum analysis the author has discovered that the activity of the light in this aspect depends partly upon its color, and partly upon the refrangence and the nature of the decomposed substance. The author has also found that a thin layer of sulphate of quinine of no more than 4 or 5 mm. thickness entirely arrests the chemical rays, as if it were a thick, yellow-colored piece of glass. The author states that the chemical effects of highly-heated platinum—for instance, the decomposition of water by that metal—are due to the accumulation of more and more refrangent rays.

Hydrofluoric Acid.—Mr. G. Gore read a paper before the Royal Society in January, giving a full description of the leading physical and chemical properties of anhydrous hydrofluoric acid, and of the various properties of pure aqueous hydrofluoric acid. He obtained his anhydrous acid by heating dry double fluoride of hydrogen and potassium to redness in a suitable platinum apparatus. Nearly all the manipulations with the acid were effected while the vessels containing it were immersed in a strong freezing mixture of ice and crystallized chloride of calcium. The author describes the pure anhydrous acid as a highly-dangerous substance; a perfectly colorless and transparent liquid at 60° F., very thin and mobile, extremely volatile, and densely fuming in the air at ordinary temperatures, and absorbs water very greedily from the atmosphere. It was perfectly retained in a platinum bottle, the bottle having a flanged mouth with a platinum plate secured with clamp-screws, and a washer of paraffin:

A number of attempts were made, finally with success, to determine the molecular volume of the pure anhydrous acid in the gaseous state, the acid in these cases being prepared by heating pure anhydrous fluoride of silver with hydrogen in a suitable platinum apparatus over mercury. Particulars are given of the apparatus employed and of the manipulation. The results obtained show that one volume of hydrogen, in uniting with fluorine, produces not simply one volume of gaseous product as it does when uniting with oxygen, but two volumes, as in the case of its union with chlorine. The gaseous acid transferred to glass vessels over mercury did not corrode the glass, or render it dim in the slightest degree during several weeks, provided moisture was entirely absent.

The specific gravity of the anhydrous liquid acid was several times determined, both in a specific-gravity bottle of platinum, and also by means of a platinum float submerged and weighed in the acid. Concordant and reliable results were obtained; the specific gravity found was 0.9879 at 55° Fahr., that of distilled water being =1.000 at the same temperature.

Numerous experiments were made of electrolyzing the anhydrous acid with anodes of gas-carbon, carbon of lignum-vitæ, and of many other kinds of wood, of palladium, platinum, and gold. The gas-carbon disintegrated rapidly; all the kinds of charcoal flew to pieces quickly, and the anodes of palladium, platinum, and gold, were corroded without evolution of gas. The acid with a platinum anode conducted electricity much more readily than pure water; but with one of gold it scarcely conducted at all.

To obtain an idea of the *general* chemical behavior of the pure anhydrous acid, numerous substances (generally anhydrous) were immersed in separate portions of the acid in platinum cups, kept at a low temperature (0° to 20° Fahr.). The acid had scarcely any effect upon any of the metalloids or noble metals, and even the base metals in a state of fine powder did not cause any evolution of hydrogen. Sodium and potassium behaved much the same as with water. Nearly all the salts of the alkali and alkaline earth-metals produced strong chemical action. The anhydrous acid decomposed all carbonates with effervescence, and those of the alkaline earth and alkali-metals with violent action. Borates of the alkalies also produced very strong action. Silico-fluorides of the alkali-metals dissolved with effervescence. All sulphides, except those of the alkaline earth and alkali-metals, exhibited no change; the latter evolved sulphuretted hydrogen violently. Bisulphite of sodium dissolved with effervescence. Sulphates were variously affected. The acid chromates of the alkali-metals dissolved with violent action to blood-red liquids, with evolution of vapor of fluorids of chromium. Cyanide of potassium was violently decomposed, and hydrocyanic acid set free. Numerous organic bodies (specified) were also immersed in the acid; most of the solid ones were quickly disintegrated. The acid mixed with pyroxilic spirit, ether, and alcohol, but not with benzole; with spirit of turpentine it exploded, and produced a blood-red liquid. Gutta-percha, india-rubber, and nearly all the gums and resins, were rapidly disintegrated, and generally dissolved to red liquids. Spermaceti, stearic acid, and myrtle wax, were but little affected, and paraffin not at all. Sponge was but little changed. Gun-cotton, silk, paper, cotton wool, calico, gelatine, and parchment, were instantly converted into glutinous substances, and generally dissolved. The solution of

gun-cotton yielded an inflammable film on evaporation to dryness. Pinewood instantly blackened.

From the various physical and chemical properties of the anhydrous acid, the author concludes that it lies between hydrochloric acid and water, but is much more closely allied to the former than to the latter. It is more readily liquefied than hydrochloric acid, but less readily than steam; like hydrochloric acid, it decomposes all carbonates; like water, it unites powerfully with sulphuric and phosphoric anhydrides with great evolution of heat. The fluorides of the alkali-metals unite violently with hydrofluoric acid, as the oxides of those metals unite with water; the hydrated fluorides of the alkali-metals also, like the hydrated fixed alkalies, have a strongly-alkaline reaction, and are capable of expelling ammonia from its salts. It may be further remarked that the atomic number of fluorine lies between that of oxygen and chlorine; and the atomic number of oxygen, added to that of fluorine, nearly equals that of chlorine.

Analysis of Varieties of Carbon.—Berthelot is the author of an elaborate paper, communicated to the French Academy of Sciences, on the varieties of carbon, showing that the number of modifications of that element is greater than had been supposed. His researches were based upon Brodie's method of oxidizing graphites by means of nitric acid and chlorate of potash. From an abstract of the paper, in the *American Journal of Science* for May, we quote:

By these reagents diamond is not sensibly oxidized; the different varieties of amorphous carbon are changed into humus-like substances of a yellowish-brown color, soluble in water and varying according to the variety of carbon analyzed, while the graphites are converted into graphitic oxides which differ with the nature of the graphites which furnish them. Berthelot gives the name pyrographitic oxides to the black powder which remains when the graphitic oxides are heated. They also contain oxygen and hydrogen as well as carbon. Native plumbago, or, as Berthelot terms it, *plumbagine*, already examined by Brodie, yields a graphitic oxide in pale-yellow micaceous scales, insoluble in all reagents, and not decomposed with deflagration and intumescence by heat. Treated with chlorate of potash and nitric acid it yields graphitic oxide with all its original properties.

Graphitic oxide from electric graphite—carbon points from a large battery—is a maroon-colored powder which does not agglomerate during desiccation. This character is also constant. The hydrographitic oxide does not intumesce when heated, and when oxidized reproduces the original oxide. This form of graphitic oxide is also decomposed by heat with deflagration, but yields a heavy powder which is not flaky. By oxidation the pyrographitic oxide disappears almost wholly, leaving some grains of graphitic oxide with its original properties.

All the pyrographitic oxides, when treated with iodhydric acid in solution at 280° C., yield hydrogen containing about 6 per cent. of marsh-gas, leaving, however, a considerable quantity of a black carbonaceous residue. The author compares the graphites, amorphous carbons, and their derivatives, with the hydrates of carbon and ulmic matters, and believes that the varieties of amorphous carbon represent polymeric states of the true carbon which is not yet known in the free or uncondensed form. In studying the different varieties of carbon, Berthelot has arrived at the following results, in addition to those related above: Coke recently calcined is entirely dissolved, giving a soluble compound of an intense color. Metallic carbon, deposited from hydrocarbon vapors heated in a porcelain tube, is dissolved with very great difficulty but completely. The same is true for gas-retort carbon, and some substances called artificial graphites. Anthracite, animal charcoal, and the carbonaceous matter from the Orgueil meteorite, were also completely oxidized, but lampblack left a trace of graphitic oxide. The intense heat produced by combustion in oxygen converts a small portion of gas-retort carbon into graphite. Berthelot suggests that it is in this manner that natural graphite has been formed, the amorphous carbon, being more oxidizable at a low temperature, having been gradually dissolved. This view derives some support from the presence of a trace of graphite in lampblack. Electricity also converts amorphous carbon into graphite, the carbon carried over to the negative pole being found to contain a considerable quantity of the latter, while the positive pole contained only a trace. The actual transference of the carbon is not, however, necessary for the formation of graphite; carbon from sugar softened by the heat from a battery of 600 pairs being found to contain graphite in large proportion. Carbon separated from hydrocarbons by the agency of heat does not contain a trace of graphite, while that which is separated by heat from the sulphide or chloride of carbon, or by chlorine from boron, contains a considerable quantity.

The Ignition Point of Vapors.—Mr. W. R. Hutton, of Glasgow, has determined the degree of heat at which the vapors of a number of liquids catch fire from a burning candle at a distance of 1.5 inches, or 0.5 inches from the surface of the fluid. Annexed is a tabular statement of the results of his experiments.

ARTICLES.	Specific weight.	Inflaming Point in Deg. of Fahr.	
		At a distance of 1.5 in.	At a distance of 0.5 in.
	Deg.	Deg.	Deg.
Sulphuric ether	747	Below 53	....
Bisulphide of carbon	1.270	do 53	....
Petroleum benzine	706	do 53	....
Benzole from coal-tar, 90 per cent.	861	do 74	71
Crude paraffin-oil	849	do 74	72
Crude naphtha	884	do 78	74
Whiskey	940	do	85
Wood naphtha	9.840	do 87.8	81
Crude paraffin-oil	891	do 89	84.2
Crude naphtha	881	do 90	86
Dutch gin	930	do	90
Wood spirit	827	do 96.8	84.2
Illuminating naphtha	859	do 100	91
Wine spirit	817	do 104	73
Whiskey, 15 overproof	898	do 109	83
Whiskey, 11 overproof	905	do 110	84.2
Kerosene	801	do 118	110
Light oil from coal-tar	920	do 119	109
Spirit from resin	922	do 122	105.8
Turpentine	875	do 130	119
Sherry wine	993	do	130
Port wine	1.003	do	130
Refined paraffin-oil	809	do 134	123
Refined paraffin-oil	814	do 138.2	127
Fusel-oil	850	do 140	129.2
Oil from resin	987	Above 212	....
Heavy tar-oil	950	do 212	....

Nitrification.—Mr. S. W. Johnson furnishes to the *American Journal of Science* for March a paper on the formation of nitrogen compounds artificially and in a state of nature. With respect to the natural process of such formation, he is led to the conclusion that free nitrogen enters into combination in all cases

by oxidation; that the agent of oxidation is ozone; that in the soil this ozone originates for the most part in the slow oxidation of organic matters; and that ammonia and the organic nitrogen of humus, peat, and coal, are the result of the reduction of oxides of nitrogen either in the living organism in the acts of nutrition, or by the organic matters of the dead plant or animal. The union of atmospheric nitrogen and oxygen under the influence of electrical tension has been shown by Meissner to be preceded by the production of ozone. By a long series of critically-conducted observations, Daubeny has made it probable that ozone appears in the vicinity of active foliage exposed to sunlight, and concludes that the oxygen set free from combination in the plant is partly ozonized, as is true of that which separates in the decomposition of permanganates and chromates by oil of vitriol. The plant, then, appears to be an agent of nitrification when living as well as when dead, and ozone is the result of a molecular change which accompanies the decomposition as well as the formation of oxygen compounds.

Unwholesome Food.—Dr. Letheby treated of unwholesome and adulterated food in the Cantor Lectures delivered by him before the British Society of Arts. Some parts of his discourses are particularly interesting to epicures, as, when he says:

> Even game, when only sufficiently tainted to please the palate of the epicure, has caused severe cholera in persons unaccustomed to it; but, as Dr. Christison observes, "the power of habit in reconciling the stomach to the digestion of decayed meat is inconceivable. Some epicures in civilized countries prefer a slight taint even in their beef and mutton; and there are tribes of savages still further advanced in the cultivation of this department of gastronomy, who eat with impunity rancid oil, putrid blubber, and stinking offal." The Zulus of Natal, according to Dr. Colenso, are so fond of putrid meat that they call it *ubomi*, which literally means to be superlatively happy. But, as a rule, there is a natural abhorrence of tainted food, insomuch that, with most persons, the mere commencement of decay is sufficient to excite disgust; and rarely do we find, except among savages, that an entire meal is made of putrid flesh. A little game or venison, or ripe cheese, at the end of a feast, with just a piquant touch of decay, is, perhaps, not objectionable; for it may, as Liebig supposes, promote digestion, by communicating its own quality of transformation to the rest of the food; but it is another thing to fill the stomach with putrid flesh, for, if the corrective power of the gastric juice should fail, the effect of it might be serious. We have, indeed, abundant evidence of the terrible consequences of admitting putrid matter into the circulation, for they were once too common among those engaged in the dissection of the human body. In fact, the mere handling of decomposing animal matter for any time will often produce disease of the hands or other parts of the body with which it comes into contact. Our safety, perhaps, in using such food is in the antiseptic power of good cooking; but this is not always an easy affair; for the tissues are generally so soft from decay that they will hardly bear the common action of heat; so that if they be boiled for any time they will fall to pieces; and, if they be roasted, they will shrink without forming that delicious crust of osmazome which is characteristic of good meat. Let them, however, be cooked as they may, they always require a nice adjustment of rather strong flavors to make them palatable; and those who have dined in the cheap *restaurants* of Paris, or at the still worse table d'hôte of a German watering-place, will have experienced the art of the cook in this respect, in such dishes as *turbot en vol-au-vent*, *Raie au beurre noir*, *sole en matelote Normande*, and in the various forms of fish *au gratin*; or game *en salmis*.
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> But, bad as this sort of tainted food is, it is nothing in comparison to the sausage poison, which is produced by a sort of modified putrefaction, to which the large sausages of Germany, and especially those of Würtemberg, are occasionally subject. According to an official return, there have been more than four hundred cases of poisoning from these sausages in Würtemberg alone during the last fifty years, and of these about one hundred and fifty were fatal. The effects are generally observed in spring, and mostly in April, when the sausages become musty, and acquire a soft consistence in the interior. They have also a peculiarly nauseous and rather putrid taste, and are very acid to test-paper. If eaten in this condition, they produce dangerous effects in from twelve to twenty-four hours—the first symptoms being pain in the stomach, with vomiting and diarrhœa, and dryness of the nose and mouth: then comes a feeling of profound depression, with coldness of the limbs, weakness and irregularity of the pulse, and frequent fainting. Fatal cases end with convulsions and oppressed breathing between the third and eighth day. The precise cause of these effects is still a mystery; some have thought that rancid fatty acids are produced during the decomposition of the meat; others that in the process of drying and smoking acrid pyrogenous acids have been developed; others that, during the decay of the sausages, a poisonous organic alkaloid is generated. Liebig is of opinion that the effects are due to an animal ferment, which produces in the blood, by catalysis, a state of putridity analogous to its own, and that the molecular movements of the putrefactive change in the decaying meat are thus communicated to the living organism. M. Vanden Corput, who is one of the most recent investigators of the subject, attributes the morbific action of such meat to the presence of a minute fungus, of the nature of a sarcina, which he calls *sarcina botulina*. This view is confirmed by the fact that there is always a peculiar mouldiness of the sausages; and the poisonous property is generally observed in April, when these cryptogamic organisms are most freely developed.
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> Similar effects have occasionally been produced by other kinds of animal food—as veal, bacon, ham, salt beef, salt fish, cheese, etc., and the food has usually been in a decayed and mouldy condition. It would be tedious if I were to detail, or even to enumerate, the cases recorded by medico-legal writers; but I may, perhaps, refer to a few of them. In 1839, there was a popular fête at Zurich, and about six hundred persons partook of a repast of cold roast veal and ham. In a few hours most of them were suffering from pain, in the stomach, with vomiting and diarrhœa; and, before a week had elapsed, nearly all of them were seriously ill in bed. They complained of shivering, giddiness, headache, and burning fever. In a few cases there was delirium; and, when they terminated fatally, there was extreme prostration of the vital powers. Careful inquiry was instituted into the matter, and the only discoverable cause of the mischief was incipient putrefaction and slight mouldiness of the meat. Dr. Deiseler relates an instance where a family of eight persons were made ill by musty bacon; and M. Ollivier has given an account of six persons who were poisoned by mutton in a state of modified decay—four of whom died from it within eight days. In Russia, where it is the practice to eat largely of salt fish in a raw condition, it is not at all uncommon to witness the dangerous effects of it when it has be-

come mouldy or putrid; and, in fact, it is within the experience of every one who is concerned in medico-legal inquiries, that serious symptoms are frequently traced to the use of food in a modified condition of decay. This is especially so with bad cheese, the effects of which on the constitution have been so severe that official investigations have been called for. These effects have been noticed at Schwerin (1823), at Minden (1825), at Hameln (1826), at Greifswald (1827), Frankfort (1828), and elsewhere; and they have been the subjects of interesting essays by Henneman, Hünefeld, Westrumb, and others. At first the effects were attributed to the copper vessels used in the dairies, and therefore the Austrian, Würtemberg, and Ratzeburg states prohibited the use of that metal for such purposes; but the subsequent inquiries of Hünefeld, Sertürner, and other chemists, established the fact that no metallic poison was discoverable in the cheese. In the police report, which was published in Frankfort, in January, 1828, informing the public of numerous cases of poisoning in that city from spoiled cheese, it was declared that no poisonous principle could be detected by chemical reagents. Professor Hünefeld and, subsequently, Sertürner, were of opinion that the effects were due to certain poisonous fatty acids analogous to, if not identical with, caseic and sebacic acids; and they even describe the way in which they are produced in the cheese during the process of ripening—attributing them to the imperfect removal of the acid liquor from the curd when the cheese was made, or to the putrefaction of the curd before it was salted, or to the mixture of flour with the curd; but it is far more likely that the poisonous effects are due, as Vanden Corput supposes, to the presence of a peculiar mould or fungus.

Purifying Water by Chemical Ingredients.—A scientific commission, appointed in the Netherlands, to investigate the practicability of purifying the turbid water of rivers and lakes, so as to make it fit for drinking, have submitted their report. They ascribe the prevalent turbidity of the Netherland waters to the presence of extremely minutely divided clay, by the aid of which a great deal more of organic matter than could otherwise remain suspended is kept in such an extreme state of division as to pass through filters and deposit, even after many days of rest. The committee availed themselves of the skill and experience of Dr. J. W. Gunning, of Amsterdam. This gentleman had found that the perchloride of iron, added to the turbid water of the river Maas, which is an important source of supply for a considerable population of the Netherlands, has the effect of rendering it perfectly wholesome and even agreeable for use:

To one litre of water, 0.032 grm. of the dry salt just alluded to, and previously dissolved in pure water, are added, and, after well stirring the liquid, it is left quietly standing, to settle, for fully thirty-six hours. A series of very carefully-made experiments has proved that no free hydrochloric acid (the quantity thereof contained in the above-stated weight of perchloride of iron only amounts to 0.021 grm.) was left in the clarified and purified water, but in order to suit the application on the large scale, and to make assurance doubly sure, as regards any acid or perchloride being left undecomposed, or rather uncombined, with the organic and inorganic matter of the water, Dr. Gunning has advised that a small, but equivalent, quantity of crystallized carbonate of soda should be also added some hours previous to beginning to take the purified water for use. At Dr. Gunning's request, a scientific gentleman of high attainments, who happens to have an excellent opportunity, near Rotterdam, to try on the large scale this process, has submitted it to practical test, and a quantity of no less than about two hundred and forty thousand litres of Maas water, taken at all times of the year, has been treated by this process, and thereby rendered perfectly fit for use, and, consumed by various parties, has proved to have been entirely deprived of its property of causing diarrhœa; moreover, the medical officer in charge of the crew of her Majesty's corvette the Lynx, moored off Rotterdam, in the river, has applied this process to the water taken from the river, and found by experience that the thus purified water has even the good effect of restoring to health such of the crew as had been incautiously drinking the not previously purified Maas water. It is, when using this means of purifying bad water, of great importance to let the sediment quietly settle; it occupies about four-tenths of the bulk of the water, which on the large scale will, for security's sake, be submitted to a filtration through fine well-cleansed sea-sand before being sent through the mains of the large waterworks intended to be established near Rotterdam for the supply of that town. The quantity of crystallized carbonate of soda which is equivalent to 0.032 grm. of dry perchloride of iron is 0.085 grm.; both these quantities are the maximum required to render the Maas water perfectly pure, even at the time when it is most turbid; comparative experiments have conclusively proved that the application of this process is very superior to filtration of the water, even through animal charcoal. The result obtained with the Maas water having been so eminently successful, the committee has applied this method to the purifying of water otherwise non-drinkable, such as is met with in many of the smaller canals, brooks, and also pumps yielding surface water of bad quality in many parts of the kingdom, and the results obtained are such as to justify the order that this method of purifying must be applied by authority to a class of waters which, thus treated, become available for use. The precipitate formed by the addition of the perchloride of iron and carbonate of soda, both previously dissolved, has been proved, by accurate analysis, to contain a large quantity of organic matter, which, on being ignited with soda-lime, yielded ammonia very largely; analysis has also proved that, as regards the Maas water, the only addition to its inorganic constituents is that of one part of chloride of sodium, by weight, in forty thousand parts of water by the application of this process. Dr. Gunning has found that the effect of the perchlorides is not so conspicuous with some well waters containing much carbonic acid; while, moreover, there may exist in some of these kinds of waters, either in quantity or quality, inorganic salts which delay or altogether impede the peculiar mode of flocculent precipitation observed with the above-named Maas and other waters to take place after addition of the iron salt.

Phosphates in Wheat.—Mr. F. Crace Calvert, in a paper read before the British Association, gave the result of his inquiries into the amount of soluble and insoluble phosphates in wheat. The following is a tabular statement:

	Corn and bran.	II.	III.	IV.	Flour.
Phosphoric acid combined with sesquioxide of iron,	0.042	0.047	0.037	0.015	0.022
Phosphoric acid combined with magnesia and a small quantity of CaO...	1.485	1.269	0.657	0.289	0.047 0.144
Phosphoric acid combined with potash..	1.071	1.046	0.459	0.280	0.758
Total....	2.598	2.352	1.153	0.694	0.971
Phosphate soluble in water.....	1.942	1.686	0.918	0.529	0.080

These facts, said Mr. Calvert, tend to show that most of the phosphates contained in wheat are not combined with the organic matter, but are in a free condition; also that the greatest part of the phosphates are soluble, and combined with potash and magnesia, while the insoluble phosphates are represented by lime, iron, with a small proportion of magnesia, the latter probably being a neutral phosphate. He also claims that these analyses clearly illustrate that, although habit and pride have gradually led us to prefer white bread to brown, or more so bread made with nearly the whole of the constituents of wheat-grain, still this practice is an error when we consider the nutritious properties of wheat, especially as a food for children, when phosphates are so essential to the formation of bone and blood; and medical men would confer a great boon on society if they were to impress the importance of feeding children with a wheaten preparation in which all the constituents of the grain were preserved. These views are further supported by some very interesting researches published in the *Comptes Rendus* by M. Mège Morries, in which he proved that there was in the inner cortical parts of the wheat a special ferment, which converted most rapidly starch into sugar, and thereby facilitated the conversion of wheaten flour into bread. These observations of M. Morries led him to devise a peculiar mode of grinding wheat, and making bread from the flour thus obtained, and the results were such that, from every hundredweight of wheat, he was enabled to obtain of bread—

Wheat, 100.		
Ordinary process....	70 flour,	93 bread.
M. Morries.....	83 "	110 "

This method was so satisfactorily carried out, that the Emperor of the French adopted it at the military bakery of Paris, in which bread is baked every day for 100,000 men.

CHILI, a republic in South America. President, for the term from 1866 to 1871, José Joaquin Perez. The ministry, in 1869, was composed as follows: Interior and Foreign Affairs, M. L. Amunategui (appointed November 13, 1868); Justice, Worship, and Instruction, J. Blest Gana (1866); Finances, M. Concha y Toro (January 7, 1869); War and Navy, F. Echaurren (November 13, 1868); president of the Supreme Court, M. Montt. Minister of the United States in Chili, Judson Kilpatrick (since November 11, 1865).

The home debt in May, 1868, amounted to 9,515,708 piasters; and the foreign debt to 25,058,926 piasters; total debt, 34,574,634 piasters. The army is composed of troops of the line (3,709 in 1869), and of the national guards, the number of whom, according to an official document, amounted, at the close of 1868, to 50,618 men. The fleet consisted, in 1869, of ten screw-steamers.

The area of Chili, according to the census of 1866, is 132,624 square miles; the population (inclusive of Araucania, Patagonia, and Terra del Fuego) is 2,084,945; the foreigners resident in the country numbered 23,220 (among whom were 3,876 Germans, 3,092 Englishmen, 2,483 Frenchmen).

The commerce of Chili during the years 1866 and 1867 was as follows:

	Imports.	Exports.
1866.....	$18,760,000	$26,680,000
1867.....	24,860,000	30,690,000

The number of vessels entering the Chilian ports in 1867 was 3,535, making, together, 1,724,000 tons. The merchant navy in 1865 numbered 257 vessels, together of 67,090 tons.

The state of the public treasury was not at all satisfactory when the present Minister of Finance, Concha y Toro, was appointed. He is a young and inexperienced man, has to combat with all the difficulties bequeathed to him by his predecessor, and has also to struggle with the embarrassments arising from the actual situation. The public debt of thirty-four and a half millions of hard dollars, together with the deficit in the budget recently presented of a million more, rendered the position of a Minister of the Exchequer more of a trouble than an honor. Still great confidence is reposed in Señor Concha, who assumes his office with the reputation of being a highly honorable and able man.

The estimates of 1869, passed by both Houses of Congress, amount to $12,296,876.44, in the following form: Home and Foreign Department, $2,576,799.76; Justice, Religion, and Public Instruction, $1,337,005.03; Finance, $5,896,257.99; War and Navy, $2,486,813.66; total, $12,296,876.44.

The liberal press of Chili made great exertions to secure the right of suffrage to all who could read and write, but the majority in Congress decided that only those who possessed a certain amount of property, or who were in the exercise of some profession, should be allowed the privilege of voting. This conservative tendency appears to be mainly due to the influence of the clergy, who are almost unanimous in the support of the Conservative party. The long-pending question of the impeachment of the Supreme Court, for various alleged high crimes and misdemeanors, has been finally settled, the accusations having been declared unfounded. The people, in general, heartily indorsed this decision.

The desire of extensive reforms in the internal condition of the country gave rise to numerous meetings, attended by the prominent members of the Progressive party, and to the adoption of the following programme:

Individual liberty shall be securely guaranteed, and the right to exercise the privileges attendant on it firmly established.

Local government shall be invested with that complete independence necessary for the thorough execution of its prerogatives.

The different branches of government shall be independent of each other; those invested with power shall be responsible for their actions, and measures in relation to this independence shall be adopted.

All persons shall be equal before the law, and all distinctions and privileges shall be abolished that now exist to the detriment of some and the advantage of others.

The club pledges itself to devote all its energies toward accomplishing these ends in the elections to take place in 1870.

These movements induced the Government to recede somewhat from its conservative policy by removing several prefects and governors of provinces, and naming in their places some of the foremost of the Progressive party. The three parties—the Conservative, National, and Liberal—have, however, so combined, and changed their ideas and principles, that it is extremely difficult to define their particular positions. The object of the present political struggle is to reduce the immense personal patronage in the hands of the President, and to establish a more democratic system. Chili, with a population of nearly two millions, has never polled more than 30,000 votes, whereas the adoption of the principles of the Progressive party would swell the number of persons entitled to suffrage to at least 200,000.

The Government of Chili declared itself ready to put an end to the paper war with Spain. Smarting with the shame of the Valparaiso bombardment, and jealous of the glories acquired by Peru in the repulse of the Spanish fleet, Chili refused all advances made by friendly nations to arrange a final peace, until, urged by Peru, Bolivia, and Ecuador, the Government consented to the plan proposed by the United States, that plenipotentiaries from all the belligerent powers should meet at Washington, and there settle all their differences, the President of the United States assuming the position of mediator in case any difficulty should arise.

The operations against the Indians of Araucania again engaged the serious attention of the Government. The Chilians found the savages fully determined to prevent the occupation of their territory by the white settlers, and to leave no means unemployed to attain this end. These savages never offer or give battle unless their numbers are superior to those of their enemy. In the beginning of 1869 the Government troops acted almost entirely on the defensive, their numbers being small, and the line of frontier to be defended very extensive. Thus the Indians were emboldened to make several desperate and successful inroads on their enemy's country. Unfortunately, the cruelties practised by the Indians seem to have been imitated by their opponents. In one attack, the savages met with complete success. Nearly two thousand of them passed the river Mallico, precipitated themselves upon the undefended villages, and robbed, murdered, and burned all persons and property that they encountered. In fact, their principal warfare seemed to be the increase of their live-stock by means of forced contributions from the herds of their enemies. Soon, however, the national forces adopted the same tactics. A column of about eight hundred men penetrated into the Araucanian country, and succeeded in capturing an enormous number of cattle and sheep. The general commanding communicated this feat in a most glowing report to the Minister of War. Far from being discouraged, the savages showed themselves more determined to carry devastation into the regions held by the settlers. The operations of the Government forces having been temporarily suspended, owing to the almost insuperable difficulties of transportation in that region during winter, the Indians reappeared in force along the frontier.

In the latter part of the year 1869 the efforts to bring about a better understanding between the Chilians and the Araucanians appear to have met with success. Some Araucanian caziques were induced to visit the capital for this purpose. During their stay in Santiago they were the recipients of every mark of attention from the Government and private persons, being decorated with medals, and dressed in military uniform, they comported themselves very much as the red-men of the United States do when they visit the Great Father at Washington, and imbibed astonishing quantities of spirituous liquor on all available occasions. They returned to their own country with the avowed intention of leading peaceable and industrious lives, and, in proof of their sincerity, left their eldest male children in Santiago to be educated at the national expense.

In the parting address to the President of the republic, all sorts of fine promises were made by the chiefs; but the President, well acquainted with their character, assured them, very emphatically, that the least deviation from the path of duty would be followed by their complete extermination—a threat which, after having seen the strength of the Government, evidently impressed them. One was presented a huge oaken bludgeon, ornamented with silver and tassels, and was informed that the Government regarded him as the chief of the tribes, and that with his insignia of office he was expected to preserve order among his hitherto unruly brethren. This he promised faithfully to do. A sum of $250,000 has been voted by Congress to establish permanent military posts among these savages.

Chili is progressing favorably in industrial pursuits. Many efforts were made to render the great Agricultural Exhibition a fine success, and liberal premiums were offered to foreign manufacturers for the best classes of agricultural implements. The Exhibition was formally opened at Santiago on the 5th of May, in the presence of the President and Cabinet, the diplomatic and consular corps, and the most distinguished inhabitants of the capital. The different South American republics were well represented. Chili was foremost with her wheat and copper-ores; Peru sent a superb collection of sugar samples, together with the famed alpaca-wool, quinine, and silver-ore;

Bolivia contributed ores, principally silver and tin; Ecuador cocoa; while the Central American States displayed dyewoods, coffee, and drugs. As to machinery, England took the lead, then came France, and finally the United States. There were nearly three hundred machines for agricultural and mining purposes. The Exhibition was successful. Almost all the machines were sold to farmers and miners in the republic. To promote industry and commerce, Congress passed a bill proroguing for one year the powers conferred upon the President of the republic by the law of the 18th of December, 1862, for the construction of the Chilian, Concepcion, and Talcahuano Railway; and further, to submit to arbitration, by and with the consent of the Council of State, all questions arising out of the contract that may be entered into for the construction of the said railway; also a bill empowering the President of the republic to call for tenders, and enter into contracts for the construction of a branch line of railway from Llaillai to San Felipe, according to the estimates, plans, and specifications formed by William Barré, C. E. The cost of the construction of the line is to be paid for in government bonds, the rate of interest upon which is not to exceed six per cent. per annum, payable half-yearly, and redeemable in thirty or more years, at not exceeding par, the right of increasing the redemption fund being reserved to the state. The same bill empowers the President of the republic, as soon as the before-mentioned line is concluded, to order its prolongation as far as Santa Rosa, in the manner and form already described. The Government declared also all materials to be used in the construction and repair of vessels free of import duty, which measure will add considerably to the prosperity and importance of Valparaiso. The works on the railway between Chillan and Talcahuano were commenced, and were expected to be finished in two years.

Considerable discoveries of copper were reported to have taken place at Mejillones.

Rather an important society has been recently formed in Chili, with the object of exporting the valuable animals found in the country, and importing those from foreign countries not yet known. The association numbers among its members several of the most influential men in the country, and will doubtless be productive of great good.

The following data will give some idea of the importance of the movement of Chilian commerce during the year 1868: In 1867 47,755 custom-house policies were issued, against 59,244 in 1868, leaving in favor of the last year a balance of nearly 11,500; 1,278 ships have entered the Chilian ports, against 1,100 in 1867. The receipts of the custom-house in Valparaiso amounted to the considerable sum of $5,500,000, nearly $1,000,000 more than in the preceding year.

In Chili business is but little affected by the political events which may transpire. The commercial interests of the country being almost entirely in the hands of foreigners, who never mix in political matters, their course is not changed by the action of Congress or of the Executive, the business community having sufficient influence to prevent the passage of any measures that would prove hurtful to them; and, as the large transactions in copper produce, which, with grain, constitute the great exports of the republic, are also controlled, in the main, by foreigners, no injury is received from executive proceedings.

CHINA,* an empire in Eastern Asia. Emperor, T'ung-Che † (before his accession to the throne, Tsai-Sung), born April 21, 1856; succeeded his father, Hieng-Fund, August 22, 1861. The estimates of the area of China Proper vary from 1,294,000 to 1,548,000 English square miles; and of the area of the dependencies of China, from 3,012,000 to 3,118,000 English square miles. The total area of China and dependencies is given by Behm (*Geograph. Jahrbuch*, vol. ii.) as 4,695,334 square miles. The population of China Proper is estimated at 450,000,000; of Mantchooria, 3,000,000; Mongolia, 3,000,000; Thian-Shan-nanlu and Thian-Shan-pelu, together, 1,000,000; Thibet, 11,000,000; Corea, 9,000,000; the Loo-Choo Islands, 500,000. The total population of China and dependencies would therefore be about 477,500,000. At the head of the department of Foreign Affairs is Prince Kung, an uncle of the Emperor. The empire is divided into eighteen provinces, each of which has a particular administration, army and finances.

Envoys Extraordinary and Ministers Plenipotentiary to the Treaty Powers, Hon. Anson Burlingame, Chih-Kang, and Sun-Chia-Ku. Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of the United States in Peking, Hon. F. W. Low, appointed in 1869.

Notwithstanding the endeavor of the Chinese Government to enter into more satisfactory relations with foreign powers, the last year has exhibited a continuance of hostile actions and feelings between the Chinese and foreign residents, in particular the English. The difficulty which in 1868 ‡ had occurred at Yang-Chow was settled by the dismissal of the local officers at Yang-Chow, and damages for destruction of property of the missionary, assessed at 1,826 taels, were promptly paid. The missionary and his family were formally invited to return to Yang-Chow, and a tablet of stone has been erected at the front door of the mission with the following inscription:

THE PREFECT OF YANG-CHOW.—*Whereas*, this house has been rented by the British subject Taylor,

* See AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, for an account of the army, of commercial statistics, and the movement of shipping.

† At first (1861) the name Ki-Tsiang was selected for the new government (*see* the preceding volumes of the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA), but it has subsequently been changed into T'ung-Che, which signifies "United Order."

‡ See AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

under the sanction of his consul and the local authorities, no idle or improper persons are allowed to enter or create a disturbance. Offenders will be arrested and punished. Obey with trembling!

A proclamation was issued by the highest officials of the province, which has been printed and widely circulated, a translation of which is as follows:

Ma, Governor-General of the two Kiang Provinces, imperial commissioner, etc.; Tseng-quo-fan, late Governor-General of the two Kiang Provinces, imperial commissioner, etc.; Ting, Governor of Kiang Su, hereby issue a proclamation for general information: *Whereas*, the preaching of religion is sanctioned by treaty, and all persons are at liberty to become proselytes thereto as it suits their convenience, without compulsion either for or against; we therefore issue this proclamation to give the population, civil and military, of these districts to know that it is required of them that they carefully observe the treaty which has been concluded by our most gracious sovereign the Emperor, and that they must not annoy religious establishments, nor raise pretexts; nor must they treat foreign travelers with wanton disrespect. Every wilful offender will certainly be visited with heavy punishment, without hope of pardon. Obey with trembling! A special proclamation, 27th day, 9th month, 7th year of the Emperor T'ung-Chc.

Earl Clarendon took occasion to define the views of the English Government concerning its relation to China, in a letter to Mr. Burlingame, in which it is declared that—

Her Majesty's Government fully admitted that the Chinese Government were entitled to count upon the forbearance of foreign nations, and I assured you that, as far as their country was concerned, there was neither a desire nor intention to apply unfriendly pressure to China to induce her Government to advance more rapidly in her intercourse with foreign nations than was consistent with safety, and with due and reasonable regard for the feelings of her subjects. But her Majesty's Government expected from China a faithful observance of the stipulations of existing treaties, and reserved to themselves the right of employing friendly representations to induce the Chinese Government to advance in the course opened up by those treaties, and to afford greater facilities, and encouragement, and protection, to the subjects of foreign powers seeking to extend commercial intercourse with the Chinese people. Her Majesty's Government feel that they may fairly appeal to the Chinese Government, though always in terms of friendship, to act in this spirit toward themselves and other foreign nations; and they would do so with the more confidence because they may be excused for believing that the interests of China will be advanced in a far greater degree than those of foreign nations, by steadily availing herself of the opportunities within her reach for applying to her empire the skill and experience of the nations of Europe. But her Majesty's Government are, moreover, entitled to expect from China as an indispensable condition of their good-will, the fullest amount of protection to British subjects resorting to her dominions. They are aware that the provincial governors are too often in the habit of disregarding the rights of foreigners, trusting to impunity as regards the Central Government of Peking, and to the unwillingness of foreign powers to assert the rights of their subjects by local pressure. Her Majesty's Government feel that they are acting in the interest of the Chinese Empire, when they announce their preference for an appeal rather to the Central Government than to local authorities for the redress of wrongs done to British subjects. It is with the Central Government and not with the provincial authorities that foreign powers have entered into treaties, and it is for the interest of the Central Government that foreign powers should recognize its supreme authority over its provincial governors, and that the Central Government should assume, and, on all occasions when appealed to for the redress of local wrongs, be prepared to exercise that authority. These observations will, I trust, enable you to reassure the Government of Peking as to the friendly feelings entertained toward it by the British Government. It rests with the Central Government so to order its intercourse with Great Britain and the Queen's subjects as to avoid cause of difference, and to preserve unimpaired the friendship of this country. I have only to add, that all her Majesty's agents in China have been instructed to act in the spirit and with the objects which I have thus explained to you; and generally to caution British subjects to pay due respect not only to the laws of the empire, but, as far as may be, to the usages and feelings of the Chinese people.

Lord Stanley also declared, in January, 1869, to the English ambassador, Alcock, in still more emphatic terms, the desire of the Government for fair dealing with the Chinese, and censured the arbitrary measures taken by the English officers in China, saying:

I have to instruct you to explain to her Majesty's consuls that the special purposes for which her Majesty's ships-of-war are stationed in the ports of China, and employed on the coasts, are to protect the floating commerce of British subjects against piratical attacks in Chinese waters, to support her Majesty's consuls in maintaining order and discipline among the crews of British vessels, in the respective ports, and, in cases of great emergency, to protect the lives and properties of British subjects, if placed in peril by wanton attacks directed against them either on the part of local authorities or by an uncontrolled popular movement. As regards this last point, her Majesty's consuls must constantly bear in mind that the interference of naval force, either on their representation, or on the part of naval officers acting on their own estimation of facts before them, will alone receive the subsequent approval of her Majesty's Government, when it is clearly shown that without such interference the lives and properties of British subjects would, in all probability, have been sacrificed; and, even in such a case, her Majesty's Government will expect to learn that the alternative of receiving them on board ship, and so extricating them from threatened danger, was not available. Beyond this, the circumstances of the case must be of a very peculiar nature which would be held by her Majesty's Government to justify a recourse to force. Her Majesty's Government cannot leave with her Majesty's consuls or naval officers to determine for themselves what redress or reparation for wrong done to British subjects is due, or by what means it should be enforced. They cannot allow them to determine whether coercion is to be applied by blockade, by reprisals, by landing armed parties, or by acts of even a more hostile character. All such proceedings bear more or less the character of acts of war, and her Majesty's Government cannot delegate to her Majesty's servants in foreign countries the power of involving their own country in war. My dispatches to which I have referred will have enabled you to point out in unmistakable terms to her Majesty's consuls the course they are to pursue when an emergency calling for immediate action as the sole means of protecting British life and property has passed away. They must appeal to her Majesty's minister at Peking, to obtain redress through the action of the Central Government; and he, on his part, if he fails to obtain it, will submit the case for the judgment of her Majesty's Government, with whom alone it rests to decide as to the course to be thereupon pursued. I shall furnish the Board of Admiralty with a copy of this dispatch, in order that they may send corre-

sponding instructions to the admiral in the China Seas.

The overbearing and insulting policy pursued by some English officials and navy commanders in China met with an emphatic rebuke not only on the part of the Government, but also of the English people. The *Times* said:

It is the duty, recognized not merely in theory but in practice, of our minister at Peking to be the medium for the assertion of the rights of British subjects in China. A British commander would be bound to protect his countrymen against actual or threatened violence, just as it is the duty of individuals in this country, though they be not police constables, to prevent murder. But he has no more title to set on foot an armed negotiation with Chinese officials on his countrymen's behalf than an individual at home has, after witnessing a murder, to put the murderer to death. If he would have had those functions formerly, the appointment by his Government of a resident plenipotentiary to the court of Pekin must be taken to have amounted to an abdication by his Government of such a right for the future. It cannot be disguised, too, that conduct like that referred to might, in times of international agitation, lead to grave embarrassments in the relations also between Great Britain and the other nations interested in China. France, the United States, and Russia, we are told, would claim it as a fair inference from English acts and declarations of the past few years, that this country had given up the system of isolated interference in the affairs of China. It may be doubted how far, if at all, we can be considered to have pledged ourselves to any such policy of "co-operation;" but it is, at all events, inexpedient to countenance a course or action on the part of our naval officers which, imitated as it would be by those of our allies, might put the peace, not of China alone, but of Europe and America, at the mercy of the discretion of any two captains who might find their theories at variance as to the right and duty of punishing some offending Chinese mandarin for his conduct to the countrymen of one of them.

Another serious collision took place in January, very soon after the Yang-Chow difficulty, at Swatow, between the Chinese inhabitants and the crew of the British gunboat Grasshopper. The fight appears to have been obstinate and bloody. The sailors fought desperately, but were overwhelmed by the natives, whose numbers constantly increased, and they were compelled to retire to their ship with eleven of their number wounded. Many Chinese were killed and wounded in the affray. The Chinese, immediately on the boats retiring, assisted by the inhabitants of the surrounding villages, began to build substantial mud forts and armed to the number of six thousand men. Placards were posted all through the city of Swatow offering a reward of fifty dollars for every European head. Lieutenant Kerr immediately sent notice of these proceedings to the admiral at Hong-Kong, and the British ships-of-war Rinaldo, Perseus, Leven, and Bouncer, were sent up to the scene of the trouble. On the morning of the 29th, at four o'clock, a force of four hundred and fifty men, consisting of the Rodney's marines and blue-jackets from all the other vessels, started, under the command of Commodore Jones, and landed at daylight near Swatow. They then marched into the country and burned three villages, one of them being the place where the men of the Cockchafer were fired upon. The natives offered a bold resistance, and the work of firing and destroying the villages was not accomplished without some considerable loss on the part of the natives and two casualties on the English side.

There was another though less serious trouble at Foo-Chow, originating, according to some accounts, in an indiscreet zeal of the missionaries. Another very serious difficulty occurred between the English subjects on the island of Formosa and the Chinese residents there. There is considerable trade between the island and the main-land in camphor, one of the products of the island, and principally collected in that portion of the island occupied by the aborigines. Some English traders purchased a quantity of camphor in the interior, which was seized, by order of the mandarins, *in transitu* to the port of shipment, under some flimsy pretext. In addition to this, some English missionaries were insulted and improperly treated. A demand was made by the English consul for redress and the immediate delivery of the camphor, which was refused. Some English ships-of-war went there, and landed troops in the face of a large Chinese force, and killed a number of them, when the Chinese came to terms, paid damages, and apologized.

The hostility of the Chinese to the missionaries seems to be on the increase. A placard, extensively posted up throughout the empire, denounced the missionaries in violent terms.

The people of the United States have increasing interests in China. The establishment of direct steamship lines connecting the western coasts of the United States with China, and the completion of the Pacific Railroad, have contributed largely to extend all the ramifications of trade with Eastern Asia. The increase of this international trade, which promises for the future grand results, imparts a special importance to the treaty ports, and we therefore subjoin a brief geographical and statistical statement * of their condition in 1869:

1. *Foo-Chow* is the capital of the province of Fo-Kien, and situated on the left bank of the river Min, quite a distance inland from its mouth. The population of the province of Fo-Kien is estimated at twenty million. It is one of the most important sections of China, and is politically united with the province of Tse-Kiang, under a governor whose official residence is at Foo-Chow. Fo-Kien has an extent of coast-line of one hundred and thirty geographical miles, and includes, besides the principal port named, the following other treaty-ports: Amoy, Ningpo, Tamsin, and Tai-Wan-Foo. The last two are on the island of Formosa, which forms a part of the province of Fo-Kien, and extends along the coast, from which it is separated by the Formosa Channel. The inhabitants of Fo-Kien and

* Condensed from a very full account in the *New York Herald*.

Formosa are very industrious and much more energetic than those of any other Chinese province, excepting, perhaps, Tartary. The country is mountainous but fertile, and the chief products are sugar and tea. The river Min, with its many navigable tributaries, furnishes an easy and cheap means of transportation to and from the interior. Foreign vessels anchor in the river a distance of over ten miles below the city of Foo-Chow, opposite Pagoda Island, and goods are exchanged on lighters between the vessels and the city. Like all Chinese cities, the principal part of the town is surrounded by a wall, and, including the suburbs and the literally "floating population" living in boats on the river, it numbers about eight hundred thousand inhabitants. Foreigners occupy the right bank of the Min, and have extended over the adjoining hills and into the principal suburb. A large bridge, built of solid masonry, connects the two river-banks, and the foreign with the native population. This foreign colony, though spread over a proportionately vast area of ground, is but small, consisting of but about two hundred persons, half of whom are English, the rest composed of Americans, Germans, Portuguese, and Parsees. The climate is considered healthy, but all foreigners need careful protection from the intense heat of summer, which ranges from 78° to 105° Fahrenheit, and is never below ten degrees above zero in winter.

2. *Han-Kow.*—This city is in the centre of the province Hu-Peh, on the Yang-tse-Kiang, or Blue River, the most important river of the empire. It is situated about 600 miles from the mouth of the Yang-tse-Kiang, and splendid steamers ply on its waters from this city to the coast. The distance from Shanghai to the three open ports on the Yang-tse-Kiang is as follows: Tsin-Kiang, 150½ miles; Kin-Kiang, 445 miles, and Han-Kow, 582 miles. Steamboats of the first class make the trip from Shanghai to Han-Kow generally in three days, and remain for about six hours at each of the ports between Tsin-Kiang and Kin-Kiang. Slower boats take five days for the trip. The downward trips are generally made in forty-eight hours. The fares for passage are as follows: to Tsin-Kiang, twenty-five taels; to Kin-Kiang, fifty taels; to Han-Kow, sixty taels; for the trip to Han-Kow and return, 100 taels—a tael being about equal to $1.48, gold, of American money. These three cities, of which the two largest have each 600,000 inhabitants, compose one centre of population. A very large number of Chinese boats are always on the river Yang-tse-Kiang and on the Han, and keep up constant communication with the various points. The very favorable location of Han-Kow, almost in the centre of China Proper, and its facilities of communication with the surrounding populous and very productive districts, by means of an extended net of lakes, rivers, and canals, have given its commerce great activity and importance. The customs return for the last year reports the trade of Han-Kow as follows:

	Taels.
Foreign goods imported.....	10,294,656
Chinese " "	7,836,038
Exports, ...	12,406,332
Total.....	30,537,026

3. *Canton.*—This port lies on the left bank of Pearl River, about sixty miles from the coast, in the province of Kwang-Tong, of which it is the capital. The mouths of the Pearl River, at the eastern end of which is situated Hong-Kong, and on the west Macao, are the grandest, on account of their extent and of the numerous islands. The steamers from Hong-Kong and Macao pass here daily, and so also do innumerable Chinese junks. By the Pearl River, its tributaries and over the many canals with which this portion of China is richly intersected, Canton has constant communication with the surrounding tea and silk districts, and with other fertile provinces near Twang-Tong, such as Kwang-Si, Hun-Nan, and Kiang-Si. Since Nanking has been destroyed by the Taepings, and Peking has entered a downward course, Canton is assuming the proportions of the first city of the empire. Its population is estimated at 1,000,000 inhabitants, and it is the residence of the governor of the two provinces Kwang-Tong and Kwang-Si. It has fully recovered from the devastations caused by the hostile incursions of "outside barbarians." Though the first port opened to foreign trade, it has preserved its Chinese character. The foreign merchants own nearly the entire river-shore at Ho-Nam, but they also have acquired land on the right bank, where they have erected large and splendid stone quays. The permanent foreign colony of Canton numbered, in 1869, about 100 persons, and among the mercantile firms were five American, nine English, and four German. Steamers only are permitted to land opposite the city; foreign sailing vessels must anchor at Wampoa, twelve miles below Canton. The opening of other more northern ports, principally of that of Han-Kow, has considerably reduced the commerce of Canton, since the products of the central provinces, which formerly passed through the latter city, now find their way in a large proportion through Han-Kow and similarly situated ports.

4. *Kin-Kiang.*—Next to Han-Kow, in point of importance among the ports open to the foreign trade on the Yang-tse-Kiang, stands undoubtedly Kin-Kiang, 445 miles from Shanghai and 137 from Han-Kow, on the northern point of the province of Kiang-Si. From here a continuous exchange of products is carried on with the interior over the lake Pa-Jang to the south and over the many rivers and canals which are such great aids to the interior commerce of China throughout the empire. The chief products of this province are tea, tobacco, hemp, paper, porcelain, grass-cloth (made of cotton and flax), paints, wax, etc. Up to with-

in a short time Kin-Kiang had 500,000 inhabitants and was considered very wealthy. But its occupation by the rebels and the war between them and the imperialists have almost ruined the city. Since its opening to foreign trade, in 1861, numbers of the former inhabitants have returned, and the part which extends from the foreign establishments on the western bank of the river to the old city has been rebuilt. The present Chinese population is estimated at 50,000, and is rapidly on the increase. There are not over fifty foreigners permanently located here, including the customs officers and the British consulate. The customs returns for last year give:

	Taels.
Foreign goods imported.....	2,636,381
Chinese " "	865,468
Exports, ...	4,358,760
Total.....	7,860,609

5. *Amoy.*—This city is located on the island of Hia-Mun, near the southeastern coast of the province Fo-Kien, and opposite the mouth of the Lung-Kiang, or Dragon River. The population of Amoy is estimated at 800,000, and that of the whole island Hia-Mun, with a circumference of thirty-six miles, at 400,000 souls. It is separated from the main-land by a channel about two miles in width. The harbor of Amoy is one of easiest access in all China, and has been preferred by foreigners for centuries. The security of the harbor has contributed much to the development of its trade. The environs of the city are thickly settled, and the people are industrious, active, and enterprising. The population increases rapidly, and Chinese emigration draws from here its heaviest percentage. The cities of Amoy and Chin-Chow—the latter the seat of the departmental government—are celebrated for centuries for sending out mercantile expeditions to the Indian archipelago, to Hindostan, and even to Persia. Tea and sugar are the staple products of these districts. The dressing of cotton goods has reached to a high perfection, and this branch of industry has kept pace with the imports from Manchester. The foreign establishments are partly in the Chinese city, partly on the small islet of Kon-Lang-Foo, southeast of Hia-Mun, and separated from the latter by a channel only 675 yards wide.

6. *Ning-Po.*—This is one of the five ports opened to foreigners by the treaty of Nanking in 1842. It lies in the province Che-Kiang, at the confluence of two streams, which form the river Jong. It has now a population of 500,000, and is rated as one of the best-built cities in China. The European establishment, where all foreign vessels cast anchor, is on the left bank of the Jong, opposite Ning-Po, and connected with it by a wooden bridge. This foreign settlement has greatly increased since 1861, when Taepings took possession of Ning-Po, and many Chinese moved among the foreigners for better security, and who have since remained there. In the year 1865 there were fifty-one foreign mercantile firms at Ning-Po, of whom two were American, forty-three English, five German, and one French. The climate is considered much more healthy than that of Shanghai.

7. *Swatow.*—This port is situated at the mouth of the river Han, in the northeastern part of the province of Kwang-Tong, and it is the harbor of two large inland cities—Cho-Chow-Foo, thirty-five miles up the river, and San-Ho-Pa, forty miles farther.

Foreigners first formed a settlement near Swatow in 1851, and, though tolerated by the mandarins, were not recognized. This settlement was on Double Island, four miles from Swatow. The port was formerly opened in 1858 by the treaty of Tien-Tsin, but advantage was taken of this by the establishment of a permanent colony only in 1862. Commerce is rapidly developing and increasing. Unfortunately, however, this portion of China is possessed with a thorough hatred of Europeans, which was stimulated by the tricks and practices of those engaged in the coolie trade. Lately a better disposition has been manifested by the natives, particularly toward Americans, and the opening of a steamboat line from Swatow to Cho-Chow-Foo and other interior cities along the Han, under the auspices of American enterprise and capital, will be of great benefit for the further development of this port and its commerce.

8. *Tien-Tsin.*—This city and harbor were opened to foreign commercial enterprise and navigation by the October treaties in 1860. Tien-Tsin is situated in the province of Pe-chi-li, at the junction of the Grand Canal with the river Pei-ho, twenty-eight miles, in a direct line from Ta-Ku, the mouth of the river, and sixty miles from Peking.

The products of the provinces of Pe-chi-li and Chan-Si, which pass through Tien-Tsin for exchange, are cotton, beans, dates, horns, dried lily-leaves, hides, furs, soap, gensing, wax, wool, camel-hair, etc. Mineral ore is abundant, and coal beds of great richness and extent. Since the opening of this port to foreign trade it has rapidly developed and increased. The foreign establishments are located mostly on the left bank of the Pei-ho. The settlement of foreigners or of foreign firms was not as extensive as might have been, since the major part of the trade of Tien-Tsin is carried on through the old-established houses at Shanghai. At the close of 1866 only sixteen foreign firms had established themselves—one American, nine English, four Russian, one German, and one Italian.

9. *Che-Foo.*—This harbor is easily accessible and very safe. It lies north of Cape Chantung, and in the entrance to the Gulf of Pechee-le. In the treaty of 1860, Fung-Chow, the capital of the department, was designated as an open port, but, as it had no harbor and only an open road, Che-Foo, thirty miles to the east, was substituted, though the proper name of

the place where the foreign establishments have made their settlement is Jen-Hai, where there is a small town of about 10,000 inhabitants. The province of Chan-Tung is the most fertile of the northern provinces of China. From the south to the north it is bisected by the Great Canal. Its products are cereals, tobacco, beans, peas, oil, cotton, drugs, raw silk, etc., minerals of various kinds, and lead and coal in great quantities, the latter especially, near the city of Che-Foo. This is the only harbor on the gulf of Pe-chee-lee which remains open throughout the winter. The chief means of transport on this road are mules and camels, but a large part of the trade is also carried on by the way of the river Ta-Tsing, which empties into the gulf of Pe-chee-lee at Che-Foo. Foreign trade is rapidly increasing, and it appears that here, more than in many other places in the empire, a neighborly intercourse between the resident foreigners and the Chinese exists, since the latter are building their houses and magazines without reserve among and around the residences and warerooms of the Europeans.

10. *Nin-Chang.* — This is the only open port, included in the treaty of Tien-Tsin of 1860, which is situated beyond the limits of China Proper. It is located on the coast of Mantchooria, in the province of Tung-Tien. The foreign colonists have settled not at Nin-Chang, but at the mouth of the river Lian, on the gulf of Lian-Tung, which is connected by a channel with the gulf of Pe-chee-lee. The city of Nin-Chang is thirty miles from this foreign settlement. Farther in the interior is the capital of the province, the city Muk-Den, the chief centre of the trade of Mantchooria with China. The colony of foreigners is yet but small, as, at the close of 1866, there were but one American, two English, and one German firm established. The country around Nin-Chang is low and open, but well tilled and dotted with villages and dwellings. The chief products are hemp, corn, cotton, beans, peas, ginseng, drugs, horns, camel-hair, etc. In the winter, when field-work is impossible, the people form into large caravans and transport the fruit of their summer's toil on carts farther south.

11. *Ta-Kow and Tai-Wan-Foo.*—These places are situated on the island of Formosa, and, though at a distance of twenty-five miles, they are in fact but one port. Tai-Wan-Foo is the principal city of the department of Formosa, on the western coast of the island, and contains 100,000 inhabitants. It maintains a very extensive trade in junks, but, as its open roads protect the shipping only from northern winds, foreign vessels come to anchor at Ta-Kow, farther south, which was opened in 1864. The harbor is a good one, but small, and at its entrance is a bar with but seventeen feet of water at ebb tide. Ta-Kow is but an insignificant place, and the foreign settlement is also very small, but the Roman Catholics have a mission there, consisting of monks of the Dominican order. Sugar, rice, oil, hemp, salt, etc., constitute the principal products of the island. The climate is very warm, but healthy.

12. *Nanking and Kiung-Chow.*—According to the treaties, the cities of Nanking, on the river Yang-tse-Kiang, and of Kiung-Chow, on the island of Hai-Nan, were also to be opened to foreign commerce; but the very limited commercial importance of these places has decided differently. Nanking, the former capital of China, was for over ten years (1853–1864) in the possession of the Taepings. Since the recapture of this city, in 1864, the Imperial Government made Nankin the capital of the province of Kiang-Nin and the residence of the viceroy of both the Kiangs. Every effort was made to induce the former inhabitants to return, but the progress is so slow that many years will pass before this city, once the chief of all the cities of China, can again be said to be on the road to future prosperity and greatness.

13. *Hong-Kong.*—The island which bears this name has a circuit of from twenty-six to twenty-seven miles, is very mountainous, and contained, in 1842, when it was ceded to England, only a few villages of Chinese fishermen. To-day the beautiful city of Victoria, on the northern shore, opposite the bay of Hong-Kong, rises amphitheatrically along the mountains, into the rocks of which the streets have been hewn. Indeed, the building of the city is in itself one of the wonders of the age. There are steam lines connecting with New York by way of San Francisco, and also by Panama; with Europe, by way of the Red Sea and the Isthmus of Suez; with Australia, by Japan; with Canton, Macao, Swatow, Amoy, Foo-Chow, Shanghai, Manila, and with Singapore, Calcutta, and Bombay.

The people of China are becoming alive to the advantages of steam, and the steamboats of the Yang-tse are freighted by native merchants and loaded with native passengers, and will soon be owned and managed by native owners. The building of junks has nearly ceased, and, as the steamboat comes along, the junks will disappear. The Yangtse is equal to the Mississippi in extent, in climate, in resources, and has the immeasurable advantage of having over 150,000,000 of industrious and productive people near its navigable waters. The Upper Yang-tse is in the same condition that the Upper Mississippi and the Upper Missouri were before steamboats had penetrated their waters, except that this region has the advantage of a redundant population.

The transportation by steam upon the Yang-tse is exclusively in the hands of a company organized in China as the "Shanghai Steam Navigation Company." The service is performed at present by six large river steamers, and the trade must be very lucrative, as they have been able in a very few years to pay for the steamers, declare a stock-dividend of fifty per cent., and earn annually about

$1,000,000 on a capital of little over that sum invested in steamboats, wharf property, etc.

The supply of coal has been ascertained by geological examinations to be abundant in the provinces bordering on the Yang-tse-Kiang. The coal-fields of China are estimated as equal in extent to those of the United States.

The commercial intercourse between China and the foreign countries is growing so important that many consider the opening of more ports advisable. The Hong-Kong Chamber of Commerce has, however, advised against it, for the following reasons:

With regard to the question of opening more ports on the coast, this Chamber, while desirous of encouraging in every way possible commercial intercourse between foreigners and Chinese, hesitates, while the system of transit dues continues upon its present unsatisfactory footing, to recommend such a step, and would record as its opinion that greater benefits would accrue to foreign trade by the greater freedom of transit of goods into the interior, such as would be obtained by the introduction of railways and permission to navigate the inland waters of China by steamers. The inlets now afforded by the ports at present open to trade are, in the opinion of this Chamber, quite sufficient, with the present deficient state of the transit system. The first step should, the Chamber thinks, be directed toward the improvement of that system and the development of inland communication, before further expenses are entailed in establishing consula restablishments upon the seaboard of China.

While a large emigration of Chinese is moving eastward to the gold and grain regions of California, and the Pacific slope generally, the Mantchoo race is being rapidly replaced in Central and Northern Mantchooria by Chinese immigration, favored by the Peking Government, which makes grants of land at almost nominal prices. The Chinese race develop in Mantchooria, under a more hardy climate, into a healthier and stronger race. Many Mussulmans have also been attracted thither, between whom and the Chinese no fellowship exists. Kirin, the capital of Central Mantchooria, is navigable for junks to a considerable distance above the city. This district of country is bounded on the south by the Yellow Sea, the Chih-le Gulf, and the Great Wall; on the east by the Yaluh, which separates it from Corea, and by the Usuri, which separates it from the portion of the Russian seaboard territory that lies south of the Amoor; on the north by the Amoor, and on the west by the Kingan mountain-range. The race connected with this great district and neighboring countries, the East Asian race, have for two thousand years recognized one suzerain, the Hwang-te, called by Western foreigners the Emperor of China, but he is not merely sovereign of the Chinese nation. He is supreme also in religious or sacerdotal affairs, so far as Confucianism deals with these; and his supremacy is acknowledged even in the prevalent idolatries of Taouism and Buddhism, on whose idols and temples he confers highly-prized honorary distinctions. He is "the Son of Heaven," the divinely commissioned representative on earth of the supreme heavenly power. The Hwang-te has the right of nominating his successor, but the nominee is bound to secure peace and plenty to the people by good government, in accordance with the principles laid down in the sacred books; and, should he fail to do so, that fact is regarded as a proof that Heaven has withdrawn the divine commission from him. The political significance of the Mantchoos, a numerically small nation, inhabiting a region bound up by severe frosts for four or five months of the year, rests in the fact that for the last two centuries the Hwang-te has been, as he is now, a member of one and the same Mantchoo family, and that no dynasty of Hwang-tes has had more complete possession of the actual governing power. The family has a legendary origin in an immaculate-conceived personage, the son of a "heavenly virgin," who appeared at Ningkoota, on the north of the Long White Mountains, before the time of Ghengis Khan. The subjugation of China Proper to Mantchoo sway has reacted on that people. The bulk of the Mantchoo nation migrated into China, and the Chinese natives of Shan-tung and Chih-le proceeded into the western parts of Mantchooria and eastern Mongolia, and settled there as traders, artificers, and agriculturists. A sort of finishing blow has been given to the Mantchoos as a distinct nation by recent large draftings of troops to oppose the Taepings, and later rebel bodies in China Proper. The wonderful success of the Mantchoo nation two hundred years ago has, in short, led to their being nearly merged in the Chinese. With regard to Eastern Mongolia, the people, though still only pastoral, have ceased to be nomads, and the residences of the dukes and princes of Eastern Mongolia are spacious stone and brick mansions, some of them surpassing the country-seats of wealthy Chinese landed proprietors, and the yamuns of mandarins in Chinese cities. The residence of the duke of the Northern Korlos, near the left bank of the Nouni, occupies (buildings and courts) some five or six acres of ground. The "Palisade" boundary, one line of which separates Mantchooria from Eastern Mongolia, no longer exists.

The imperial maritime customs of China is a branch of service entirely under the admintration of foreigners, assisted by native officials, and is acquiring great efficiency and system. The annual revenue derived from this source does not exceed 15,000,000 taels per annum.

China imports from Great Britain and her dependencies, under the British flag, merchandise per annum as follows:

	Taels.
Opium from British India	31,990,919
Merchandise	34,463,734
Total Imports	66,454,653
China exports to Great Britain and her dependencies per annum, to the value of	44,611,585
Leaving a balance of	21,843,068

—which is liquidated by shipments of syceesilver to British India, balance due upon the value of opium imported.

	Taels.
The United States import from China productions, principally tea and silk, to the amount annually of	7,493,318
And find a market in China for merchandise annually to the value of	702,603
Leaving a balance of	6,790,715

—which is liquidated by shipments of gold and silver, or sterling bills.

The United States, therefore, furnish a large proportion of the bullion which the Chinese pay the British for opium. The bullion is not absorbed in China; it goes on to India, and thence to England.

Education and knowledge have received a powerful impulse by the contact with foreigners, as may be seen in the schools and arsenals established at various points. The arsenal at Shanghai, under the superintendence of Mr. Hall (an American), is intended for the building of steamers and gunboats, and the manufacture of all kinds of munitions of war after the most approved foreign models. The premises cover nearly half a square mile of land. There are thirteen foreigners employed as superintendents of the various departments, and some 1,300 native workmen. In the year 1868 they launched their first vessel, a paddle-wheel steamer, 185 feet long, carrying six 24-pounders, brass naval howitzers; two 12-pounders, and one 20-pounder iron rifle gun upon the forecastle, with the launches, boats, and every foreign appliance, complete. Upon the 12th of April, 1869, they launched a screw gunboat 163½ feet long, of American white oak keel, copper fastened throughout, and fitted up in every respect with all the modern improvements. She was to be armed with four brass 24-pounder howitzers, two iron 20-pounder Blakeley rifles, one steel 20-pounder Blakeley rifle on the forecastle, and one iron 68-pounder and two brass 12-pounder howitzers. There was another on the stocks similar to the last mentioned, but 200 feet long, which would be ready to be launched in a couple of months. The keel of a transport 200 feet long was being laid, and the plans of a corvette 240 feet long were being prepared. Two other vessels, one 260 feet long and the other 280 feet long, were under contemplation. Tramways were being laid down, and a large dock constructed. Connected with this establishment is to be a large scientific school. Already some sinologues are employed in translating various works for text-books and reference. The work turned out seems of the best quality, and the native managers are importing valuable libraries of scientific books, and all necessary philosophical and chemical apparatus. They seem thoroughly alive to the importance of all these branches of foreign science, and determined to make themselves masters of them.

A curious specimen of Chinese schools may be found in the examination of candidates in Nanking. The number in attendance at an examination held in 1869 was 16,000, and the examinations were conducted by a literary chancellor and vice-chancellor. There was an old man aged 103 years, accompanied by his son, aged 80, his grandson of 50, and great grandson of 20 years—the two former of whom, according to Chinese precedent, will attain at least to an honorary degree.

The treaty concluded in 1868 between the United States and China received in 1869 the imperial sanction. The reports from China, which had repeatedly announced a desire of the Chinese Government to evade or reject the treaty, thus proved groundless.

In November, 1869, the revised treaty between England and China was signed. The following are the important changes: A modification of the transit dues; the opening of two new ports to trade and commerce; the working of coal-mines by foreign appliances, as an experiment, in two places yet to be selected; a reduction of the duty on native coal, and other articles; the establishment of bonded warehouses; the navigation of the inland waters by vessels not steamers, and a temporary residence in any part of the empire by foreigners. The ports to be opened by the treaty are Wachau, on the Lower Yang-tse, and Wanchau, on the coast, between Ning-Po and Foo-Chow, both of which ports had been strongly recommended in all the memorials on the subject. The Chinese Government had also agreed to employ an English barrister to frame a code of mercantile laws, in conjunction with the judge appointed by her Majesty the Queen of England. The Supreme Court will govern all international civil suits. The advantages to be gained by the treaty are pronounced substantial, and equally beneficial to the Chinese as to foreigners.

On September 2, 1869, a new commercial treaty was concluded between China and Austria, conceding to the latter power the same rights which the other treaty powers enjoy. The desire of Austria, to obtain new stipulations in favor of the Roman Catholic missions, was not acceded to by China.

The printing establishments connected with the Protestant missions were: *Shanghai*—American Presbyterian Mission, 8 presses, 25,000,000 pages printed; American Southern Baptist Mission, 19,000 pages printed. *Ningpo*—American Baptist Mission, 594,500 pages printed; Independent Baptist Mission, 160,000 pages printed. *Foo-Chow*—American M. E. Mission, 2 presses; 7,000,000 pages printed. *Amoy*—American Reformed Mission, one small press for printing colloquial Chinese. *Hong-Kong*—London Mission, 4 presses; no returns of printing; China Inland Mission, 2 presses; no returns of printing.

The *Chinese Recorder*, published at Foo-Chow, gives the following statistics of the Protestant missions in China in 1869:

STATIONS AND MISSIONS.	Ordained Missionaries.	Missionary Ladies.	Native Assistants.	Scholars.	Stations and Out-stations.	Chapels.	Communicants.	Catechumens.	Benevolent Contributions.
Peking	15	19	18	152	14	18	172	27	$22 00
Tien-Tsin	7	6	13	91	7	14	184	95	141 00
Che-Foo	4	5	6	27	6	3	69	...	70 00
Tungchow	5	7	8	57	12	10	113	...	206 00
Shanghai	8	11	10	165	13	8	352	16	284 00
Hin-Kiang	1	1	0	10	2	2	4	3	.....
Hankow	7	4	8	208	7	8	207	5	105 00
Ning-Po and Hangchow	19	13	64	284	59	50	965	54	324 44
Foo-Chow	10	10	108	584	69	67	925	384	606 20
Amoy	10	7	54	173	32	28	1,271	466	1,735 54
Takav and Tairvan	1	2	5	....	4	3	18	35	38 00
Swatow	5	4	20	291	22	22	261	25	106 49
Hong-Kong	10	9	11	264	15	16	400	70	500 00
Canton	22	16	46	2,349	29	32	683	232	150 81
China Inland Missions	5	15	18	.....	15	15	119	84	.....
Total	124	119	369	4,389	291	281	5,624	1,412	$4,289 48

CLEVELAND, CHARLES DEXTER, LL. D., an American scholar, professor, and author, born in Salem, Mass., December 3, 1802; died in Philadelphia, August 18, 1869. He was intended at first for the mercantile profession, and from his sixteenth to his twenty-first year was in a business-house. In 1823 he entered Dartmouth College, and graduated with distinguished honors in 1827. In 1830 he was elected Professor of the Latin and Greek Languages and Literature in Dickinson College, Carlisle, Pa.; in 1832 he was called to the professorship of Latin Language and Literature in the University of New York; and in 1834 established a school for young ladies in Philadelphia, over which he presided with great success for nearly thirty years, and which he only relinquished in consequence of failing health. In the autumn of 1861 he received the unsolicited and unexpected appointment of United States consul for Cardiff, Wales, and remained there until 1867. After his resignation of his post, he returned to Philadelphia, but his health requiring a change of climate he returned to Europe, and, after spending some time on the Continent, was domiciled for a year at Ilfracombe, Devonshire. He returned, in midsummer of 1869, to Philadelphia, where his death was very sudden, and the result of an affection of the heart. He had received the honorary degree of LL. D. from Ingham University, in 1861, and from the University of New York in 1866. Professor Cleveland had, early in his career, been impressed with the lack of good and convenient text-books of English literature, and the desirableness of familiarizing our youth, and especially our young women, more thoroughly with the best works in our language, that they might acquire a knowledge of "the wells of English undefiled," which should influence and control their subsequent use of the language as a medium of thought. It was for this purpose that he prepared his Compendiums of English, American, and Classical Literature which have been so well and favorably known. His other works have, with a single exception, had reference to instruction, and most of them to literary criticism and culture. The following is a list of his publications: In 1826, while a junior in college, "The Moral Character of Theophrastus, with a Translation and Critical Notes;" in 1827, while a senior, "An Epitome of Grecian Antiquities;" in 1828, "First Lessons in Latin, upon a New Plan," and, in the same year, "The National Orator;" in 1830, "Xenophon's Anabasis, with English Notes;" in 1831, "A Compendium of Grecian Antiquities," being the Epitome rewritten and greatly enlarged, with maps and illustrations; in 1832, "First Lessons in Greek;" in 1834, "A Sequel to First Lessons in Latin;" in 1836, an edition of "Adams's Latin Grammar, with numerous Additions and Improvements;" in 1844, "An Address of the Liberty Party of Pennsylvania to the People of the State;" in 1845, "First Latin Book," and in the same year "Second Latin Book;" in 1846, "Third Latin Book;" in 1848, "A Compendium of English Literature, from Sir John Mandeville to William Cowper;" in 1850, "Hymns for Schools, with Appropriate Selections from the Scriptures;" in 1851, "English Literature of the Nineteenth Century;" in 1853, an edition of "Milton's Poetical Works, with Life, Dissertations on each Poem, Notes, an Index to Subjects of 'Paradise Lost,' and a Verbal Index to all the Poems;" in 1858, "A Compendium of American Literature on the plan of the Compendium of English Literature;" and, subsequently, "A Compendium of Classical Literature," of which a new edition was published in 1865.

COLOMBIA,* UNITED STATES OF, a republic in South America. President for the term of 1868 to 1870, Santos Gutierrez; minister of the United States in Colombia, P. J. Sullivan, appointed in 1867. Area, variously estimated at from 357,000 to 513,000 English square miles;

* For latest financial and commercial statistics, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

population, 2,794,473, not including the uncivilized Indians, whose number is estimated at 126,000. The republic consists of the nine States of Antioquia, Bolivar, Boyaca, Cauca, Cundinamarca, Magdalena, Panama, Santander, and Tolima.

The relations of the Federal Government and the governments of the several States were, apparently, disturbed during 1869. The Colombian Senate annulled, in March, a law of the State of Panama for the confiscation of the property of political offenders.

A report was brought before Congress on March 31st, recommending the indictment of the President of the republic, Santos Gutierrez, before the Senate of plenipotentiaries of the nation, together with the Ministers Santiago Perez, Miguel Samper, Narciso Gonzales Lineros, and Serjio Camargo, upon charges arising out of the President's action in deposing the President of the State of Cundinamarca. Congress, however, acquitted the President.

The proposition for an amnesty, allowing General Mosquera to return to the country, was rejected in the Senate by fourteen votes against thirteen. It had previously passed the House of Representatives by thirty-two votes against twelve. The Senate refused to reconsider the proposition, though urged to do so by the lower House.

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Mr. Cushing arrived in January. An agreement was finally obtained, and a treaty submitted to the President's approval, which was readily granted. The stipulations of this important document were as follows:

ARTICLE 1. Grants to the United States of America the right to effect the necessary surveys and explorations on the isthmus, after which, if the project is found to be feasible, to draw the proper maps, etc., employing therefor the requisite civil and military superintendents, engineers, accountants, and paymasters, and other agents and laborers, and the war and transport vessels that may be required. The military force not to exceed at any one time five hundred men, officers included, without first obtaining the express consent of the United States of Colombia, and all persons so employed, both civil and military, shall pay due respect and obedience to the civil authorities of Colombia. And, when the explorations and drawings shall be completed, the President of the United States of America shall certify the fact to the other high contracting party, accompanying the maps and specifications; such explorations, maps, and descriptions, to be filed in the archives of both governments. The route and projects thus fixed upon may subsequently be altered by the Government of the United States of America giving due notice to the Republic of Colombia. But the canal shall not be constructed on the route of the Panama Railroad, unless the consent of the company owning the same has been obtained.

ART. 2. Colombia agrees to grant, detach, and apply for the works of the canal all the territory, including sea and tributary waters, that may be pointed out for that purpose and be necessary, and besides, ten miles of public lands, uncultivated and without population, on each side of the canal, through all its length, and all the materials for construction found within such grants, private parties to be paid for such materials as they supply—the Colombian Government will establish the requisite *expropriations* in conformity to her laws. The ten miles of land given on each side of the canal are to be measured and divided into equal lots; their front upon the canal or its annexes not to exceed three thousand three hundred yards; said lots to be equally distributed between the two governments in such a manner that to neither of them shall belong two adjoining lots, nor the two first lots of either of the extremities of the canal; and both governments may dispose at will of their own lots, but with the condition attached that they are to be applied to the uses of transit by the canal and for its annexes. The Government of the United States of America will choose the first lot to commence the distribution, and will return to that of Colombia such lots or portions thereof as they may not have transferred to private parties at the end of the term of this contract, without claiming any sum for improvements or any other cause.

ART. 3. The United States of Colombia binds herself not to open nor permit to be opened any other interoceanic canal, or railroad, through her territory from the Atlantic Ocean to the Pacific, without having first obtained the consent of the Government of the United States of America.

ART. 4. The disbursement, cost, and expenses of the explorations, drawings, construction, and arrangement of said canal and its ports, way stations, depots, and bays, including the indemnities paid for private property, and the proper indemnity to the Panama Railroad Company, should the case arrive, in accordance with the contract made by the Government of Colombia and approved by the Congress on the 15th of August, 1867, will be at the expense of the United States of America, but exclusively with reference to the objects of this convention. The materials furnished by the United States of Colombia for the works of the canal will remain in charge of the United States of America, but exclusively for the objects of this convention.

ART. 5. The United States of America will construct the said canal and its dependencies in such a manner that it will be capable of being adapted for all kinds of vessels to cross the same, and will employ the necessary number of workmen, artisans, and laborers to that end. The said government may also maintain the necessary naval and military force, which at no time is to exceed one thousand men, without first obtaining the consent of the United States of Colombia. Said force to be removed as soon as the canal shall be in operation, should the latter-named government so ask it. The United States of America binds herself to see that the em-

ployés, workmen, artisans, and laborers, as well as the military and naval forces destined to the canal works shall be amenable to the laws and Government of the United States of Colombia.

ART. 6. As soon as the canal, together with its dependencies and appurtenances, shall be constructed, the inspection, possession, direction, and government of it will belong to the United States of America, and will be exercised by that government; that of the United States of Colombia having the power, after the exchange of this convention, of keeping a permanent commission of agents, with the right to inspect the respective operations, to ascertain the tonnage of vessels, to examine the accounts, and to report thereupon to the Government of the United States of Colombia; but not to interfere in the supervision, government, management, direction, and administration of the canal.

ART. 7. The Government of the United States of America will establish the tariff of rates of passage and transportation through the canal upon the basis of perfect equality for all nations in time both of peace and war. The yield of the canal will be applied in preference to the reimbursement of the expenses, management, service, and government of the canal, and of the capital invested in the explorations, drawings, and construction thereof, including in the cost of construction the indemnities that may have to be paid for the property of private individuals, and to the Panama Railroad Company, should the case arrive, conformable to the contract between the Government of Colombia and said Company. Twelve years after the canal shall have been in service, the Government of Colombia will have the right to ten per cent. of the net proceeds of the enterprise, and to twenty-five per cent. from the moment in which the Government of the United States of America shall have reimbursed herself the capital invested in the work of the act of placing the same in operation, even if the reimbursement shall have been effected within the first twelve years. The payment of the share accruing and *due* to Colombia is to be made in the city of New York at the expiration of every six months. For the effects of this article it is established: 1. That the annual expenses of the undertaking shall in no event exceed thirty per cent. of the gross annual proceeds, without the express consent of the two contracting parties; 2. That the net proceeds of the enterprise accruing to the Government of the United States of America shall be preferably applied, from the first year of the canal being in service, to the reimbursement of the capital; and, 3. That, to liquidate the net proceeds of the enterprise, no deduction is to be made for interest upon the capital expended on the works, nor for the sums that may be set aside to make a reserve or sinking fund.

ART. 8. The United States of Colombia will preserve her political sovereignty and jurisdiction over the canal and adjacent territory; she will, however, not only permit, but guarantee to the United States of America, agreeably to the constitution and existing laws of Colombia, the peaceable employment, government, direction, and management of the canal, as hereinbefore specified.

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ART. 11. Should a military or naval force ever be needed for the protection or defence of the canal, and the Government of the United States of America agree to furnish it, said force will operate with that end for the necessary time, under the orders, in accord, of both governments, and will be paid out of the proceeds of the canal.

ART. 12. The rights and privileges herein specified will last for the term of one hundred years, to be reckoned from the time that the canal shall be opened to the public service; and at the expiration of this term the Government of Colombia will enter into the possession, property, and enjoyment of the canal, and accessory lands, wharves, warehouses, and other appurtenances of the enterprise, constructed at the extremities or on the route, without having to pay therefor, or to grant any indemnity whatever. The United States of America will reserve the benefits that she may have derived during the said one hundred years.

ART. 13. The United States of America may transfer by law all her rights, privileges, duties, property, and obligations in reference to the exploration, mapping, construction, and preservation of the said canal to any private citizen, or association of citizens of the United States of America; and in that event such citizen or association will enjoy all the rights, property, and privileges, and be subjected to all the obligations and binding clauses agreed upon in this treaty by the United States of America. The differences that might occur between such citizen, or association, and the United States of Colombia, upon the meaning or the fulfilment of the clauses of this treaty, will be adjusted by a tribunal composed thus: each one of the parties will name one commissioner, and these judges will appoint an umpire to give his decision upon such cases wherein there may be disagreement between them. The court will reside at Bogota, and no appeal against its decisions is left to either of the parties. If, after one of the two parties shall have been required to make appointment of a judge commissioner, said party shall fail to do it, or appoint some person unable or unwilling to accept the appointment, then, and in that case, it is to be made by the Government of the United States of America. The expenses incurred by the tribunal will be taken from the gross proceeds of the canal, if this be already in operation; otherwise, the said expenses will be paid share and share alike by the parties, with the right to reimburse themselves out of the first proceeds of the canal. Should the judge commissioners disagree upon the appointment of the umpire, the two contracting governments will submit the decision of the questions at issue to the arbitration of another friendly government in the form stipulated in Article 17.

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ART. 12. The rights and privileges herein specified will last for the term of one hundred years, to be reckoned from the time that the canal shall be opened to the public service; and at the expiration of this term the Government of Colombia will enter into the possession, property, and enjoyment of the canal, and accessory lands, wharves, warehouses, and other appurtenances of the enterprise, constructed at the extremities or on the route, without having to pay therefor, or to grant any indemnity whatever. The United States of America will reserve the benefits that she may have derived during the said one hundred years.

ART. 13. The United States of America may transfer by law all her rights, privileges, duties, property, and obligations in reference to the exploration, mapping, construction, and preservation of the said canal to any private citizen, or association of citizens of the United States of America; and in that event such citizen or association will enjoy all the rights, property, and privileges, and be subjected to all the obligations and binding clauses agreed upon in this treaty by the United States of America. The differences that might occur between such citizen, or association, and the United States of Colombia, upon the meaning or the fulfilment of the clauses of this treaty, will be adjusted by a tribunal composed thus: each one of the parties will name one commissioner, and these judges will appoint an umpire to give his decision upon such cases wherein there may be disagreement between them. The court will reside at Bogota, and no appeal against its decisions is left to either of the parties. If, after one of the two parties shall have been required to make appointment of a judge commissioner, said party shall fail to do it, or appoint some person unable or unwilling to accept the appointment, then, and in that case, it is to be made by the Government of the United States of America. The expenses incurred by the tribunal will be taken from the gross proceeds of the canal, if this be already in operation; otherwise, the said expenses will be paid share and share alike by the parties, with the right to reimburse themselves out of the first proceeds of the canal. Should the judge commissioners disagree upon the appointment of the umpire, the two contracting governments will submit the decision of the questions at issue to the arbitration of another friendly government in the form stipulated in Article 17.

The political obligations contracted in this agreement by the United States of America and those of Colombia are permanent and irrevocable.

ART. 14. Such citizen or association will hold his or their property, rights, immunities, and privileges in the said canal and its vicinity, likewise subject to the reservations herein contained in favor of the United States of Colombia.

ART. 15. In the event of the Government of the United States of America making the transfer mentioned in Article 23, the privilege will cease, and the Government of Colombia enter upon possession and enjoyment, free of cost, of the canal and the appurtenances thereof in the following cases: *First.* If the citizen or association of citizens in whose favor the transfer has been effected should sell or lease the enterprise to any foreign government. *Second.* If said citizen or association of citizens coöperate in any act of rebellion against the Government of the United States of Colombia, having for its object to withdraw from her dominion the territory upon which the canal may be. *Third.* If, after the canal shall have been constructed and put into operation, the transit through it should be stopped for more than three years, excepting in fortuitous cases, or such as may be beyond the

control of such citizen or association of citizens. It is well understood that the cases enumerated in regard to cessation are also included in those to be decided upon by the court established according to Article 13: said court will decide upon the fact and the law.

ART. 16. This treaty will cease and determine if the United States of America does not execute or cause to be executed the explorations and maps of the canal herein referred to, within three years from and after the ratification and exchange of this convention; or does not commence or cause to be commenced the construction of the canal within five years after the said ratification, or if she fails to have the same finished within fifteen years from said ratification.

ART. 17. Should any differences unfortunately occur between the United States of America and the United States of Colombia, in reference to this convention, said differences shall be submitted to the arbitration of some impartial government, and the decision thereof carried out and respected in all cases.

ART. 18. The United States of Colombia and the United States of America mutually agree to second their efforts in soliciting the friendship and guarantee of the other nations in favor of the stipulations of neutrality mentioned in Articles 7 and 9, as well as of the sovereignty of the United States of Colombia over the territory of the Isthmus of Panama and of Darien.

ART. 19. The present treaty is to be approved and ratified by the President of the United States of Colombia, by and with the advice and consent of the Congress thereof; and by the President of the United States of America, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate thereof; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in the city of Bogota within twenty months, to be reckoned from the day of the signing of this convention.

In testimony whereof, we, the plenipotentiaries of the United States of Colombia, and of the United States of America, have signed and sealed these presents in the city of Bogota, on the 14th day of January, 1869.

[L. S.] MIGUEL SAMPER,
TOMAS CUENCA,
Plenipotentiaries of the United States of Colombia.

[L. S.] PETER J. SULLIVAN,
Minister Resident and Plenipotentiary of the United States of America.

Executive Power of the Union, Bogota, January 16, 1869.—The foregoing treaty is approved. Pass the same to the Congress for the exercise respecting it of the 12th of the attributes conferred upon that body by the 49th Art. of the National Constitution.

[L. S.] SANTOS GUTIERREZ.

The Secretary of the Interior and of Foreign Relations: S. PEREZ.

The preamble of the above treaty declares the opening of the canal between the two oceans across the continental isthmus to be essential to the prosperity of the two contracting countries and to the world at large, both in the interest of commerce and of civilization. A number of the leading journals in Bogota strongly opposed the confirmation of this treaty, their main object being, it was thought, to get as much money from the United States as possible. This opposition of the press, together with French and English influences, induced the Federal Senate to reject the treaty. In the State of Panama public opinion began, however, to appreciate the necessity of having the canal, and on October 16, 1869, the Legislative Assembly passed, unanimously, the following resolution:

Resolved, That Congress be solicited to reconsider the treaty for the excavation of a canal uniting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by way of the Isthmus of Panama and Darien, which was celebrated in Bogota on the 14th of January of the present year, between the Government of Colombia and that of the United States of America.

The representatives from the State of Panama to the national Congress were consequently instructed to use every endeavor to secure the passage of the canal project. So anxious are the people that the matter shall be carried through, and so convinced of the great benefits which would accrue to them and to the commerce of the world by the opening of a canal through their State, that they would be perfectly willing, were the coming Congress to take unfavorable action upon it, to sever themselves from the Colombian Confederation altogether, and claim protection from the Governments of the United States and Great Britain.

The United States Senate took no action on the treaty during the year 1869; but General Grant, who has always taken a profound interest in this question, which has increased with his elevation to the presidency, obtained permission from the Colombian Government to send a force to the isthmus to examine and locate a survey for the most practicable route for a canal. President Grant accordingly directed the Secretary of the Navy to detail a sufficient force to make the necessary surveys and select the best route. For this work the Secretary of the Navy detailed the Nipsic, Commander Selfridge, and the Guard. These vessels were to take out several officers belonging to the Coast Survey to assist in the work. The whole matter was placed under the superintendence of Rear-Admiral Davis, who is familiar with the isthmus and with the several routes heretofore proposed for a ship-canal. For when, in March, 1866, the Senate passed the following resolution—

Resolved, That the Secretary of the Navy furnish, through a report of the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory, the summit-level, and distance by survey of the various proposed lines for interoceanic canals and railroads between the waters of the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; as also their relative merits as practicable lines for the construction of a ship-canal, and especially as relates to Honduras, Tehuantepec, Nicaragua, Panama, and Atrato lines, and also whether, in the opinion of the Superintendent, the Isthmus of Darien has been satisfactorily explored; and if so, furnish in detail charts, plans, lines of levels and all information connected therewith, and upon what authority they are based—

Admiral Davis, in reply to this resolution, on the 12th of July, 1866, submitted a report, through the Secretary of the Navy, which exhausted the whole subject and contained all the information then known relative to a ship-canal across the isthmus. The facts and conclusions set forth in this report will be of great service to the surveying party which at the close of the year 1869 was to leave for the isthmus. In concluding his report, Admiral Davis says:

It is to the Isthmus of Darien that we are first to

look for the solution of the great problem of an interoceanic canal. We know enough of the interior topography to adopt the view of Dr. Cullen, that, if we leave the Indian trail, which always passes over the highest ground, and explore the country beyond the ordinary line of travel, we shall probably find a valley transversely dividing the Cordilleras, or at least a lower ridge than any yet surveyed. Our most trustworthy engineers in these regions, Trautwine, Michler, Prevost, McDougall, and others, tell us that it is impossible, from the very limited inspection of the country taken on the Indian line of travel, to form any conception of the nature of the ground, even in the immediate vicinity.

The surveying party going out on the Nipsic and Guard are instructed to make a thorough exploration of all this region of country, with the view of actually constructing the ship-canal, while the surveying parties who have visited the isthmus heretofore were either sent out by private parties or by the Government for the purpose of obtaining information.

The new United States minister, General Hurlbut, presented his credentials to the President, at the capital, on November 13th. After exchanging the usual diplomatic formalities, the general referred to the all-important canal question, saying:

"I have received instructions to call your Excellency's attention to the fact that the barrier formed by the Isthmus of Suez has now ceased to exist, and that the commerce of the nations of Europe now flows eastward without impediment; while, up to the present time, nothing has been definitely arranged by the nations of America in order to procure the removal of the obstacle presented by the isthmus which lies within the territory of this republic. I shall have the honor to present to your Excellency, on behalf of my Government, the important and matured opinion of the President of the United States upon this question—one of vital transcendency to the true prosperity of both nations, and of so great importance to the commerce of the world." The President, in replying to General Hurlbut's allusion to the canal, said: "You have manifested the necessity which is experienced by all nations that the barrier which the Isthmus of Panama presents to general interoceanic communication should be destroyed as quickly as possible. Colombia is also fully aware of this necessity, and is disposed to do all that lies within the power of the republic to further this great undertaking; and my Government, understanding the great influence which this work is certain to exercise upon the destinies of the world, and of America in particular, will examine with the greatest attention the ideas which the President of the United States has charged you to transmit to us, and no effort shall be spared to secure the fulfilment of so great an aspiration." From the foregoing, it is very evident that the Colombian Government is now most favorably disposed to entertain proposals from the United States for the construction of the canal.

The General as well as the State government of Colombia is in a sad financial condition. The State government of Panama has found it impossible to collect the heavy commercial taxes laid illegally upon the merchants, and President Correoso has been compelled to propose a compromise with them. A tax was sought to be imposed by the same State government upon live-stock (bullocks and hogs) sent off to the steamers of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, against which imposition the United States consul at Panama, Thos. K. Smith, entered an energetic protest, as being nothing more nor less than an export duty, which the State had no right to levy. The foreign merchants petitioned the Legislature for a reduction of the commercial contributions, but the Legislative Assembly adjourned (end of October) without taking any further action on this question, leaving the merchants the disagreeable alternative of paying the commercial tax under protest or giving up business.

According to the message of the President of Colombia, the receipts of the Government for 1868 from the Panama Railroad were $418,198. The calculations of income and expenses of the Government for the present year show a deficit of $385,000. The review of the financial condition of the country is very gloomy and discouraging, nor is there much hope to be gained for its future peace and prosperity from the remarks of the President. He says: "In all the States the necessity of bettering their condition is felt, and it is understood that this must be commenced by making roads. In the midst of backwardness, general poverty, and the state of bankruptcy in which nearly all the sectional governments are at present, attention is turned to that of the Union for help, but it cannot answer them in an honorable way even with promises. The country, on the other hand, has reached such a point of decline, the result of the disturbances more or less absolute during the past years, that it is necessary to commence the great work of its regeneration at the foundation by reëstablishing security."

The Legislative Assembly of Panama decided, previous to adjourning in October, that the renewal of the charter and the sale of the "reserves" by the General Government, two years ago, were strictly legal and constitutional, and a vote was passed declaring null and void the action of the Assembly of 1867 in protesting against the same. Of the nine States forming the republic, there are now only three which exhibit any opposition to the railroad.

A bill, sanctioning the importation of coolies into the State of Panama, has been passed by the Assembly and approved by the President. The laws of this State have not hitherto permitted the introduction of laborers under contracts for a longer period than two years. This bill provides that contracts (which may be transferred) for a term of four years may be entered into, but with Chinese only, as some of the representatives expressed their fears that any other class of immigrants might be a dangerous element in times of revolution. This is regarded an important fact, considered in connection with the proposed canal. Contractors can supply their own laborers, and the history of the construction of the Central Pacific Railroad furnishes ample proof of what Chinese laborers can do.

COLORADO. (*See* TERRITORIES.)

COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES FOR 1869. The general commerce of the country, for the year ending June 30, 1869, shows the enormous sum of $437,000,000 in foreign imports (all gold value); while the total exports were $428,000,000, mainly in paper values ranging from 70 to 80 cents per dollar. This is an excess of about $200,000,000 of imports over the value of the exports. The foreign commerce of the port of New York—which comprises a very large amount of the foreign commerce of the whole country—for the calendar years 1866 to 1869, is represented in the following tables:

The first table shows the dutiable goods entered each month directly for consumption; the second the monthly entries for warehousing; the third the free goods which are thrown directly on the market; the fourth the specie, and the fifth the total monthly entries of all kinds.

Entered for Consumption.

MON'THS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan....	$18,556,726	$11,046,856	$7,855,830	$11,698,755
Feb....	17,389,505	13,364,912	10,386,053	14,205,478
March..	15,200,809	11,373,974	11,999,520	17,890,058
April...	13,366,448	10,800,747	9,652,649	13,836,593
May....	13,563,551	9,438,747	10,244,318	12,514,151
June...	10,682,723	8,947,379	8,786,471	10,510,444
July....	14,304,403	11,036,960	12,193,589	12,560,232
Aug....	14,560,161	13,547,834	14,005,112	15,895,735
Sept....	13,228,489	13,149,846	14,152,546	12,938,666
Oct.....	13,812,206	10,224,405	11,294,439	10,288,541
Nov....	10,688,544	8,193,013	9,707,521	11,015,790
Dec....	8,447,064	6,416,343	7,458,965	9,080,463
Total..	$163,800,629	$127,541,016	$127,737,013	$152,434,901

Foreign Goods entered for Warehousing.

MON'HS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan....	$10,241,576	$9,087,702	$6,647,871	$9,378,719
Feb....	11,626,677	11,211,014	9,297,632	8,548,655
March..	9,539,100	9,069,756	12,391,956	13,428,973
April...	10,159,657	13,327,839	10,780,668	16,497,691
May....	13,902,407	10,896,675	10,541,079	12,876,131
June...	10,957,050	10,478,305	10,063,867	12,380,145
July....	11,301,274	11,226,514	10,573,083	10,705,703
Aug....	8,123,406	9,340,292	8,280,600	10,008,548
Sept....	7,817,045	6,676,707	6,804,640	8,840,059
Oct.	8,113,869	7,096,411	6,850,498	5,841,349
Nov....	8,345,859	6,414,609	7,050,229	6,913,527
Dec....	10,105,018	5,931,115	5,335,282	7,925,576
Total..	$120,232,938	$110,756,939	$104,607,405	$123,345,075

Foreign Goods entered free.

MONTHS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
January...	$1,238,757	$717,810	$778,296	$1,243,777
February.	1,504,253	918,364	718,777	1,190,397
March....	1,179,177	923,377	821,682	1,702,591
April.....	1,152,683	1,232,997	964,488	1,202,080
May.....	959,416	1,140,103	887,657	1,256,112
June.....	1,002,330	1,043,040	783,149	1,277,514
July.....	899,549	766,786	1,094,543	1,214,472
August....	931,877	844,664	828,188	1,322,924
Septemb'r.	840,082	854,987	1,421,652	1,200,764
October...	1,471,951	754,881	1,294,991	879,329
Novemb'r.	873,514	4,082,066	1,323,354	1,151,880
December.	947,999	765,106	847,350	1,147,395
Total...	$13,001,588	$11,044,181	$11,764,027	$14,789,235

Imports of Specie.

MONTHS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
January...	$73,771	$126,719	$136,574	$221,978
February.	172,123	136,491	415,875	1,882,755
March....	285,854	145,867	1,299,776	1,771,668
April.....	161,817	271,710	871,079	4,818,287
May.....	393,073	376,725	477,485	403,267
June.....	94,549	499,184	888,111	914,005
July.....	345,961	56,606	126,442	202,487
August....	269,231	540,244	846,831	159,227
Septemb'r.	5,193,473	345,669	906,588	1,364,904
October...	1,434,158	262,789	554,862	3,580,817
Novemb'r.	802,937	181,319	230,316	156,286
December.	352,093	263,016	291,490	312,781
Total...	$9,578,029	$3,206,339	$7,085,389	$15,788,462

Total Imports.

MO'S.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan'y..	$30,109,830	$20,979,087	$15,418,571	$22,542,529
Feb'y..	30,692,557	25,630,781	20,818,337	25,827,280
March..	26,204,940	21,512,974	26,512,934	34,793,290
April...	24,840,605	25,633,293	22,268,884	36,354,651
May	28,818,447	21,852,250	22,150,589	27,049,661
June ...	22,736,652	20,967,908	20,471,598	25,082,108
July....	26,851,187	23,086,866	23,987,657	24,682,833
August	23,884,665	24,273,034	23,960,721	27,387,134
Sept'r .	27,079,089	21,027,209	23,385,396	24,344,393
Oct'r ..	24,832,184	18,438,486	19,994,790	20,590,036
Nov'r ..	20,710,854	15,871,007	18,301,320	19,237,483
Dec'r ..	19,852,174	13,375,580	14,023,087	18,466,215
Total.	$306,613,184	$252,648,475	$251,193,834	$306,357,673

The total foreign imports at New York in the calendar year 1869 were $306,357,673, being a gain on any previous calendar year excepting 1866, which exceeded it only by a few dollars. The total foreign imports at the port, in each year since 1850, were as follows:

YEAR.	Dutiable.	Free Goods.	Specie.	Total.
1851.....	$119,592,264	$9,719,771	$2,049,543	$131,361,578
1852.....	115,336,059	12,105,342	2,408,225	129,849,619
1853.....	179,512,182	12,156,387	2,429,063	194,097,632
1854.....	163,494,984	15,768,916	2,107,572	181,371,473
1855.....	142,900,661	14,103,946	855,631	157,860,238
1856.....	193,839,646	17,902,578	1,814,425	213,556,649
1857.....	196,279,362	21,440,734	12,898,033	230,618,129
1858.....	128,578,256	22,024,691	2,264,120	152,867,067
1859.....	213,640,363	28,708,732	2,816,421	245,165,516
1860.....	201,401,683	28,006,447	8,852,330	238,260,460
1861.....	95,326,459	30,353,918	37,088,413	162,768,790
1862.....	149,970,415	23,291,625	1,390,277	174,652,317
1863.....	174,521,766	11,567,000	1,525,811	187,614,577
1864.....	204,128,236	11,731,902	2,265,622	218,125,760
1865.....	212,208,301	10,410,837	2,123,231	224,742,419
1866.....	284,033,567	13,001,588	9,578,029	306,613,184
1867.....	238,297,955	11,044,181	3,306,339	252,648,475
1868.....	232,344,418	11,764,027	7,085,389	251,193,834
1869.....	275,779,976	14,789,235	15,788,462	306,357,673

In the above table are included, under the head of dutiable, the duty-paying goods entered directly for consumption, as well as those entered for warehousing; these, with the free goods and specie, make the total entered at the port. The free list was greatly curtailed by Congress seven years ago, especially by the transfer of tea and coffee to the list of dutiable articles. The specie imports include considerable sums brought here to be reshipped to foreign ports, and they will be found again among the reëxports of foreign articles.

The following table shows the value of dry goods imported during the three calendar years distinguished from the general merchandise and specie:

Classification of Imports at New York.

	1867.	1868.	1869.
Dry goods	$86,353,643	$80,905,834	$94,726,417
Gen'l merchandise	163,078,496	163,202,611	195,842,794
Specie	3,306,339	7,085,389	15,788,463
Total imports	$252,648,475	$251,193,884	$306,357,673

During the year 1869, out of over three hundred millions in foreign products landed at New York, less than ninety-five millions came under the head of dry goods, or about thirty-one per cent. of the whole.

The total exports of the United States to foreign countries, in the last fiscal year, were $428,000,000; of which nearly one-half were from New York alone. The following represents the exports from New York to foreign ports, exclusive of specie, for four calendar years, ending December 31, 1869:

Quarter.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
First	$60,972,581	$49,876,879	$42,093,366	$36,566,734
Second	46,766,396	46,270,261	41,331,668	43,705,409
Third	38,361,203	36,998,664	36,549,086	54,933,449
Fourth	46,209,435	52,214,732	44,101,189	55,021,194
Total	$192,289,554	$186,790,025	$164,066,109	$195,226,706

The monthly movement for four years is annexed:

Exports of Domestic Goods and Produce from New York to Foreign Ports for the Years 1866 to 1869.

DOMESTIC PRODUCE.

MONTHS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan	$19,784,997	$12,911,689	$13,766,496	$12,672,824
Feb	16,768,130	14,615,040	13,543,674	10,507,041
March	23,291,485	19,679,955	12,882,808	11,942,672
April	22,536,822	16,979,383	13,976,761	14,671,026
May	12,281,623	12,615,022	14,297,029	15,443,499
June	9,601,089	14,346,769	10,634,544	16,555,107
July	13,057,476	13,666,098	10,538,848	18,450,323
Aug	12,646,004	12,116,096	12,750,918	17,975,524
Sept	11,635,610	11,102,100	11,316,492	16,510,324
Oct	14,563,664	16,679,540	13,954,602	18,419,645
Nov	13,651,464	20,056,540	13,881,126	16,836,617
Dec	16,817,615	13,442,177	14,532,280	17,828,174
Total	$186,655,969	$178,210,409	$156,075,578	$187,812,776

Reëxports of Foreign Free Goods from New York.

MONTHS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
January	$38,201	$114,207	$12,680	$7,965
February	26,605	36,808	36,387	4,941
March	57,197	31,133	24,761	31,102
April	120,354	88,889	113,499	4,600
May	151,898	23,492	188,986	49,261
June	55,074	43,214	32,946	59,001
July	27,269	20,168	37,975	27,080
August	50,720	24,096	18,198	54,256
September	29,573	9,498	80,593	16,960
October	32,061	4,446	10,832	71,868
November	64,601	8,515	9,768	44,159
December	44,965	82,694	39,850	37,433
Total	$706,483	$436,655	$600,924	$408,660

Reëxports of Foreign Dutiable Goods from New York.

MONTHS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
January	$284,909	$422,751	$669,151	$472,228
February	400,782	800,663	441,528	312,880
March	320,165	764,138	655,881	615,121
April	654,019	845,894	649,960	733,461
May	759,857	665,081	852,544	583,846
June	606,255	713,137	641,409	605,608
July	401,734	382,595	444,735	604,923
August	296,786	717,161	558,078	594,389
September	306,940	890,851	808,265	699,660
October	186,108	797,235	740,477	577,748
November	268,600	610,460	517,907	513,226
December	551,657	583,115	415,675	698,260
Total	$4,967,102	$8,142,961	$7,389,600	$7,005,270

Export of Specie and Bullion to Foreign Ports from New York.

MON'HS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan	$2,706,336	$2,551,351	$7,349,825	$3,214,380
Feb	1,807,030	2,134,461	4,203,825	3,232,083
March	1,045,039	1,891,141	3,694,912	2,389,968
April	588,875	2,261,263	6,095,179	1,767,601
May	23,744,194	9,043,154	15,936,231	2,512,330
June	15,890,956	6,724,272	11,823,628	2,335,531
July	5,821,459	13,519,894	10,584,558	6,474,694
Aug	1,587,851	1,714,594	4,690,989	3,027,940
Sept	834,550	2,201,958	1,954,723	1,763,171
Oct	1,463,450	1,182,031	1,608,739	2,531,076
Nov	3,766,690	1,733,261	1,181,085	1,126,845
Dec	3,297,270	6,854,548	1,717,905	1,732,899
Total	$62,553,700	$51,801,948	$70,841,599	$32,108,448

Total Exports.

MON'HS.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.
Jan	$22,814,543	$15,999,998	$21,798,152	$16,367,397
Feb	19,002,537	17,576,967	18,225,414	14,056,895
March	24,713,856	22,396,367	17,258,362	14,978,863
April	23,899,970	20,134,879	20,834,389	17,176,688
May	36,937,067	22,346,699	31,269,790	18,588,936
June	26,153,374	21,827,392	23,132,527	19,555,247
July	19,307,928	27,588,755	21,606,116	25,556,890
Aug	14,511,361	14,571,947	18,018,177	21,652,159
Sept	12,805,773	14,204,407	14,155,063	18,990,135
Oct	16,275,263	18,663,252	16,314,640	21,600,331
Nov	17,750,755	22,408,776	15,589,881	18,519,847
Dec	20,710,807	20,912,534	16,705,190	20,291,766
Total	$254,883,254	$238,591,973	$234,907,701	$227,335,154

Including the shipments of specie, the total for last year has fallen behind that of either the previous three years, but the exports of domestic merchandise show a slight gain.

The shipments of gold are counted at their tale value; but all others, with unimportant exceptions, are given at their market value in paper money at the time of shipment.

These figures refer only to the foreign commerce of the port of New York and not to the foreign trade of the whole United States. About two-thirds of the entire imports of the whole country are landed here, and nearly fifty per cent. of the entire exports shipped hence.

The cash duties are not collected on the goods as landed, the bonded goods paying only as they are entered for consumption. The following is a comparison of the monthly receipts at New York:

Receipts of Customs at New York.

MONTHS.	1867.	1868.	1869.
January...	$9,472,948 48	$7,133,428 43	$9,615,894 43
February..	11,466,418 42	9,696,752 39	11,996,698 46
March	11,977,418 19	11,195,861 33	13,027,672 09
April	9,272,701 48	10,023,089 37	10,727,099 66
May.....	9,340,766 73	9,723,476 45	9,688,890 34
June	7,725,135 60	7,678,100 69	8,411,294 83
July	9,505,423 94	9,237,920 50	10,045,078 14
August ...	12,628,300 45	11,995,695 18	13,845,080 69
September	11,712,164 78	12,916,786 29	11,975,804 75
October...	8,682,889 05	10,059,277 34	10,554,660 92
November	6,981,212 90	7,309,086 88	8,540,788 60
December.	5,276,301 32	6,327,100 78	6,590,945 65
Total...	$114,085,990 34	$113,296,713 62	$125,019,718 69

The foregoing figures represent coin. The imports are entered at their foreign cost in gold, freight and duty not included; so that the actual cost in currency here, of the last year's imports, without profit, would be about $600,000,000.

The results are not favorable to ourselves. When we compare the specie value of the exports with the aggregate values of the foreign imports, the balance of trade is decidedly against us, and has to be met by an export of Government bonds and other securities, which eventually must be paid in gold.

The following table shows the aggregate annual foreign imports and exports of the United States, ending June 30, 1857–'69:

FOREIGN IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF THE UNITED STATES, ETC.

	Total Imports.	Total Domestic Exports.	Foreign Exports.	Total Exports.	Immigrants. Aliens.	Premium on Gold. Average yearly.
1857.....	$360,890,141	$338,985,065	$23,975,617	$362,960,682	251,306	.....
1858.....	282,613,150	293,758,279	30,886,142	324,644,421	123,126	.....
1859.....	338,768,130	335,894,384	20,895,077	356,789,461	121,282	.....
1860.....	362,166,254	373,189,274	26,933,022	400,122,296	153,640	.....
1861.....	335,650,153	228,699,486	20,645,427	249,344,913	91,920	.....
1862.....	205,771,729	218,089,519	16,869,466	229,938,985	91,987	13.22
1863.....	252,919,920	305,884,998	26,123,584	332,008,582	176,282	46.06
1864.....	329,562,895	320,035,199	20,256,940	340,292,139	193,418	104.05
1865.....	234,434,167	306,306,758	30,390,365	336,697,123	248,120	57.72
1866.....	445,512,158	550,684,277	14,742,117	565,426,394	318,554	41.55
1867.....	417,831,571	438,577,312	20,611,508	459,188,820	298,358	38.62
1868.....	371,624,808	454,301,713	22,601,126	476,902,839	297,215	39.84
1869.....	437,026,541	413,569,182	14,692,965	428,562,147	352,569	33.79
	$4,374,771,617	$4,573,255,446	$299,623,356	$4,862,878,802	2,717,777	
Average..	$336,520,893	$351,788,880	$22,278,719	$374,067,600	209,059	

COMMERCIAL CONVENTIONS. During the past year five National Commercial Conventions have been held, of which four occurred in the Mississippi Valley, and were composed largely of delegates from the Southern and Western States. Many important commercial questions were discussed, with a view of effecting great changes in certain branches of trade. In all the conventions the subjects of a Southern Pacific Railway, immigration to the South and West, and the improvement of navigation in the Mississippi Valley, held a marked prominence; the last having in view an entire change of the freight transportation system between the West and the East by opening an advantageous outlet, *via* the Mississippi River, for the vast produce of the West, destined to Eastern markets.

The first of the conventions was held in the latter part of May, at Memphis, Tenn., and was very largely attended; the delegates, mostly from the South and Southwest, numbered upward of eleven hundred, and represented twenty-two States. The subject of a Southern Pacific Railway received an extended and thorough discussion. The committee, to whom it was referred, reported the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, the interests of the whole country, and especially the Southern States, could be served by a main trunk railway line from San Diego, Cal., through Junction River, Colorado, and the Gila, and along the valley of the Gila south of that river to El Paso, on the Rio Grande, and thence to a convenient central point near the thirty-second parallel of latitude east of Brazos River, in the State of Texas; from which main trunk feeder-roads should lead from St. Louis, Cairo, Memphis, Vicksburg, New Orleans, and other points, all of which feeder-roads having equal right of connection with their main trunk; while similar feeder-roads from San Francisco and other points on the Pacific coast should have similar equal rights of connection.

Resolved, That the president of the convention be requested to forward a copy of this resolution to the President and Vice-President of the United States, and Speaker of the House of Representatives, and request them to present the same to the respective Houses of Congress.

The committee also stated the following reasons for selecting this route:

1. It is the shortest line connecting the Gulf of Mexico and Valley of the Mississippi with the Pacific; and,
2. It is the line, of all those now unoccupied, of most easy grades and cheapest constructed on permit.
3. It passes through less inhospitable and barren country, and over more fertile and hospitable lands, than any other unoccupied route proposed.
4. The line is touched by water transportation at three points, affording the greatest facilities for construction, and consequently hastening and cheapening such construction.
5. The line will open to the world the great mineral resources of Arizona and Sonora, and render more

valuable the stock-raising districts of Texas, New Mexico, and Northern Mexico, and thus enjoy unrivalled traffic.

6. It will inevitably attract numerous feeders from the neighboring Republic of Mexico, and thus not only stimulate enterprise there, but secure to our shipping-ports a greater portion of the bullion which now seeks Europe by hazardous conductas and smuggling vessels.

7. It will open the new cotton-growing area in Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona, the lands for cotton-growing being now useless on account of the lack of facilities for transportation.

8. It is well known that some roads, which would be among the feeder-roads referred to in the resolution, have not only been projected, but are already in active course of construction, without waiting for Government subsidy or encouragement.

9. The last, though not least—the construction of this route, more than all else besides, encourages what we feel to be the great necessity of the hour—immigration and direct trade with Europe.

A report of the Committee on Rivers and Navigation was adopted. After rehearsing the vast importance of a safe, speedy, and cheap system of transportation on Western waters as necessary to the settlement and cultivation of the extensive fertile regions of the South and Southwest, it indorses the efforts of the Mississippi Valley Navigation Company for the improvement of the system of Western navigation.

The sense of the convention on the question of Chinese labor was expressed in the following resolution, which was adopted, with a preamble, stating the cheapness of this class of labor, and the lack of means on the part of individual planters to import foreign laborers:

Resolved, That all the railroads in the South be requested to employ upon these roads as many as possible of the Chinamen recently discharged on the Pacific Railroad, and that all companies engaged in building new railroads be especially requested to employ as many of these laborers as they possibly can.

Resolutions were passed approving of the scheme of direct trade between Norfolk and Liverpool, as well as between other prominent Southern ports and Europe; advocating cheap freights on railroads for fertilizers, building-materials, farm-implements, etc., and low rates of fare for the immigrant, as a means of promoting the agricultural interests of the South and West; in favor of requesting Congress to cause the collection and publication of full reports concerning cotton; showing the cost and material advantages, and the most efficient process of manufacture at home and abroad; the best routes to foreign markets, and the cost of transportation; and in favor of improving the levees of the Mississippi River, so as to secure the vast alluvial low lands of the valley from overflow. A committee was appointed to memorialize Congress upon this subject, and the following resolution was adopted:

That we earnestly invoke the early attention of Congress to such legislation as may be necessary to extend the aid of the Government of the United States to the States of Missouri, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Arkansas, by the indorsement of the United States of the bonds of these States in such sums as may be necessary to rebuild, in a thorough and permanent manner, the levees of the Mississippi River when these States, by satisfactory legislation, shall have provided for the interest on the bonds, and for their redemption at maturity.

The subject of immigration held a prominent place in the deliberations of the convention. The committee made a long report, setting forth the superior advantages of the South for the investment of capital and labor; recommending to European immigrants, destined to the Northwestern States, the route *via* the Mississippi River in preference to New York; and promising to extend to all immigrants coming to the South friendly sympathy and full protection in the rights of person and property. After the appointment of a committee to report a plan for the permanent organization of the Southern Commercial Convention, this body adjourned, to meet at Louisville, Ky., on the 12th of the following October.

The second convention of the year was held at New Orleans, on the 25th of May and the three following days. It was made up chiefly of delegates from the cities of the Mississippi Valley and the lake region. One of the most important subjects under consideration was that relating to the removal of obstructions at the mouth of the Mississippi and elsewhere on its tributaries, which led to a thorough review of the different systems of transporting freight to Eastern cities. It was stated that, of the gross value of exports of the United States for the year ending June, 1868, amounting to $476,348,029, ninety-five per cent. was the domestic produce chiefly of the Mississippi Valley; that from one-third to one-half of all the wheat, corn, oats, and pork, annually produced in the United States came from five Northwestern States; and that the produce of this section finds its way to Eastern markets by cross-routes, chiefly because of the obstructed navigation of the Mississippi and its tributaries. It was stated that the cost of transporting a bushel of wheat from St. Paul to New York *via* Chicago was seventy cents; and that with the necessary improvements in navigation in the Mississippi Valley wheat could be carried from St. Paul to New York, by river and sea, at a cost not exceeding twenty-five cents per bushel. After an animated discussion of this subject, resolutions were adopted in favor of memoralizing the Government to adopt measures for the removal of obstructions at the mouth of the Mississippi, and in the upper Mississippi, and the completion of improvements at the falls of the Ohio; and recommending that the municipal authorities of the river cities should reduce their rates of pilotage, towage, and wharfage, and extend every facility for the advantageous transportation of grain in bulk and of other freight; and that the national Government should create ports of entry and delivery at all the principal cities of the Mississippi and its tributaries.

There was much discussion as to the most de-

sirable route for the Southern Pacific Railway. A report in favor of a longitudinal route from the centre of the Mississippi Valley to Mazatlan or San Blas, in Mexico, was presented but did not receive the approval of the convention. The route finally indorsed was substantially the same as that recommended by the Memphis Convention. A report was adopted requesting the people of the Southern and Western States to afford all possible facilities to immigrants, and urging the several Legislatures of those States to appoint commissioners of immigration, whose duty it should be to invite immigration from all sections by means of agents, and by reliable publications, setting forth the resources of this section, and the advantages offered to immigrants. That portion of the report recommending the importation of Chinese laborers met with opposition, and was stricken out. The convention was in favor of memoralizing Congress to adopt measures for the protection of the low lands of the Mississippi Valley from inundation, for the adoption of a uniform three-cent postage-stamp, and for a ship-canal across Florida.

This convention adjourned, to meet at Keokuk, Iowa, on the 7th of September.

At the adjourned convention, William Vandervere was chosen president. Estimates were presented, showing the cost of completing the improvements already begun at Des Moines Rapids, Rock Island Rapids, the falls of the Ohio, and the mouth of the Mississippi, to be $9,487,213. The Committee on the Mississippi River and its Tributaries reported the following preamble and resolutions, which were adopted:

Whereas, cheap transportation is the great want of the West and the entire nation—thereby meeting the first great principles of the wealth of nations, cheap food for the masses, better remuneration for the producer, and an increase of the exports of the nation; and

Whereas, the relative cost of transportation per mile by water and by rail is as one to eight; and

Whereas, the Mississippi River and its tributaries afford 20,000 miles of connected navigation, and are the cheapest natural highways for the commerce of the valley in which are produced annually two-thirds of the breadstuffs and provisions and four-fifths of all the exports of the entire country; and

Whereas, the rate of transportation on said river and its tributaries is much increased on account of the interruption, danger, and delay, caused by certain obstructions: therefore,

Resolved, That the people in the Mississippi Valley now in convention assembled do hereby respectfully and earnestly petition the Honorable Senators and Representatives of the Forty-first Congress to appropriate, at their next session, so much as shall be necessary to complete the improvements of the Mississippi River at the Des Moines and Rock Island Rapids, and the completion of the Louisville and Portland Canal at the falls of the Ohio.

Resolved, That, in view of the injustice of discrimination on any railroads against local traffic to and from river stations, we recommend to Congress and to State Legislatures the passage of a general enactment, requiring that all railroads shall grant to local traffic rates of freight proportioned to the lowest through-rate of freight granted on the same roads.

In regard to immigration the convention voted that an increased supply of skilled and intelligent labor was necessary for the development of the resources of the Mississippi Valley, and that every effort should be made to encourage free immigration from every quarter.

A resolution was adopted in favor of petitioning Congress to make an appropriation for holding a World's Fair in the Valley of the Mississippi in the year 1871. No place was designated; but on behalf of St. Louis a proposition was made, that, if Congress would appropriate the amount of the premiums, that city would furnish the grounds and the buildings.

This committee also reported the draft of a bill, to be submitted to the Forty-first Congress, which proposes that any bridge hereafter to be built across the Ohio River, shall be made with continuous or unbroken spans, and that the span across the main low-water channel shall be not less than forty feet above extreme high-water mark, and shall be of such length as to leave not less than four hundred feet of unobstructed passage-way at all stages for navigation. There were other provisions respecting the construction of bridges so as to obviate all difficulties in the passage of steamers, and requiring the submission of all plans, for bridges to be built across the Ohio, to the Secretary of War; the main span of bridges to be built over the Mississippi to be not less than five hundred feet in the clear. This bill was approved in the convention by a vote of 78 to 9.

The committee on Foreign Commerce, having under consideration the two great modes of transportation between the West and the East, reported the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That the Federal Senators representing the constituency of this convention are respectfully requested:

1. To examine the treaty relations between the United States and foreign powers with a view to obtaining such modifications or amendments thereof as will remove all obstacles to a free or reciprocal trade between the Mississippi River and such foreign nations.

2. To exercise their influence with the appointing power to secure for the Valley of the Mississippi a fair share of the diplomatic and consular appointments to foreign countries.

Resolved, That the river and port cities of the Mississippi Valley be requested to extend all the municipal facilities and commercial economies indicated in this report as a means of counteracting the rivalry of the cross-routes, and of regaining and increasing the domestic and foreign commerce of the Mississippi Valley.

Resolved, That the several States of the Mississippi Valley are requested to aid in establishing and sustaining an immigrant agency and depot at the city of New Orleans, on such terms as will secure to those States a fair share of the foreign immigration.

Resolved, That the representatives of the Valley of the Mississippi in Congress be requested to introduce bills for the increase and equalization of postal steam service, by additional subsidies to lines of steamers between the port of New Orleans and the principal ports of Europe, America, and Asia.

The subject of the removal of the national capital came before the convention, and it was

resolved that the interests of the people of the whole country require the removal of the capital from its present location to some point in the Mississippi Valley. After a session of three days, the convention adjourned.

The fourth great Commercial Convention of the year assembled at Louisville, Ky., on the 13th of October, and chose ex-President Fillmore as its presiding officer. The delegates numbered upward of five hundred and twenty, comprising prominent merchants and business men from twenty-nine States, of whom two hundred and seventy-seven were from the Southern States, one hundred and seven from the Western, and thirty-two from the Eastern and Middle States. The subject of the Southern Pacific Railway was prominent in the discussions. Full statistics were given and the entire subject reviewed at great length. The minority report favored the route from St. Louis on the thirty-fifth parallel, *via* Albuquerque to San Francisco; the majority report, which was adopted, recommended substantially the route approved by the Memphis Convention, with feeder-roads from Leavenworth, St. Louis, Kansas City, Cairo, Vicksburg, Memphis, New Orleans, and Galveston, on the East; and Guaymas, Mazatlan, and San Francisco, on the West.

On the subject of railroads in general, the convention recommended coöperation in railroad management, the connection of tracks, and uniform gauges, in order to perfect the system of great through-lines; and urged the building of railroads to the Gulf ports as the proper outlet for produce destined for the markets of the West Indies, Mexico, or South America.

A report from the Committee on Direct Trade with Europe recommended the organization of steamship lines between Southern ports and Europe; such lines to be subsidized by Congress; a modification of the navigation laws, so as to enable Americans to purchase foreign ships; the abolition of the tariff on ship-building materials; and that Congress open ports of entry at all cities in the West and South which have a population of one hundred thousand or more.

A spirited discussion arose on the general subject of immigration; especially was there a marked difference of opinion as to the introduction of Chinese labor, a matter which the convention finally decided to leave to the States and to private interests. The convention approved of the introduction of a million Europeans, and appointed M. F. Maury as a general agent to disseminate information in relation to the advantages of the South for immigration.

On the subject of banking and finance, a repeal was recommended of the law providing for a direct land-tax as being unnecessarily burdensome to the South; and that, in the system of revenue taxation, the vices of the people rather than the honest industry of the country should be taxed. The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That Congress be requested to enact at once:

1. A free banking law, with efficient and certain measures for prompt redemption of currency, with a proviso that currency is to be issued only as fast as legal-tender notes are redeemed and destroyed, until specie payments are resumed.

2. Direct the Secretary of the Treasury to cancel and destroy all legal-tender notes that come in his possession as fast as the net income of the Government will allow. In case national-bank currency is applied for faster than it can be furnished under the conditions here stated, preference to be given, first to the South and second to the West, until the whole currency in circulation be equalized upon the basis of population.

3. Direct the Secretary of the Treasury to regulate all his actions by the wants and necessities of the Government, and leave the people to manage their money markets and their business in their own way.

After a thorough discussion of the several topics, the convention adopted resolutions in favor of the improvement of the Mississippi levees; the removal of obstruction to navigation on the Mississippi and its tributaries; the adoption by Congress of regulations concerning the construction of bridges over Western and Southern rivers, as proposed at the Keokuk Convention; and of memorializing Congress to aid a proposed line of steamers from New Orleans to Rio Janeiro, and to protect and improve the bars and harbors of the Atlantic coast and Gulf of Mexico. Resolutions were also adopted, appointing a delegation, of which ex-President Fillmore was made chairman, to attend the Universal Exposition, to be held at St. Petersburg in 1870; and also a committee to memorialize Congress to designate the point for holding the World's Fair in 1871. The convention adjourned, to meet at Cincinnati, on the first Tuesday of October, 1870.

The National Board of Trade held its second annual meeting at Richmond, Va., commencing on the 1st of December. The delegates present represented the principal cities of the United States. This Board now represents thirty-seven constituent bodies, of which more than 16,000 merchants of the United States are members. Frederick Fraley, of Philadelphia, was elected president of the Board for the ensuing year. The report of the Executive Council recommended a full collection of statistics and reports concerning trade, and their publication in a tabulated form, by the secretary of the Board; and that some plan be adopted for the daily interchange of market reports; also that the number of pounds requisite to constitute a bushel should be uniform in all the States.

Resolutions were passed recommending local boards to adopt a rule that tare shall be the actual weight of the package at the time of sale in all transactions, and to insist on full weights and measures in articles purporting to be of a certain fixed standard, but which are

sold by parcel or package; recommending uniformity in the instruments used in conveyances of land, and the appointment of a committee to prepare and recommend to the several State Legislatures a bill securing such change; also the passage of a law securing uniformity in the practice of District Courts of the United States in relation to the collection of debts. An animated discussion arose on the resolution to memorialize the different State Legislatures to repeal all laws discriminating against non-resident traders. On one side it was held that it was an effort on the part of the large Eastern cities to extend their trade into the smaller cities of the West and South, without paying any tax thereon, and that the removal of all restrictions would be a discrimination against the home-trader; on the other hand it was contended that the spirit of the age demanded a domestic free trade, and an enlightened commercial sentiment—to which such restrictions were hostile. The resolution was adopted, by a vote of 41 to 12.

The diversity of views in the convention on the question of national finances caused a general discussion of this subject. The majority report of the Committee on the Resumption of Specie Payments recommended to Congress the issue of four per cent. bonds, payable in thirty years, principal and interest in gold, which may be exchanged for greenbacks at par, the greenbacks to be thus withdrawn, until the amount outstanding does not exceed $300,000,000, and all thus withdrawn to be cancelled; also that national banks be required by law to retain the coin received for interest on bonds deposited to secure their circulation, until specie payments be resumed. After an extended debate this portion of the majority report was rejected, and the Board adopted only the first resolution, which declares a belief in the imperative necessity of the resumption of specie payments. Resolutions were adopted, asking Congress to establish a new department of the Government, known as the Department of Commerce, to which shall be referred all questions connected with the foreign and domestic trade and transportation of the country; requesting Congress to adopt measures for the construction of a ship-canal around the falls of Niagara, connecting Lake Erie and Lake Ontario; to make appropriation for the removal of obstacles to navigation on the Mississippi River and its tributaries; to prescribe such regulations for the construction of bridges over these rivers as will best promote the interests of their nagivation, and to recommend a uniform coinage among the commercial nations of the world.

The subject of the transportation of freight between the West and the East was prominent in the discussions of the Board. A proposition was made, that Congress be requested to charter a double-track railroad between the centre of the Western grain-producing country and the Atlantic seaboard, to be used exclusively for carrying freight, and to fix the rates of freight thereon. The superior advantages of water-lines were also strongly advocated, and it was argued that the canals necessary for a water-line between the West and the East should be enlarged and steam introduced, which would lead to a great reduction in the rates of freight.

The next meeting of the National Board of Trade will be held at Buffalo, N. Y., on the 1st of December, 1870.

At all of these conventions the attendance was large, good feeling and harmony pervaded the discussions, and measures having an important bearing upon the commercial interests of the country were adopted with unanimity.

CONGREGATIONALISTS. The principal object of the American Congregational Union, though not so contemplated directly in the first place, "is now," it is stated in the report for 1868, "and is likely to be for many years to come," to aid new and feeble Congregational Churches in their efforts to build themselves houses of worship. It has begun to give especial attention to points on the railroads across the continent, and to those on other important routes through newly-opened regions. It will also extend its field so as to aid in building parsonages. The sixteenth anniversary was held in Brooklyn, N. Y., on the 18th of May. The receipts for the year had been $58,629.71. There had been paid, in appropriations to 67 churches, $28,690.35. Appropriations were pledged to 81 churches, amounting to $18,200. Of the rest, $9,721.46 had been spent for salaries, and there was an unexpended balance of $2,017. Sixty-five churches had been completed during the year, with the aid of the Association. The average amount of funds furnished to each church was $412. The Union hopes to consolidate all the contributions of the congregations in aid of feeble churches, and to arrive at the means of making a fair and equitable division among all applicants, so that none shall be preferred at the expense of another, and the congregations may not be annoyed by special appeals or the solicitations of travelling agents.

The purpose of the "American Congregational Association" is to establish in Boston, "near the old and first home of the Puritans," a "home" for the 3,000 ministers and 300,000 members of the Congregational churches, where may be gathered all the books, pamphlets, engravings, prints, manuscripts, and other mementos of the Puritan fathers, to form the nucleus of a great Congregational Library, where may be provided "a place for consultation, for mutual intercourse, for greetings," and to provide in the building "a symbol, a centre of Congregationalism," a location for its societies, and centres of correspondence. At the last annual meeting (the sixteenth), which was held in Boston, on the 25th of May, the association resolved "that no time ought to be

lost in securing the proposed Congregational house in Boston, either by separate and independent erection at the expense of the Association, or by coöperation with kindred societies." The receipts of the Association for the year closing with the anniversary were $33,780.11. The additions to the library during the year numbered 2,680. The total number of bound volumes is 10,739, relating chiefly to Congregational, early New England, and ecclesiastical history.

The Congregational Publication Society was formed in 1868, and is designed to become the organ of publication for the Congregationalists of the United States. It will undertake the publication of works of early and late New England divines, and the reprint of such foreign books as seem adapted to its objects.

The American Home Missionary Society, its auxiliaries and agencies, employed, during the year ending with the meeting in May, 972 ministers of the Gospel. They were distributed in 28 different States and Territories: New England had 327; the Middle States, 73; the Southern States, 8; the Western States, including 30 ministers laboring on the Pacific coast, 564. The number of congregations and missionary districts fully or partially supplied was 1,956. Four missionaries were commissioned as pastors over colored people; one preached to Indians; and 35 preached in foreign languages. The number of Sunday-school and Bible-class scholars under the care of the missionaries was about 75,300; the number of conversions reported by 411 missionaries was 2,959; the additions to the churches, as nearly as could be ascertained, was 6,470; the contributions to benevolent objects, reported by 567 ministers, amounted to $38,040.93. Seventy-four churches were organized during the year, sixty became self-supporting, fifty-eight church buildings were completed, and thirty-two others were commenced, and 88 young men in connection with missionary churches were preparing for the ministry. The receipts, including the balance in the treasury, were $282,858.23, or $23,199.11 greater than those of any former year of the society. The expenditures likewise exceeded those of any year by $20,263.90, and the number of ministers and amount of service performed were greater than ever before. The total receipts, during the forty-three years the society has been in operation, were $5,455,213.64; the total number of additions to the churches during the same period was 205,165.

At the anniversary of the Congregational Union of England and Wales, which was held on the 11th of May, the society was reported in a condition of great prosperity. There was a balance in the treasury of £3,758 4s. 2d. The sales of publications had been large. Grants had been made to the Congregational churches in connection with the French Canadian Mission, and to the Union of Evangelical Churches in France, and to various home and colonial enterprises in which the Union had a more particular interest; and there had been a small balance to the American freedmen.

The *Congregational Quarterly*, for January, 1870, reports the statistics of Congregationalism in the United States and British colonies for the year 1869, as follows:

STATES, Etc.	Ministers.	Members.	In Sunday-schools.
Alabama	1	37	230
Arkansas	2	71	.....
California	48	2,121	5,178
Colorado	5	105	174
Connecticut	290	49,263	48,786
Dakota	1	29	110
District of Columbia	1	188	170
Georgia	4	167	480
Illinois	244	18,505	25,029
Indiana	26	1,144	1,253
Iowa	189	9,674	10,472
Kansas	49	1,606	2,144
Kentucky	2	253	245
Louisiana	10	571	570
Maine	237	19,812	22,488
Maryland	1	78	246
Massachusetts	500	80,057	98,844
Michigan	175	10,884	16,211
Minnesota	68	3,028	4,066
Mississippi	1	89	100
Missouri	56	1,927	3,629
Nebraska	15	388	858
New Hampshire	185	18,109	22,745
New Jersey	15	1,725	2,508
New York	252	25,448	28,464
Ohio	189	16,616	18,536
Oregon	8	432	738
Pennsylvania	69	3,952	5,116
Rhode Island	25	4,025	5,892
South Carolina	1	170	75
Tennessee	4	215	1,145
Texas	2	182	120
Vermont	176	18,598	19,327
Virginia	4	88	70
Washington Territory	1	24	75
Wisconsin	166	10,870	13,848
Wyoming	1	16	100
Missionaries	...	.....	.....
Total United States	3,043	300,362	361,502
Ontario and Quebec	98	4,476	6,300
New Brunswick	5	388	378
Nova Scotia	8	545	742
Jamaica	5	443	428
Total North America	3,159	306,209	369,350

The English *Congregational Year-book* for 1870 reports the following of Congregationalism in Great Britain and the British dependencies:

COUNTRIES.	County Associations and Unions.	Churches.	Ministers and Missionaries.
England	45	2,050	1,875
Wales	16	846	390
Scotland	8	103	103
Ireland	1	27	7
Colonies	8	261	220
Islands of the British Seas	..	16	....
Foreign lands (including native missions)	..	....	214

CONGRESS, UNITED STATES. The third session of the Fortieth Congress * commenced on December 7, 1868. (For the President's Message, *see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS, ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, 1868.)

Benjamin Wade, of Ohio, was President *pro tem.* of the Senate, and Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, Speaker of the House.

In the Senate, on December 7th, Mr. Cragin, of New Hampshire, offered the following as an amendment to the Constitution:

ARTICLE —. No State shall deny the right of suffrage or abridge the same to any male citizen of the United States twenty-one years of age and upward, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, and excepting also Indians not taxed; but any State may exact of such citizen a specific term of residence

* The following is a list of the members of Congress:

SENATE.

Alabama—Willard Warner, George E. Spencer.
Arkansas—Alexander McDonald, Benjamin F. Rice.
California—Cornelius Cole, John Conness.
Connecticut—James Dixon, Orrin S. Ferry.
Delaware—James A. Bayard, Willard Saulsbury.
Florida—Adonijah S. Welch, Thomas W. Osborn.
Georgia—Not admitted.
Illinois—Lyman Trumbull, Richard Yates.
Indiana—Oliver P. Morton, Thomas A. Hendricks.
Iowa—James W. Grimes, James Harlan.
Kansas—Samuel C. Pomeroy, Edmund C. Ross.
Kentucky—Garret Davis, Thomas C. McCreery.
Louisiana—John S. Harris, William P. Kellogg.
Maine—Lot M. Morrill, William Pitt Fessenden.
Maryland—William Pinkney Whyte, George Vickers.
Massachusetts—Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler, Jacob M. Howard.
Minnesota—Alexander Ramsey, Daniel S. Norton.
Missouri—Charles D. Drake, John B. Henderson.
Nebraska—John M. Thayer, Thomas W. Tipton.
Nevada—William M. Stewart, James W. Nye.
New Hampshire—James W. Patterson, Aaron H. Cragin.
New Jersey—Alexander G. Cattell, Frederick T. Frelinghuysen.
New York—Roscoe Conkling, Edwin D. Morgan.
North Carolina—Joseph C. Abbott, John Poor.
Ohio—John Sherman, Benjamin F. Wade.
Oregon—Henry W. Corbett, George H. Williams.
Pennsylvania—Simeon Cameron, Charles R. Buckalew.
Rhode Island—William Sprague, Henry B. Anthony.
South Carolina—Thomas J. Robertson, Frederick A. Sawyer.
Tennessee—David D. Patterson, J. S. Fowler.
Vermont—Justin S. Morrill, George F. Edmunds.
West Virginia—Peter G. Van Winkle, Waitman T. Willey.
Wisconsin—Timothy O. Howe, James R. Doolittle.

Not admitted at this session.

Mississippi—William L. Sharkey, J. L. Alcorn.
Virginia—John C. Underwood, Joseph Segar.
Texas—David G. Burnett, O. M. Roberts.

HOUSE.

Alabama—Francis W. Kellogg, Charles W. Buckley, Benjamin W. Norris, Charles W. Pierce, John B. Callis, Thomas Haughey.
Arkansas—Logan W. Roots, J. F. Elliott, Thomas Boles.
California—Samuel B. Axtell, William Higby, James A. Johnson.
Connecticut—Richard D. Hubbard, Julius Hotchkiss, Henry H. Starkweather, William H. Barnum.
Delaware—John A. Nicholson.
Florida—Charles M. Hamilton.
Georgia—J. W. Clift, Nelson Tift, William P. Edwards, Samuel F. Gove, Charles H. Prince, John H. Christy, P. M. B. Young.
Illinois—Norman B. Judd, John F. Farnsworth, Elihu B. Washburne, Abner C. Harding, Ebon C. Ingersoll, Burton C. Cook, Henry P. H. Bromwell, Shelby M. Cullom, Lewis W. Ross, Albert G. Burr, Samuel S. Marshall, Jehu Baker, Green B. Raum; at large, John A. Logan.
Indiana—William D. Niblack, Michael C. Kerr, Morton C. Hunter, William S. Holman, George W. Julian, John Coburn, Henry D. Washburn, Godlove S. Orth, Schuyler Colfax, William Williams, John P. C. Shanks.
Iowa—James F. Wilson, Hiram Price, William B. Allison, William Loughridge, Granville M. Dodge, Asahel W. Hubbard.
Kansas—Sidney Clarke.
Kentucky—Lawrence S. Trimble (vacancy), Jacob S. Golladay, J. Proctor Knott, Asa P. Grover, Thomas L. Jones, James B. Beck, George M. Adams, Samuel McKee.
Louisiana—J. Hale Sypher (vacancy), Joseph P. Newsham, Michael Vidal, W. Jasper Blackburn.
Maine—John Lynch, Sidney Perham, James G. Blaine, John A. Peters, Frederick A. Pike.
Maryland—Hiram McCullough, Stevenson Archer, Charles E. Phelps, Francis Thomas, Frederick Stone.
Massachusetts—Thomas D. Eliot, Oakes Ames, Ginery Twichell, Samuel Hooper, Benjamin F. Butler, Nathaniel P. Banks, George S. Boutwell, John D. Baldwin, William B. Washburn, Henry L. Dawes.
Michigan—Fernando C. Beaman, Charles Upson, Austin Blair, Thomas W. Ferry, Rowland E. Trowbridge, John F. Driggs.
Minnesota—William Windom, Ignatius Donnelly.
Missouri—William A. Pile, Carman A. Newcomb, James R. McCormick, Joseph J. Gravelly, John H. Stover, Robert T. Van Horn, Benjamin F. Loan, John F. Benjamin, George W. Anderson.
Nebraska—John Taffe.
Nevada—Delos R. Ashley.
New Hampshire—Jacob H. Ela, Aaron F. Stevens, Jacob Benton.
New Jersey—William Moore, Charles Haight, Charles Sitgreaves, John Hill, George A. Halsey.
New York—Stephen Taber, Demas Barnes, William E. Robinson, John Fox, John Morrissey, Thomas E. Stewart, John W. Chanler, James Brooks, Fernando Wood, William H. Robertson, Charles H. Van Wyck, John H. Ketcham, Thomas Cornell, John V. L. Pruyn, John A. Griswold, Orange Ferris, Calvin T. Hulburd, James M. Marvin, William C. Fields, Addison H. Laflin, Alexander H. Bailey, John C. Churchill, Dennis McCarthy, Theodore M. Pomeroy, William H. Kelsey, William S. Lincoln, Hamilton Ward, Lewis Selye, Burt Van Horn, James M. Humphrey, Henry Van Aernam.
North Carolina—J. R. French, David Heaton, O. H. Dockery, J. T. Dewees, Israel G. Lash, Nathaniel Boyden, A. H. Jones.
Ohio—Benjamin Eggleston, Samuel F. Carey, Robert C. Schenck, William Lawrence, William Mungen, Reader W. Clarke, Samuel Shellabarger, John Beatty, Ralph P. Buckland, James M. Ashley, John T. Wilson, Philadelph Van Trump, Columbus Delano, Martin Welker, Tobias A. Plants, John A. Bingham, Ephraim R. Eckley, Rufus P. Spalding, James A. Garfield.
Oregon—Rufus Mallory.
Pennsylvania—Samuel J. Randall, Charles O'Neill, Leonard Myers, William D. Kelley, Caleb N. Taylor, Benjamin M. Boyer, John M. Broomall, J. Lawrence Getz, O. J. Dickey, Henry L. Cake, Daniel M. Van Auken, George W. Woodward, Ulysses Mercur, George F. Miller, Adam J. Glossbrenner, William H. Koontz, Daniel J. Morrell, Stephen F. Wilson, Glenni W. Scofield, S. Newton Pettis, John Covode, James K. Moorhead, Thomas Williams, George V. Lawrence.
Rhode Island—Thomas A. Jenckes, Nathan F. Dixon.
South Carolina—B. F. Whittemore, C. C. Bowen, Simon Corley, James H. Goss, J. P. M. Epping, E. H. Dickson.
Tennessee—Robert R. Butler, Horace Maynard, William B. Stokes, James Mullins, John Trimble, Samuel M. Arnell, Isaac R. Hawkins, David A. Nunn.
Vermont—Frederick E. Woodbridge, Luke P. Poland, Worthington C. Smith.
West Virginia—Chester D. Hubbard, Bethuel M. Kitchen, Daniel Polsley.
Wisconsin—Halbert E. Paine, Benjamin F. Hopkins, Amasa Cobb, Charles A. Eldridge, Philetus Sawyer, Cadwalader C. Washburn.

Not admitted at this session.

Mississippi—
Texas—
Virginia—

Delegates from the Territories.

Arizona—Coles Bashford.
Colorado—George M. Chilcott.
Dakota—Walter A. Burleigh.
Idaho—E. D. Holbrook.
Montana—James M. Cavanagh.
New Mexico—Charles P. Clever.
Utah—William H. Hooper.
Washington—Alvan Flanders.

is a condition of voting therein, the condition being the same for all classes.

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, offered the following:

ART. XV. The basis of suffrage in the United States shall be that of citizenship, and all native or naturalized citizens shall enjoy the same rights and privileges of the elective franchise; but each State shall determine by law the age of the citizen and the time of residence required for the exercise of the right of suffrage, which shall apply equally to all citizens, and also shall make all laws concerning the time, places, and manner of holding elections.

In the House, on the same day, Mr. Kelley, of Pennsylvania, offered the following:

ART. —. No State shall deny to or exclude from the exercise of any of the rights or privileges of an elector any citizen of the United States by reason of race or color.

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, offered the following:

ART. XV. Neither Congress nor any State by its constitution or laws shall deny or restrict the right of suffrage to citizens of the United States on account of race or parentage of such citizens; and all qualifications or limitations of the right of suffrage in the constitution or laws of any State, based upon race or parentage, are, and are hereby, declared to be void.

Mr. Stokes, of Tennessee, offered the following:

ART. XV. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall deprive any citizen of the right of the elective franchise on account of race or color.

In the House, on January 11th, Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, reported from the Committee on the Judiciary a joint resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution, and moved that it be printed and referred to the same committee. The resolution was as follows:

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be held as part of said Constitution, namely:

ART. —. *Section* 1. The right of any citizen of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State by reason of the race, color, or previous condition of slavery of any citizen or class of citizens of the United States.

Sec. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by proper legislation, the provisions of this article.

In the Senate, on January 23d, Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, moved to proceed to the consideration of a joint resolution of the Senate proposing an amendment to the Constitution. The vote, on the motion to take up the resolution, was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Drake, Edmunds, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Wade, Williams, and Wilson—33.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, and Vickers—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Conness, Cragin, Ferry, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sprague, Tipton, Van Winkle, Warner, Welch, Whyte, Willey, and Yates—24.

The joint resolution, as originally introduced by Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, was as follows:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, namely:

ART. XV. No State shall deny or abridge the right of its citizens to vote and hold office on account of race, color, or previous condition.

The Committee on the Judiciary proposed to strike out the words of the article, and insert as follows:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The Congress, by appropriate legislation, may enforce the provisions of this article.

Mr. Stewart moved to postpone the subject until Thursday ensuing.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "It is understood that they are this very day acting on a similar proposition in the other House, and under their rules, with the previous question, it is supposed that within one or two days they will arrive at a result. Now, the question which I have to submit to my friend is, whether it would not be better for us to act on the proposition that shall come to us from the House of Representatives? That, of course, will be advanced one stage further to the result which we are all trying to reach."

Mr. Stewart said: "If that proposition should be passed in the other House to-day, our committee will have time to look at it and have it before the Senate on Thursday, if this resolution be postponed until that day; and we can then act upon the House resolution, making this an amendment to it, or making such other amendments as the committee may suggest or the Senate may decide upon."

Mr. Dixon, of Connecticut, said: "Before the vote is taken on the motion to postpone, perhaps this is a proper time to give notice of an amendment which I propose to offer when the subject shall be before the Senate, so that the Senate may have time to consider it. Article five of the Constitution, which relates to the proposition of amendments by Congress, provides that:

The Congress, whenever two-thirds of both Houses shall deem it necessary, shall propose amendments to this Constitution, or, on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, shall call a convention for proposing amendments, which in either case shall be valid to all intents and purposes as part of this Constitution, when ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress.

"Now, sir, this proposal of an amendment

to the Constitution of the United States provides for its ratification by the Legislatures of the States, instead of by conventions; and that has been the usual mode, and I am not sure but that it has been the uniform mode of proposing amendments to the Constitution when they have been proposed by Congress. At any rate, it has been the mode in recent times. Now, sir, there are reasons, and it seems to me very strong reasons, existing at this time why this proposition, if submitted, should be submitted to conventions and ratified by conventions of the States, instead of by the Legislatures. I propose, therefore, when the matter shall come before the Senate for its consideration, to move to strike out the word 'Legislatures' and insert 'conventions,' so as to provide that the proposed amendment shall not be valid until ratified by conventions of three-fourths of the States.

"The reasons for this I will not give now at any length; but I will barely state that it seems to me so important a proposition as this should be ratified by bodies selected for that very purpose. In my own State it is peculiarly important, because, in the first place, the Legislature in that as in other States is not chosen for that purpose; and then again, as is well known, the Legislature of the State of Connecticut does not represent the people, in consequence of the peculiar mode of our representation. It may be said that the same remark may apply to a convention; but I take it if Congress order the ratification to be made, if at all, by a convention, it would be in the power of Congress to say that the convention should be chosen in such a manner that it should represent the people; that it should be chosen in some mode, distributing its members in some way, so that the convention would represent the people of the State.

"If it is proposed by the sovereign power of Congress to the people of the whole country to change the suffrage laws of the State of Connecticut, it does seem to me that Connecticut, as a component part of the whole country, should have the power of expressing its opinion on that subject aside from all other questions, and that the question should be presented to the people of the State of Connecticut for their consideration; and the only mode of doing it is, as it seems to me, to submit it to a convention of the people chosen for that purpose. Then the voice of the people will be expressed. But it will be very difficult to secure an expression of the voice of the people by the Legislature, especially if that Legislature were chosen before the subject was submitted to them."

Mr. Pomeroy, of Kansas, said: "I am for the enfranchisement of every human being in this country who is an American citizen. But, if we are going to change the fundamental law, I do not propose to allow the States to make any inequalities among their citizens unless they have committed crime. The equality of the citizen is the doctrine which, so far as I am concerned, I shall insist upon putting into the Constitution of the United States as a part of the fundamental law."

Mr. Grimes, of Iowa, said: "Without regard to sex or color?"

Mr. Pomeroy: "Yes, sir; without regard to sex or color. If the resolution is to be postponed, as I suppose it is to be, I shall prepare an amendment looking in that direction."

The resolution was set down for Thursday—yeas 37, nays 11.

In the House, on the same day, Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, moved to reconsider the vote by which the bill to secure equal privileges and immunities to citizens of the United States and to enforce the provisions of article fourteen of the Constitution, and the joint resolution proposing an amendment to the Constitution, were recommitted to the Committee on the Judiciary. He said: "This measure is the last, as far as I can foresee, of a series of great measures growing out of the rebellion, and necessary for the reorganization and pacification of the country, with which the Republican party to a large extent, through their Representatives and Senators in the Thirty-eighth, Thirty-ninth, and Fortieth Congresses, has been charged. I say that this measure, as far as I can foresee, is the last of those great measures, and for this reason: if we secure to all the people of the country, without distinction of race or color, the privilege of the elective franchise, we have then established upon the broadest possible basis of republican equality the institutions of the country, both state and national.

"As I proceed I shall state the reasons why I am not willing to rely exclusively upon a law of Congress, and also the reasons why I think it not wise to submit a constitutional amendment without the aid of legislation. The first section of the bill is in these words:

> That no State shall abridge or deny the right of any citizen of the United States to vote for electors of President and Vice-President of the United States or for Representatives in Congress, or for members of the Legislature of the State in which he may reside, by reason of race, color, or previous condition of slavery; and any provisions in the laws or constitution of any State inconsistent with this section are hereby declared to be null and void.

"It will be seen that the first section of this bill, which contains all the essential provisions with reference to the right of suffrage, limits the operation of the law to elections for President and Vice-President, Representatives in Congress, and to members of the State Legislatures. It will also be seen, by the argument which I shall submit, based upon the Constitution of the United States, that the powers of Congress are probably broader than those set forth and asserted in the section of the bill which I have just read; but, inasmuch as I believe all the objects which we are now seeking can be accomplished by the legisla-

tion here proposed, and the right of every citizen, whether black or white, native-born or naturalized, can be secured within a reasonable period of time, I am in favor of legislating so far only as may be necessary to secure those objects, not waiving, however, or in any way qualifying the assertion of the constitutional right in Congress to legislate upon the subject of the franchise, even in reference to the election of officers not named in this section of the bill. Those who are familiar with the debates which took place in the convention that framed the Constitution of the United States, and especially those who have read the debates that took place in the several State conventions upon the subject of ratifying the Constitution of the United States, must have been struck with the circumstance that all the friends of the Constitution asserted that there was power in the Constitution over the elective franchise to an extent which would enable the national Government to preserve its own existence independently of any action on the part of the States. If this Government be not a mere confederacy, held together by the merest thread, this must be true in the nature of the case. If the declaration in the preamble, that we are a people, has any meaning; if the Constitution, which the people of the United States as one people established, has any virtue or any force, any power to accomplish the purposes of a government, then in this Government there must be constitutional means by which those charged with the administration can provide for its preservation and continuance.

"I am now dealing with general principles, and not with the text of the Constitution, to which I shall come ere long. Upon general principles there must be power in the national Government to provide whatever is necessary for its own preservation. But, if the doctrine of those who maintain that the whole question of suffrage is vested in the States be true, then the States may refuse to choose electors; they may refuse to send members to this House; they may refuse to choose Senators by their Legislatures, and thus the Government of the United States would come to an end. There would be no President; there would be no Senate; there would be no House of Representatives, and the Government would consequently cease to exist.

"Sir, I know not in the darkest days of the republic, when State rights were triumphant, I know not of any theory more destructive to national existence and public liberty, more directly opposed to the nature of our Government, than that which is now avowed. It is a remnant of ancient and false traditions not supported by the Constitution. I shall ask the House to consider what the Constitution does declare upon the subject of suffrage. It will be found that there is no word or phrase in the instrument which tolerates the idea that the existence of this great Government, continental in its dimensions, is at the mercy of the States through defects in our fundamental law. I come now to the provisions of the Constitution of the United States bearing upon the question of suffrage. I read first that provision on which I suppose much reliance is placed to sustain the doctrine that the power over the question of suffrage is, to a certain extent, vested absolutely in the States. The second section of the first article of the Constitution is in these words:

> The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

"It has been assumed, upon this section of the Constitution, that each State has the power absolutely to fix the qualifications of electors of the most numerous branch of the Legislature, and that therefore the power of Congress, if it existed at all in reference to the election of Representatives to Congress, was controlled by what the State might have done in reference to electors for members of the most numerous branch of its Legislature. But, if gentlemen will look at the phraseology of this section as it stands, they will see that it does give power to the United States in reference to the qualifications of voters; that it does not take power from the States, nor does it take power from the United States. It merely declares the fact that the voters for Representatives in Congress shall possess the qualifications of voters for members of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature. It is an injunction to the States, if they have the power to prescribe the qualifications of voters; it is an injunction to the national Government, if the national Government has that power. But there is no declaration in this section that either has the power, and certainly not that either has the power to the exclusion of the other. But the fourth section of the same article of the Constitution further provides that:

> The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof.

"If the provision ended here, the theory which is maintained by gentlemen who deny the propositions contained in this bill would be well supported by the Constitution. The word 'manner,' in this connection of course becomes important. All writers upon words have considered the power and scope of three words which have a great similarity of meaning, 'mode,' 'method,' and 'manner;' and it is uniformly agreed that 'manner' is the largest and most comprehensive of the three in its scope. Patrick Henry, of Virginia—and I shall read his declarations to the House—gave his view of the meaning of the word 'manner,' which coincides with the view that I now take. It includes, as I maintain, every thing relating to an election, from the qualification of the elector to the deposit of his ballot in the box.

Here is set forth the power of the State. By the Constitution a State has original jurisdiction of the 'times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives;' and it is from this provision of the Constitution that the State gets its power over the subject, so far as the Constitution of the United States is concerned.

"Either one or the other of two things is true: either these words, as herein employed, in their scope and meaning cover the entire subject of elections, from the qualifications of the voter to the deposit of his ballot in the box, or else, by necessary legal inference, the States have not the power which they have been in the habit of exercising; for if this be a qualified and limited grant or recognition of authority, then what is not granted or recognized they do not possess. But the history of the facts from the first, and the recognition by Congress of the powers of the States, go to the extent of conceding to them entire scope and original control of the whole matter of voting, including the qualifications of the voter, his registration, and the deposit of his ballot in the box.

"Let me read what remains of this provision:

But the Congress may at any time by law make—

"Very broad language—

or alter such regulations, except as to the place of choosing Senators.

"Now, sir, taking the language of the Constitution itself, divested of all theories and traditions concerning the meaning put upon it by State-rights men, can any thing be more clear than that the Congress of the United States has all the power which the States could exercise, except merely as to declaring where the Senators shall be chosen? Can there be any doubt that the powers granted to or recognized as existing in the States, whatever the extent of those powers may be, are the measure of the powers which Congress may exercise? And therefore, when a State-rights man proves that by the Constitution of the United States a State has a right to decide who shall exercise the elective franchise, he has proved also that Congress may do the same thing under this provision of the Constitution which says that Congress may make any regulations it chooses relating to the subject, or may alter such regulations as have been made by the States.

"This is no new doctrine. It was asserted, as I have already stated, in most of the conventions which ratified the Constitution of the United States. It was declared again and again in the Convention which framed the Constitution of the United States.

"What is the conclusion, then, of the whole matter, upon the text of the original Constitution, in reference to the question of suffrage? Why, first, that the power to make regulations concerning elections is vested in the States; and, secondly, that the power of the General Government upon the subject of the franchise is just as comprehensive as the power of the States, and that we may make regulations, and that we may alter such regulations as the States have made. This view is supported, first, by the necessary theory of the Government that it cannot exist independently of the States if this power in the General Government is denied. It is also supported by the debates in the Convention that framed the Constitution itself. It is supported by the debates in the State conventions which ratified the Constitution, where the issue was distinctly made upon that question between the friends of the Constitution and its opponents. The opponents of the Constitution charged that it contemplated precisely what we now say it means; the supporters of the Constitution did deny that it contemplated precisely what we say it means, and upon that ground they advocated the provision. The opponents of the provision in four of the States sought the submission of an amendment to the people giving a different and more limited construction to the article. The Congress of the United States refused to submit such an amendment. This is conclusive evidence that all the men who participated in framing this Government were of opinion that the power to regulate elections was in the States, subject to the supreme control of the General Government; and this without any inquiry into other provisions of the Constitution, which give us ample basis for all the legislation we now propose.

"I come next to the consideration of a provision of the Constitution on which I might safely rest for the exercise of this power, certainly as far as several States are concerned, even if all that is granted to Congress in the provisions relating to representation were wanting. I refer now to the provision of the Constitution by which the United States are to guarantee to each State a republican form of government.

"What is the nature of the difficulty with which we are now dealing? Is it a difficulty in harmony with republican institutions and a republican form of government, or is it a difficulty which is antagonistic to republican institutions? What is the essence of an aristocracy? How is it distinguished from a republic? The essence of an aristocracy is in this, that the government is in certain families made hereditary to the exclusion of others. That is all there is of it. You may limit this aristocracy to twelve men, you may enlarge it to a hundred, to a thousand, or to ten thousand; but, if limited, if certain persons are included and certain others are excluded, not for themselves merely, but for all their posterity, you have an aristocracy. There is, I submit to this House, no other possible definition of an aristocracy; there is no other possible honest distinction between an aristocratic and a republican form of government.

"I say without hesitation that none of those

States in which men are denied the elective franchise for themselves and for all their posterity are republican. They are aristocracies more or less offensive to republican institutions and to republican government; and inasmuch as by the Constitution the United States has power, and it is made its duty, to guarantee a republican form of government to each State, if upon observation we find, as I think we do find in Delaware, in Kentucky, in Maryland, in Ohio, and in Pennsylvania, that the governments are not republican, it becomes our duty to exercise the power vested in us by the Constitution and make those governments republican by law."

Mr. Jones, of Kentucky, said: "I would like to ask the gentleman a question just here. I would ask if he holds that the Constitution of the United States prohibits any State from regulating the right of suffrage? And if so, I ask the gentleman how he construes the tenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, I believe, was suggested by his own State of Massachusetts? I think, when Massachusetts met in State convention to ratify the Constitution of the United States, she instructed her delegates not to cease their efforts in the Federal Convention until they had obtained that amendment, which I will read:

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.

"My question is, does the Constitution prohibit the States from regulating the matter of suffrage?"

Mr. Boutwell: "There is a power recognized in the States by the fourth section of the first article, and there is a power in the same section granted to the General Government, concerning the matter of elections; and the tenth amendment to the Constitution, to which the gentleman refers, does not touch this case at all. The power given to the States to regulate the time, places, and manner of holding elections is a specified and distinct power, and it is not disturbed by the tenth amendment. The power given to Congress in the same article to alter those State regulations is a specific power also, and that is not touched by the tenth amendment to the Constitution.

"I leave now that portion of my argument based upon the guarantee clause, and proceed to the consideration of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States. If there were any doubt remaining in the mind of any person as to the power of Congress over this whole subject, as derived from the three provisions of the original text of the Constitution to which I have referred, I believe that every doubt must disappear upon an analysis of the fourteenth amendment. The first clause of the first section is in these words:

All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the States wherein they reside.

"Mark the words! Then comes the inhibition on the States:

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States.

"By the first clause citizens of the United States are citizens of the States in which they reside. One of the immunities, then, and privileges of a citizen of the United States is that he shall be a citizen of the State where he resides, and the inhibition applies as well to the deprivation of rights derived directly from the States as to those rights derived directly from the United States Government. It is a comprehensive inhibition upon the States. They cannot deprive a citizen of the United States of any privilege or immunity which he may enjoy as a citizen of the United States; they cannot deprive him of any privilege or immunity which he may enjoy, or which any other citizen may enjoy, as a citizen of the State in which he resides. This declaration in reference to the rights of citizens is for all or it is for nobody. We have certain privileges in this House, the two chief of which are, first, privilege from arrest in certain cases during the sessions and while travelling to and from our respective residences; and the other is, that we are not held answerable elsewhere for any thing that we may say here.

"Mr. Speaker, consider what is covered by the word 'privileged,' as used in the Constitution, not interpolated by me for the purpose of this debate. The rights to which I have referred are declared to be the privileges of members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives. They are distinctions by which, under the Constitution, we are recognized and set apart from other men. They are privileges, in the language of the lexicographers, 'peculiar benefits, advantages, immunities.' They are for all of us equally. We are characterized in the Constitution as 'members.' We are as members endowed with certain privileges, and under that provision of the Constitution we are peers. What are the privileges under the Constitution of one member are the privileges of every other member. When you have established the right of one member here to the benefit of these privileges, you have established the right of all the members of the House to the same privileges.

"Now, what is the language of the section which I am considering?

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States.

"I inquire how are you to distinguish between the various classes of persons in the several States? By the first clause of this section 'all persons born or naturalized in the United States are citizens of the United States.' They may have been born in Africa, in Denmark, in Ireland; they may be white, they may be black; but by the Constitution they are citizens of the United States, and by that

same Constitution it is declared that the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States shall not be abridged by any State of this Union.

"I say again, therefore, that that provision of the Constitution is for all the people or it is for none of them. Under that Constitution we cannot select and say that a man born in this country shall be entitled to certain privileges as a citizen to which a man born elsewhere and naturalized shall not be entitled. We cannot say that a white citizen shall enjoy privileges which are denied to a black citizen or to a naturalized citizen, white or black.

"I come now to the second section, upon which I know reliance will be placed by the opponents of the bill. It is there provided:

Sec. 2. Representatives shall be apportioned among the several States according to their respective numbers, counting the whole number of persons in each State, excluding Indians not taxed. But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, being twenty-one years of age and citizens of the United States, or in any way abridged, except for participation in rebellion or other crime, the basis of representation therein shall be reduced in the proportion which the number of such male citizens shall bear to the whole number of male citizens twenty-one years of age in such State.

"If gentlemen will consider these two sections together, they will see how entirely in harmony they are with each other, and how wholly unsupported is the doctrine that there is in this second section any concession to a State to abridge or deny to a citizen the right to vote. By the second section there is a political penalty for doing that which in the first section it is declared the State has no right to do. I read the first section:

Sec. 1. All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

"It is here provided that there shall be no abridgment of the privileges and immunities of citizens; and in the second section there is a penalty provided for a State that disregards the inhibition. We were then acting in the presence of the fact that many States of the Union were doing that which the first section declared they had no right to do. It was uncertain when Congress would exercise the power conferred by the fifth section of the fourteenth amendment, and, in order that the States should not take advantage of their own wrong during the period while Congress might be inactive, a penalty was provided. We knew that Kentucky, Maryland, and Delaware, were doing what they were inhibited from doing by the first section of the article, and we said that they should suffer in representation for so doing. Power was given to Congress to remedy this evil, and that power Congress is now called upon to exercise.

"But, sir, consider the anomalous feature in our Government, if the doctrine be successfully maintained that we cannot legislate on this subject. There are citizens in Kentucky and Maryland who, if the doctrine set forth by the opponents of this bill be a sound constitutional doctrine, are eligible to the office of President or Vice-President of the United States, and yet who cannot vote for Representatives in Congress or even for a State, county, or town official. What is the qualification for the office of President? He must be a native citizen of the United States and thirty-five years of age. Nothing more. These are the only qualifications for the office of President. By the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution we have declared that all the black men in Maryland and other States shall be citizens of the United States. Certain State governments have for the present denied those people the right to vote, and yet one of them may be elected President of the United States and another Vice-President. Is there such an anomaly in our Government? Are we prepared to admit its existence unless the Constitution imperatively requires it? The Constitution provides that any one twenty-five years of age, who has been a citizen for seven years, may be elected a Representative upon this floor, and colored men, although denied the right of suffrage in their own States, may be elected to legislate for the whole country. Thus is the General Government put in an anomalous and inconsistent position.

"This bill, then, is defensible, first on the original text of the Constitution, in which the subject of suffrage is considered; it is defensible upon the guarantee clause of the Constitution; it is defensible upon the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution; and it is defensible as the exercise of a necessary power in the Government. The power is essential to the existence and preservation of the Government itself, and was so regarded by the men who framed the Constitution of 1787."

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, said: "I shall not attempt to analyze this bill, or to examine its provisions in detail. The main feature and purpose of the bill are to take from the States the right to determine the qualification of voters. It provides:

That no State shall abridge or deny the right of any citizen of the United States to vote for electors of President and Vice-President of the United States, or for Representatives in Congress, or for members of the Legislature of the State in which he may reside, by reason of race, color, or previous condition of slavery; and any provisions in the laws or constitution of any State inconsistent with this section are hereby declared null and void.

"Thus it is proposed by this bill to invade the jurisdiction of State authority and subject all the States of the Union to Federal control.

This long-conceded right of the States to determine for themselves who of their citizens shall exercise the right of suffrage within their respective jurisdictions is now for the first time to be taken away by act of Congress from all the States of this Union. It would seem that the exercise of this power by the States, almost unquestioned ever since and before the adoption of the Constitution, for more than eighty years, would cause gentlemen to hesitate before taking such a step. Is not the argument, that the Federal Government, the people, and all the States, have acquiesced so long in the exercise of this power by the several States, almost conclusive? No two of the States have adopted provisions by which the same and all the same class or classes of their citizens vote. Some even have not confined the right to citizens at all. Aliens having declared their intentions only are in several of the States permitted to exercise the right of suffrage. There can scarcely be said to be any uniformity. The laws on the subject are as variant and diversified as the climate and the productions of the States themselves. And yet the right and power of the several States to determine this question of the qualification of voters can hardly be said to have been doubted. I do not ignore the fact that some one or more honorable gentlemen on this floor and in the other branch of Congress, together with some pseudo-commentators upon the Constitution, blinded, as I think, by the heated passions of fanaticism and war, have professed to believe and have declared that Congress has the constitutional power necessary to pass this bill. But the conclusions of these gentlemen are, I apprehend, more from the desire that a Congress composed of their friends should intervene and control the suffrage of the States in the interest of the party to which they are attached than from any settled conviction of constitutional warrant. Their views and opinions are confused, and they seem uncertain upon what provision of the Constitution to rest them. They base them more upon what they consider the necessity of the times, the wants of the nation, and the will of the people, as expressed through the party to which they adhere, than upon any express or implied grant of power to the Federal Government in and by the Constitution itself. The Constitution declares that:

The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States, and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature. —*Constitution*, art. 1, sec. 2, clause 1.

"This, as I believe, is the only provision of the Constitution in any manner dictating or prescribing the qualifications of electors. 'And the electors of each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.' Can any candid, fair-minded man pretend that this provision is a grant of power to Congress to intervene and prescribe the qualification of electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature? Is it not all that Congress can do, to insist or require that the same body, or class, or classes of persons who are allowed to vote or qualified as electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature shall be the electors of members of the House of Representatives? And are they not to be the same persons who are by the State laws declared qualified electors of the most numerous branch of the Legislature of the State? It seems to me nothing can be clearer. No language can make it more explicit. All is left to the State, except only that the persons the State designates as its electors of the most numerous branch of its Legislature shall be the constitutional electors of the House of Representatives. The Constitution provides that the State may determine the persons who shall be electors of members of the House of Representatives by its act of determining who shall be the electors of its most numerous legislative branch. This right of the State to determine the qualification of the electors of the members of its Legislature is older than the Constitution. The State derived the power from the people of the State before the Constitution was adopted. The power, therefore, remains in the State until it is taken away. There is nothing in the Constitution, nothing in the provision quoted, certainly, granting the power to the Federal Government, or prohibiting it to the State.

"In this view all the commentators, that I have been able to consult, agree. It was a reference of the whole question to the domestic law—to the law of the State. The House of Representatives was to be composed of members chosen every two years by the people of the several States, the requisite qualifications of the electors of whom were expressly referred to the law established by the State itself. And this provision was sustained by a large majority of the Convention. The advocates of this bill must therefore look to some other provision of the Constitution for the power to pass it. There is no grant here to the Federal Government. It only authorizes the same electors to elect members of the House of Representatives who by the laws of the State are qualified electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature. This is what was intended, and all that can be claimed for it.

"Can authority for this bill be found under article one, section four, clause one, of the Constitution?

The times, places, and manner of holding elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legislature thereof; but the Congress may at any time by law make or alter such regulations, except as to the places of choosing Senators.

"The times, places, and manner of holding the elections for Senators and Representatives shall be prescribed in each State by the Legis-

lature thereof. The times, places, and manner; 'but the Congress may at any time make or alter such regulations.' What regulations may Congress make or alter? Clearly, the times, places, and manner, and nothing else: the times when and the places where the elections shall take place. This is clear and unmistakable. And is there any more room for doubt as to the import of the term 'manner?' It seems to me not. It cannot relate to the qualification of the electors. This is left where it was at the adoption of the Constitution—with the States themselves. Manner must relate to the manner of conducting the election, whether by ballot or *viva voce*, to the mode or manner in which the elector shall signify his choice, shall express his will. This was the opinion of Mr. Justice Story, in his able and most exhaustive commentary on the Constitution, where we should almost suppose he had these bills under consideration. He says:

> What would be said of a clause introduced into the national Constitution to regulate the State elections of the members of the State Legislatures? It would be deemed a most unwarrantable transfer of power, indicating a premeditated design to destroy the State governments. It would be deemed so flagrant a violation of principle as to require no comment.—*Story on the Constitution*, sec. 819.

"This bill proposes to regulate the State elections of members of the State Legislature; precisely what Story says would indicate an unmistakable design to destroy the State governments. Again Justice Story says:

> Nor can it be said with correctness that Congress can in any way alter the rights or qualifications of voters.—*Ibid.*, sec. 820.

"Mr. Story seems to have adopted very nearly the language of Hamilton on the same subject in No. 59 of the *Federalist*, where he most emphatically condemns the idea even of introducing such an article into the Constitution. He says:

> Suppose an article had been introduced into the Constitution empowering the United States to regulate the elections for the particular States, would any man have hesitated to condemn it, both as an unwarrantable transposition of power and as a premeditated engine for the destruction of the State governments?

"In those days no man would have hesitated to condemn it. The Constitution could never have been adopted if it had contained the grant of power to Congress to determine the qualification of voters for officers of the States. Such a work is left for these days of revolution and usurpation—to the mad fanatics who for partisan ends would destroy our republic of States. These authorities not only show that the power to regulate the qualification of electors is not granted to the Federal Government, but that it ought not to be possessed by it. Mr. Story says:

> It would be a most unwarrantable transfer of power, indicating a premeditated design to destroy the State governments.

"Mr. Hamilton calls it—

> An unwarrantable transposition of power, * * * a premeditated engine for the destruction of the State governments.

"Sir, for myself I most heartily indorse and believe this. This measure originated in hostility to the States, and most certainly menaces their existence. Every step in the direction of this bill and joint resolution is a step toward centralization and consolidation. It evinces a premeditated design upon the life of the States—a design to concentrate all the powers of government in the Federal head. And with this scheme consummated, and the others contemplated by the party in power, there will be very little left of the States; the rights, powers, and all the vast interests confided to them by the people, will be crushed and destroyed under the advancing foot of empire. The States cannot long stand against the grasping and growing power of the Federal Government.

"Mr. Speaker, after the most careful examination and inquiry, I venture the assertion that no friend or advocate of the Constitution at the time of its adoption by the Convention, and ratification by the States, can be found to have claimed even that the power to prescribe the qualification of voters in the States was conferred upon the Federal Government. It is true that the opponents of the Constitution argued against it on the ground that it might be so construed; that Congress—some future Congress—might undertake to exercise the power of determining what persons should exercise the right of suffrage. The gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Boutwell) admits, as I understood him, that this was the charge made against the Constitution by its opponents. Patrick Henry was one of them. He made every argument which his great genius could suggest to stir up hostility to it. But who but the gentleman from Massachusetts would argue a constitutional grant of power, against the plain letter of the instrument, on the suggestions of those opposed to it and seeking to defeat its adoption, merely because those suggestions were undenied by its friends? The gentleman, however, is mistaken when he says that the friends of the Constitution did not deny that this power was conferred upon the United States Government, or that the friends did not deny this construction of those who were opposed to it. It was not only denied in the discussions in the Convention, but it was deliberately denied by Hamilton and Madison in the passage already quoted from the *Federalist*. In my judgment, the evidence that the power to regulate the qualification of voters was left with the States, and that the Convention so intended from its language, from the declaration of the members, from the concurrent history, from all respectable commentators, is conclusive and overwhelming. Any other conclusion will do violence to the plain letter of the Constitution, and be a falsification of the history and debates upon it.

"The argument, that, if this power is with the States, and not subject to the ultimate control and regulation of the national Government, the States have it in their power to refuse to act upon the question, and thereby fail or neglect to send Representatives to Congress and thus destroy the Government, has very little force. Congress having the power to regulate the time, place, and manner of holding the elections, has all the power that was thought necessary, all that is necessary. This being done, the persons qualified to vote for members of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature can and will meet and elect Representatives. It can make no difference that the electors are determined by the State. Electors qualified to elect and having the right to vote for members of the State Legislature exist, and must always exist so long as the State itself, as such, exists; and Congress can require them to meet at the time and place and cast their ballots in the manner it may see fit to designate.

"But the gentleman from Massachusetts, my colleague on the committee, made one other argument which I cannot fail to notice. He claimed, as I understood him, that the power of Congress to make or alter such regulations as the State might prescribe was coextensive with the power granted to the State, and that, if the Congress could not regulate the qualifications of electors, the States did not possess the power to prescribe them. This is a fundamental error—I had almost said blunder. It is basing the argument upon the most fatal heresy of these times—the heresy out of which the evils have grown that threaten the very life of the republic of States. It reverses the entire order and system of our Government. The gentleman must have forgotten that the Federal Government is a Government of delegated powers:

> That the powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively or to the people.—*Tenth Amendment of Constitution.*

"The power to determine the qualifications of electors was, in the States, conferred, as we have before stated, by the people of the States, in most if not all of them embedded in their constitutions when the Federal Constitution was formed and adopted. And that power has never been delegated to the General Government, and has not been prohibited to the States. It rests, therefore, where the people of the States placed it—in the States themselves. Sir, the powers and rights and liberties of the States and people do not come down from Congress or the Federal Government. There are some powers with which Congress has not been intrusted. Congress cannot determine just how much of liberty the people shall enjoy, just how they shall speak and move and breathe. All the powers of the Federal Government come up from the States and people, and it never had and never can have the rightful authority to exercise any power not granted in and by the Constitution. The exercise of any other is rank usurpation.

"I do not suppose it is seriously believed, or will be seriously contended, that the passage of this bill is warranted under the clause of the Constitution: 'The United States shall guarantee to every State in this Union a republican form of government.' For Congress to intervene, under the pretence that the States to which the bill is to apply have not now a republican form of government, is to decide that there are no States now in the Union that have a republican form; for the bill applies alike to all the States. It is to decide that there never have been any States of this Union that have had a republican form. If there be any State that has a republican form, that State ought to be excepted from its operation. I am not aware of any one who has the hardihood to claim that the original States were not republican in form, and, if they were, that settles the question of the power of Congress to interfere with them under this provision.

"The United States is not to guarantee any particular form of republican government. The States certainly have the right to select or choose for themselves the form, only so that it is republican. All are not by the Constitution required to be Massachusetts. Ohio's form may at least suit her people better, and the United States has no power to dictate or guarantee the one or the other as a choice of particular republican forms.

"If it were claimed that no State is republican in form that does not allow all its citizens to vote, then we should have no republican States, because no one of the States does allow all its citizens to exercise this privilege. It will not be claimed, I suppose, that the State has not a republican form of government for the reason only that it denies to its negro citizens what it also denies to our citizens' wives and daughters. And if citizenship alone confers the right to vote, and a State is not republican that denies the right to an uneducated, half-civilized colored man, how much more is the State not republican in form that denies the educated, cultivated, and refined woman the right. But, sir, citizenship does not necessarily carry with it the right to vote or hold office under our system. Nor can the denial to a citizen of the right to vote by a State destroy the republican form of its government. It was not so understood at the adoption of the Constitution, and has never been so claimed by any sane man. That the question of who shall exercise the right of suffrage is a delicate and most important question, I admit. That the power of determining it ought to be dispassionately and wisely exercised is equally true. On its being so used depend greatly the welfare and happiness of the body-politic and the permanence and endurance of our republican Government and institutions. But, that this power rests in the States, and ought to rest

there, I have no doubt. That the rights and liberties of the people are safer with this power in the control of the States than in the control of the Federal Government, I certainly believe.

"And, sir, without meaning any disrespect to the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Boutwell), I must say that it seems to me that his bill and resolution for the amendment of the Constitution, and his 'cumulative remedies,' as he styled them, for the evils which exist, in his judgment, with reference to the persons who ought to exercise the right of suffrage, are a *felo de se*. If the power exists in the Federal Government to pass this bill, whether under any one or all the provisions referred to, then I admit that Congress has the right to control the whole question of suffrage and the qualification of electors for all officers, State and national. There can be no reason for its entering the State and determining the qualification of those who are to elect the officers named in the bill, that will not apply to every officer of the State, so far as the question of power is concerned. The electors of President and Vice-President are not named in section four of the first article. The power claimed, therefore, under the word 'manner' in this section can no more apply to them than to the Governor of the State or any other State officer. So that if it covers electors it may as well cover, and does as necessarily cover, all that is contemplated by the amendment proposed by the joint resolution. The amendment is, then, worse than useless. If it be necessary for the purpose it contemplates, it must be a most pregnant admission that the bill is unconstitutional."

Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, said: "This singular anomaly is presented for the first time in the history of this, or, I suppose, of any other country. The States are asked to so enlarge the grant of powers in the Constitution as to enable Congress, by appropriate legislation, to enforce the right of any citizen of the United States to vote in any State, regardless of race, color, or previous condition of slavery, the constitution and laws of the State to the contrary notwithstanding. The proposition asking for the grant of power from the States, by whom alone, when thus proposed, it can be granted through their Legislatures, admits upon its face that the power to grant or refuse to grant the proposition or request of Congress is lodged in the States, and that, if they refuse to transfer it, Congress has no right to exercise it; and yet, before the proposition has received the sanction of a single State, Congress proposes, by the bill now under consideration, to exercise all the power which the proposed amendment would give it, and which, for aught we know, every State may refuse to surrender when the proposition is submitted to them. The reputation of the majority of the Judiciary Committee of this House will not be promoted in the eyes of the civilized world by the serious presentation of such anomalous and inconsistent propositions. To ask States to grant powers, and at the same time to exercise them in spite of the constitutions and laws of the States who are asked to make the grant, is, it seems to me, too absurd for grown men seriously to consider. If we have the power now, the proposed amendment to the Constitution is folly. If such an amendment is required to confer the power upon us, the proposed law is the grossest and most shameless usurpation and oppression.

"When the distinguished gentleman was goading his party on with the lash of necessity, and telling them it was too late to look back—that their only safety lay in consummating the revolution they had inaugurated—I could understand him; but when he urged that both the amendment and the law were indispensable, because the party was divided in opinion as to where the power now was, I hardly think he was intelligible to himself.

"The idea that this is a nation—that the national Congress is vested with all power necessary to preserve whatever a majority of Congress may consider the life of the nation, which, properly speaking, now means the life of the radical party, was urged with a vehemence only equalled by the contempt with which the idea that this is a Union of coequal, confederated States was scouted and sneered at.

"Whatever stress may be laid on the language of the preamble, the fact remains that we are living under a Constitution framed by States, ratified by States, and which has been and can be only amended or altered—which is the better word when applied to the present and the last so-called amendment—by States. We are in no sense a nation, and whenever we become so we will be a centralized despotism in some form. The United States of America will have ceased to exist; anarchy or empire will have come. Nothing short of separate, independent State governments can manage and control the great, diversified, widely-separated, and often conflicting interests of this people. Perhaps the best way to determine who framed the Constitution is to ascertain who has the power to alter and amend it, as it can hardly be supposed that its framers would transfer to a power other than its maker the power under the guise of amendments to alter and destroy it. How can it be amended? The Constitution says:

> Only by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, or by conventions in three-fourths thereof, as the one or the other mode of ratification may be proposed by the Congress.

"This Congress, of course, prefers and proposes the former, for the very obvious reason that it does not desire nor intend that the people of the States shall have any right to deliberate or decide on the propositions, choosing rather to trust their partisans in the State Legislatures, all of whom have been elected already, without reference to and without any

knowledge on the part of the people who elected them that they would be called upon to consider so grave a proposition as the annulling of their own State constitutions on the question of suffrage."

The motion of Mr. Boutwell to reconsider was agreed to, when a motion was made to recommit the joint resolution to the Judiciary Committee. This motion was afterward withdrawn, and the joint resolution came before the House as follows:

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be held as part of said Constitution, namely:

ARTICLE —, *Sec.* 1. The right of any citizen of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State by reason of the race, color, or previous condition of slavery of any citizen or class of citizens of the United States.

Sec. 2. The Congress shall have power to enforce, by proper legislation, the provisions of this article.

Mr. Boutwell: "I move to amend section one by striking out the word 'the' before 'race.'"

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Boutwell then said: "Mr. Speaker, I am of opinion, upon the whole, that the amendment, as it came from the committee, which says that 'the right of any citizen of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged,' is a comprehensive and explicit declaration. I thought so when it was drawn, and on the whole I think it best for the amendment that I should not undertake to incorporate into it the language used by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Shellabarger); but, in order that the sense of the House may be tested upon the question—not that I am myself of the opinion that it will add any thing substantial to the value of the amendment—I will propose to add to section one the words 'nor shall educational attainments or the possession or ownership of property ever be made a test of the right of any citizen to vote,' and on that amendment I will ask the previous question."

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, said: "It must occur to the gentleman from Massachusetts, on a moment's reflection, that the designation of property and educational qualifications recognizes the right in every State of establishing a religious test; and I ask the gentleman why he will insist on the previous question upon a proposition which, as it stands by a well-known rule of construction, commits this House to the monstrous proposition that every State in the Union may establish a religious test as a qualification of the elective franchise. The exceptions made by the gentlemen are, I believe, a property qualification and an educational qualification, and the result is, in the words of one of the foremost jurists of America, that every other thing not included in this exception may be made a test, and that is the reason I object to it."

Mr. Eldridge: "I ask the gentleman if, in the view he has taken of the proposed amendment to the Constitution, there may not be established by the States any and every other test but the two only that are excepted?"

Mr. Bingham: "That is exactly what I have said touching the proposition of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Boutwell)."

Mr. Eldridge: "Not only a religious test, but every test that the mind of man can conceive, that does not come under the head of property or of education?"

Mr. Bingham: "Certainly."

Mr. Maynard, of Tennessee: "I would ask the gentleman if his objection will not apply equally to every form of amendment we may adopt, unless we undertake to declare affirmatively what shall be the qualifications of a voter? This proposed amendment speaks only negatively when it speaks of the qualifications of a voter, stating that certain matters shall not be a test against a voter, leaving every thing else open."

Mr. Bingham: "I am glad to have an opportunity to answer the question of the gentleman from Tennessee (Mr. Maynard). If there were nothing at all here except the first section, I might see a great deal of weight in the gentleman's suggestion. But there happens to be added to that a second section, giving to Congress the express power to enforce the prohibition. The result of the whole matter is, that, if we amend this first section, as suggested by my honorable colleague as well as by myself, by the second section Congress is invested with express authority to enforce the limitation."

Mr. Jenckes, of Rhode Island, said: "Does the gentleman understand that this second section gives to Congress the power to prescribe affirmatively the qualifications of electors in these elections; or does it simply give the power to enforce the prohibition upon the States; in other words, can that power be exercised by Congress so as to secure uniformity of qualification of electors in all the States of the Union?"

Mr. Bingham: "I answer the gentleman that I have not the least doubt on the question as a question of law. There are other negative provisions in the Constitution of the United States; for example, the express negative provision that 'no State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contracts.' By virtue of your judiciary act, as it has been in force from the foundation of the Government to this day, that limitation upon the power of the States is uniform, and, whenever or wherever any State has undertaken by legislative enactment, or by constitutional provision, if you please—I care not which—to impair the obligation of contracts, that wrong has, by the operation of your law, been righted; so that the provision of the Constitution has operated

uniformly. Whenever Congress has the power under the Constitution to enforce the limitations of that instrument, even upon States, the exercise of the power will be as uniform as the exercise of any affirmative power can possibly be. It must be so; it cannot be otherwise."

Mr. Boutwell: "Mr. Speaker, I do not see that the argument made by the gentleman from Ohio (Mr. Bingham) changes the condition of the question at all. If it be true, as he argues, that under this amendment the States would have the right to impose a religious test, it is equally true that they can do so now. What he has said only adds force to the suggestion I made, that the amendment proposed by the gentleman from Ohio, if referred to the State Legislatures, will be met by all these difficulties; and, although I should be willing to strike down all educational or property tests, and all possibility of their being established anywhere, the probability is that the amendment which we are discussing, if submitted substantially as it came from the committee, will be stronger before the people, and that if we should attempt to grasp at too much we shall lose the whole. I believe that, if we adhere to the proposition to protect the people of this country against distinction on account of race, color, or previous condition of slavery, we undertake all that it is probably safe for us to undertake now."

The question was then put on Mr. Boutwell's amendment; and there were—yeas 45, nays 95.

So the amendment was disagreed to.

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, now moved an amendment, in lieu of the first section, to which Mr. Shellabarger offered an amendment, as follows:

Strike out in the amendment of Mr. Bingham the provision proposed to be inserted in lieu of section one of the proposed new article of the Constitution, and insert in lieu thereof the following:

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall deny or abridge to any male citizen of the United States of the age of twenty-one years or over, and who is of sound mind, an equal vote at all elections in the State in which he shall have such actual residence as shall be prescribed by law, except to such as have engaged or may hereafter engage in insurrection or rebellion against the United States, and to such as shall be duly convicted of treason, felony, or other infamous crime.

The question was taken; and it was decided in the negative—yeas 61, nays 126, not voting 35; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Delos R. Ashley, Baldwin, Beaman, Beatty, Benton, Boles, Bowen, Broomall, Buckland, Cake, Clift, Cobb, Coburn, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, James T. Elliott, French, Gravely, Hamilton, Hawkins, Hooper, Chester D. Hubbard, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Loan, Logan, Maynard, Mullins, Newsham, Norris, Orth, Paine, Plants, Polsley, Price, Prince, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Shellabarger, Starkweather, Stokes, Sypher, Twichell, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, and William Williams—61.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Archer, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Axtell, Bailey, Baker, Banks, Barnum, Beck, Benjamin, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Boyden, Boyer, Bromwell, Brooks, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Callis, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Sidney Clarke, Cook, Corley, Covode, Deweese, Dockery, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Edwards, Eldridge, Thomas D. Eliot, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Fox, Garfield, Getz, Golladay, Goss, Gove, Griswold, Grover, Haight, Halsey, Harding, Haughey, Heaton, Higby, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Hulburd, Humphrey, Hunter, Jenckes, Johnson, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, Lincoln, Loughridge, Marshall, Marvin, McCormick, McCullough, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Morrell, Mungen, Myers, Newcomb, Niblack, Nicholson, Nunn, O'Neill, Perham, Peters, Phelps, Pierce, Pike, Pile, Poland, Pruyn, Randall, Raum, Robertson, Robinson, Roots, Ross, Sitgreaves, Smith, Spalding, Stewart, Stone, Stover, Taber, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Tift, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Burt Van Horn, Van Trump, Van Wyck, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Woodbridge, Woodward, and Young—126.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Anderson, Barnes, Blackburn, Buckley, Roderick R. Butler, Reader W. Clarke, Cornell, Dickey, Dixon, Farnsworth, Glossbrenner, Hill, Holman, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Kellogg, Kitchen, Lynch, Mallory, McCarthy, Moorhead, Morrissey, Pettis, Pomeroy, Selye, Stevens, Lawrence S. Trimble, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, and Wood—35.

So Mr. Shellabarger's amendment to the amendment of Mr. Bingham was not agreed to.

The question then recurred on Mr. Bingham's amendment, as follows:

Strike out all of article one and insert as follows:

Section 1. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall deny or abridge to any male citizen of the United States of sound mind and twenty-one years of age or upward the equal exercise of the elective franchise at all elections in the State wherein he shall have actually resided for a period of one year next preceding such election, subject to such registration laws and laws prescribing local residence as the State may enact, except such of said citizens as shall engage in rebellion or insurrection, or who may have been, or shall be, duly convicted of treason or other infamous crime.

The question was taken; and it was decided in the negative—yeas 24, nays 160, not voting 38; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Axtell, Baker, Bingham, Brooks, Deweese, Dockery, Eldridge, Garfield, Haight, Heaton, Hotchkiss, Alexander H. Jones, McCullough, Phelps, Plants, Robinson, Ross, Spalding, Stewart, Stone, Tift, John T. Wilson, Woodward, and Young—24.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Beck, Benjamin, Benton, Blaine, Blair, Boles, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Boyer, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Buckley, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Cake, Callis, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Corley, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Fox, French, Getz, Golladay, Goss, Gove, Gravely, Griswold, Grover, Halsey, Hamilton, Harding, Hawkins, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Hunter, Jenckes, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Kerr, Ketcham, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lin

colm, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marshall, Marvin, Maynard, McCormick, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Mungen, Myers, Newcomb, Newsham, Niblack, Norris, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pierce, Pike, Poland, Polsley, Price, Prince, Pruyn, Randall, Raum, Robertson, Roots, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Shellabarger, Sitgreaves, Smith, Starkweather, Stokes, Stover, Sypher, Taber, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, William Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and Woodbridge—160.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Anderson, Archer, Baldwin, Barnes, Barnum, Blackburn, Roderick R. Butler, Reader W. Clarke, Cornell, Dickey, Dixon, Dodge, Edwards, Farnsworth, Glossbrenner, Haughey, Hill, Holman, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Kitchen, Knott, McCarthy, Morrissey, Nicholson, Pettis, Pile, Pomeroy, Stevens, John Trimble, Lawrence S. Trimble, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, James F. Wilson, and Wood—53.

So the amendment was rejected.

The joint resolution was then ordered to be engrossed and read a third time.

The result having been announced as above, the joint resolution, being engrossed, was read the third time.

Mr. Boutwell: "I move the previous question on the passage, and demand the yeas and nays."

The previous question was seconded, and the main question ordered.

The question was then taken on its passage, and it was decided in the affirmative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baldwin, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Blackburn, Blaine, Blair, Boles, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Buckley, Benjamin F. Butler, Cake, Callis, Churchill, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Corley, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Deweese, Dockery, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Edwards, Eggleston, Ela, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, French, Garfield, Goss, Gove, Gravely, Griswold, Halsey, Hamilton, Harding, Haughey, Heaton, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Marvin, Maynard, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcomb, Newsham, Norris, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pierce, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Price, Prince, Raum, Robertson, Roots, Sawyer, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Shellabarger, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Stewart, Stokes, Stover, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, and the Speaker—150.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Baker, Barnum, Beck, Bingham, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Fox, Getz, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Hawkins, Hotchkiss, Humphrey, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott Marshall, McCormick, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Polsley, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Sitgreaves, Stone, Taber, Tift, Van Auken, Van Trump, Woodward, and Young—42.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Anderson, Barnes, Roderick R. Butler, Reader W. Clarke, Cornell, Dickey, Dixon, Eldridge, Glossbrenner, Hill, Holman, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Kitchen, Mallory, McCarthy, McCullough, Morrissey, Pettis, Pomeroy, Schenck, Stevens, Sypher, Lawrence S. Trimble, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Wood, and Woodbridge—31.

So (two-thirds having voted in favor thereof) the joint resolution was passed.

In the Senate, on January 28th, the joint resolution of the Senate, proposing an amendment to the Constitution, was considered in Committee of the Whole. The question was on the amendment reported by the Committee on the Judiciary.

Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, said: "This amendment is a declaration to make all men, without regard to race or color, equal before the law. The arguments in favor of it are so numerous, so convincing, that they carry conviction to every mind. The proposition itself has been recognized by the good men of this nation; and it is important, as the new administration enters upon the charge of the affairs of this country, that it should start on this high and noble principle that all men are free and equal, that they are really equal before the law. We cannot stop short of this.

"It must be done. It is the only measure that will really abolish slavery. It is the only guarantee against peon laws and against oppression. It is that guarantee which was put in the Constitution of the United States originally, the guarantee that each man shall have a right to protect his own liberty. It repudiates that arrogant, self-righteous assumption, that one man can be charged with the liberties and destinies of another. You may put this in the form of legislative enactment; you may empower Congress to legislate; you may empower the States to legislate, and they will agitate the question. Let it be made the immutable law of the land; let it be fixed; and then we shall have peace. Until then there is no peace. I cannot add to the many eloquent speeches that have been made on this great question in this House."

The presiding officer (Mr. Ferry in the chair): "The question is on the amendment reported by the Committee on the Judiciary, to strike out:

No State shall deny or abridge the right of its citizens to vote and hold office on account of race, color, or previous condition.

"And in lieu thereof to insert:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of service."

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "I move to amend the resolution by adding:

And this and all future proposed amendments to

the Constitution, whether proposed by the Congress or a convention called by Congress on the application of the Legislatures of two-thirds of the several States, instead of being submitted to the Legislatures or to conventions of the several States, shall be submitted to the vote of the people of each State; and, if a majority of the people entitled to vote on the proposed amendment in three-fourths of the several States shall vote in favor of the proposed amendment, it shall, to all intents and purposes, be a part of the Constitution.

"Mr. President, the party in power professes to be very democratic. I believe it makes louder pretensions to democracy than the Democratic party ever did or now do. But what is its practice? The honorable Senator from Nevada, who has charge of this measure, wants to submit his proposed constitutional amendment to Legislatures already elected. He wants to attach the amendment to the Constitution by the first heat. How do he and his friends carry out their professions of democracy? The Legislatures already chosen are to act upon this amendment, although they were elected by the people in advance of it and without regard to it. Now, my proposition is, that neither the Legislatures already chosen, nor those which may hereafter be chosen, nor any convention chosen in the several States, shall be called upon to act on the ratification of this proposed amendment to the Constitution, but that that question shall be submitted directly to the people of the various States.

"Now, sir, what necessity is there for having a proposition to amend the Constitution submitted either to a Legislature or a convention, in a State, called for the purpose of acting on the proposition? They cannot add to the proposition; they cannot subtract from it; they cannot modify it. The proposition is to be voted for or against as a totality, as an entirety, as a matter beyond the control of the body to which it is submitted either for acceptance or rejection."

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "Mr. President, the Senator from Kentucky tells us that in proposing this amendment we are seeking to perpetuate our power. A word to the Senator on that point. He knows and I know that this whole struggle in this country to give equal rights and equal privileges to all citizens of the United States has been an unpopular one; that we have been forced to struggle against passions and prejudices engendered by generations of wrong and oppression; that we have been compelled to struggle against great interests and powerful political organizations. I say to the Senator that the struggle of the last eight years to give freedom to four and a half millions of men who were held in slavery, to make them citizens of the United States, to clothe them with the right of suffrage, to give them the privilege to be voted for, to make them in all respects equal to the white citizens of the United States, has cost the party with which I act a quarter of a million of votes. There is not to-day a square mile in the United States where the advocacy of the equal rights and privileges of those colored men has not been in the past and is not now unpopular. Yes, sir, the cause of the poor, wronged, oppressed negroes has been, now is, and for some years will continue to be, an unpopular cause. The public man or the political party that honestly and zealously espouses their cause will continue to be misunderstood, misrepresented, and maligned. In the past the true and tried friend of the black man has been made to feel the hatred and power of the enemies of the black race. It is too much so now, and I fear it will be so in some portions of the country for years to come."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "The question which I wish to discuss just now is that of the proper submission of this amendment to the people or to the States. I am not able to concur in all of the proposition of the Senator from Kentucky. One of the features of his proposition is, that the amendment may be submitted to the people of the States to be voted upon in the popular way by the people. I am not aware of any provision of the Constitution of the United States authorizing the ratification of an amendment in that mode. So far as the future is concerned, I have no doubt that we may so amend the Constitution. The question which I wish to speak of now is, how shall this amendment be considered by the people? It is radical and important, and it should be decided in the country according to the will and the pleasure of the people. How can that be done? In the absence of a constitutional provision authorizing it, I cannot see how it can be submitted to a popular vote in the States.

"There are only two modes of ratification: one is by the Legislatures of the States, and the other by conventions called in the States; and it seems to be competent for Congress to decide upon the mode of ratification as between these two modes. The Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Dixon) has proposed a submission to conventions in the States, as I understand it. That is the nearest possible approach that we can now make to the people with this amendment. I wish we could provide, but I am not clear that it is practicable, that this amendment shall not be considered by any Legislature already selected. If it could be submitted to Legislatures, the members of which are hereafter to be elected, that would answer every purpose, as I think, desired by the Senator from Connecticut; but I suppose it is not practicable or possible for Congress to say to the States what particular Legislature shall consider the amendment. I am not sure upon that question. I wish I could feel sure that we might say that the Legislatures now elected shall not consider it. I want, in some mode or other, the people to pass upon this measure. If they decide that suffrage in this country shall be without limit, then, of course, it becomes their voice; it be-

comes right so far as Government is concerned: but, until that is done, no submission will be altogether satisfactory. So that I know of no mode by which we can secure the voice and judgment of the people except that suggested by the Senator from Connecticut; and what I wish to say now to the Senate is in favor of that proposition.

"I submit to honorable Senators on all sides that none of us to-day politically stand in a position to deny this proposition. It is proposed by the Senator from Connecticut that the people, in the selection of delegates to the State Convention, shall have a voice upon this matter. It is their matter. It is ours no further than we constitute a part of the body of the people. The Senator from Connecticut proposes that the people shall speak upon the great question of changing the Constitution of the United States in regard to the exercise of political power. Is that unreasonable? Is it not right? Did not this Government come from the people through State conventions? Is it not right that when we change it we shall come as near to the people as is possible?

"Who says that a member of a Legislature elected last summer or fall ought to act upon a question that was not considered by the people when they elected him? Did I understand some Senator to say that this question was considered in the election? I think some Senator interrupted the distinguished Senator from Kentucky and called his attention to the election of last fall. I call your attention to the election of last fall, honorable Senators, and I ask you now to stand upon the pledge of honor that your party made to the people in the election last fall.

"The position of the Democratic party last summer, I presume, is not a question of doubt or of uncertainty. That the Democratic party, in casting its vote for Seymour and Blair, did not vote for negro suffrage, is plain enough. That the Republican party last fall, in voting for Grant and Colfax, cast a vote against universal suffrage is as plain. You took the question away from the people. You said that they need not consider it. You said that they should not consider it last summer; and now I understand it to be proposed to submit it to Legislatures that are not again responsible to the people, but that were elected before this question is submitted. The second section of the Chicago platform, not yet a year old, declared the doctrine of the Republican party, and I simply ask honorable Senators now to make the pledged and plighted faith of their party to the country good and true, and not in the face of the nation and humanity to give it the lie:

> The guarantee by Congress of equal suffrage to all loyal men at the South was demanded by every consideration of public safety, of gratitude, and of justice, and must be maintained.

"That is plain enough. In that you say that the guarantee of suffrage to all the loyal men in the South was called for by high considerations and must be maintained. Your party took plain ground upon that question; but in the Northern States, in the State that I have the honor to represent in this body, what position did you take? You go on to say:

> While the question of suffrage in all the loyal States properly belongs to the people of those States.

"Not yet a year old is this political faith, declared by the grand council of your party, upon which Grant and Colfax stood before the people; and now you propose, without giving the people a voice or a hearing upon the question, to say that the right to control suffrage in the Northern States does not belong to the people of those States.

"I ask honorable Senators, upon this question of submission for ratification, what that plighted faith of a great party to the people did mean? Was it an evasion? If so, your party is unworthy of a nation's support. Was it a trick and a fraud? Then you are not only unworthy of a nation's support, but worthy only of the condemnation of virtuous manhood everywhere and in all ages. To the people you submitted the question last fall, did you? You interrupt the Senator from Kentucky and say that the election last fall meant something! If so, what did it mean? You said to the party when they cast ballots for Grant and Colfax: 'Your ballot, if it means any thing on this subject, means just two propositions: first, that in the Southern States Congress shall maintain equal suffrage to loyal men; but in the other States, in the Northern States, the right to control suffrage belongs to the people of those States.' Did it belong to them? Then give them a voice upon it and make this declaration of your party true, and not stand before the nation and before the world as declaring a falsehood in a national platform."

Mr. Davis: "With permission, I will withdraw the amendment which I proposed."

The President *pro tempore:* "The amendment is withdrawn."

Mr. Dixon, of Connecticut, said: "What is the question? It is not merely a question of suffrage. That of itself is a subject of vast importance, and is now agitating the public mind of this country to a very great extent. The question whether the female sex should be permitted to participate in the privilege of suffrage, whether other restrictions should be removed, the question of age, the question of property, a multitude of questions are or may be raised which are vastly important and interesting in connection with the right of suffrage. But, sir, we are not now dealing merely with the qualification of voters. The question is not what shall be the qualifications of the voter, but who shall create, establish, and prescribe those qualifications; not who shall be the voter, but who shall make the voter.

"In considering that question, we ought to

remember that it is utterly impossible that any State should be an independent republic which does not entirely control its own laws with regard to the right of suffrage. Nor does it make the slightest difference with regard to this that any abdication or abnegation of its power is voluntary. It may be said that it is proposed that the States shall voluntarily relinquish their power to control the subject of suffrage within their respective limits. Sir, suppose a State should voluntarily assume upon itself a foreign yoke, or declare by a majority of its own people, or even by a unanimous vote, that it would prefer a monarchy, would the fact of its being voluntary at all affect the question whether it was still an independent republic?

"Now, sir, it may be that the people of this country in their present condition of mind are ready to relinquish the power in the States of regulating their own laws with regard to suffrage; and if it should so prove, and the result should show that your own State (Ohio) and my State (Connecticut), having once or twice voted against extending the right of suffrage to the negro race, should now consent that a central power should regulate that question, and should do this voluntarily and freely, nevertheless they would by that action lose their character as republican governments. And, sir, that is the reason why it was that in the formation of the Constitution of the United States there was an entire neglect to interfere in the slightest degree with the question of suffrage in the several States. Look through the Constitution as it was formed, and you find no allusion whatever to the question of suffrage, except by reference to existing laws and qualifications in the then existing States.

"It was the principle that an independent republic must necessarily control the question of suffrage in its own elections. This lies at the very foundation of all government, and it is therefore wholly impossible for any State to be an independent republic or an independent government in which the right of suffrage is controlled by an external power, whether by the consent of that State or against its consent. For that reason, when it is proposed to amend the Constitution of the United States in this respect, it is very questionable whether it is not an amendment which subverts the whole foundation and principle of the Government. Suppose an amendment were offered here to-day proposing that this Government, instead of being a republic, should be a monarchy; suppose it were proposed to strike out the clause of the Constitution guaranteeing a republican form of government to each State, and instead of that to insert a guarantee of a monarchy to each State. I do not know that this amendment would not be within the power of Congress to propose. The Constitution provides that Congress may propose such amendments as in its own judgment it shall think best and proper. If a proposition of that kind were made, it is very true it might be objected, 'This goes to the foundation of your Government; this is not amendment; it is revolution, it is subversion.' Can that not be said in this instance? Is the proposed amendment any more a fair carrying out of the intention of the Constitution when it provides for its own amendment than it would be if it proposed directly to subvert the form of government, if it be true that the right of exercising and controlling the power of suffrage must necessarily exist in a State or it ceases to be a republic?"

Mr. Ferry: "I move to amend the recital in the proposed amendment by striking out the words 'the Legislatures of' and inserting the words 'conventions in,' and also where the word 'Legislatures' occurs in the second place to insert the word 'conventions' in lieu of it. I find that the Constitution merely refers to 'conventions.'"

The President *pro tempore:* "The amendment will be read."

That the following article be proposed to conventions in the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said conventions, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, etc.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "I will state what I understand to be the principle of the Constitution in relation to amendment, and I ask the attention of the honorable Senator from Kansas for one moment to the proposition. The great leading idea of the amendment which he proposes is, that no citizen of the United States should have any right whatever that every other citizen is not entitled to share. Do I understand the honorable gentleman's idea?"

Mr. Pomeroy: "My idea is that civil and political rights belong to all citizens alike; I do not mean the rights of private property."

Mr. Davis: "We understand each other. Now, I lay down the proposition with more distinctness, with more truth and philosophy than the honorable Senator's proposition, that each State in the Union is entitled under our Constitution to all the rights and privileges that any or every other State is entitled to. Here is the State of Virginia, with all her illustrious history and with all of her Revolutionary reminiscences, excluded by force and violence from her just representation in the Senate of the United States. Here is the State of Mississippi in the same predicament. Here is the State of Texas in a like predicament. Here is the State of Georgia in a sort of hybrid condition, neither flesh nor fowl, neither fish nor bird, fully represented, I believe, in the other branch of Congress, and without a voice in this assembly of the conscript fathers of the nation; and in this condition of things the Senate of the United States undertakes the burlesque of gravely amending the Constitution of the United States!

"Sir, I say it is not competent for the Senate of the United States to act, in this state of its

organization, upon a proposed amendment to the Constitution. It is a mockery. If there was communication between the other world and this, or with the ashes of the illustrious dead who have been so long since borne to their graves, the enormity of such a proposition would be enough to reanimate their ashes and to make their illustrious persons turn over in their tombs. Is the extravagance of this day and generation of ours to have no bounds? I ask you, Mr. President (Mr. Frelinghuysen in the chair), an advocate of all these anomalous and revolutionary movements, by what authority can the Senate of the United States proceed to propose amendments to the Constitution, excluding the State of Georgia from her representation in the Senate? I put it stronger than that: what right has this Senate or this Congress to exclude the other three States that I have named from their representation in the two Houses of Congress, and to undertake the most important function of Government in the United States; and that is, to alter the fundamental law in their absence?

"Sir, your amendments to the Constitution are all void; they are of no effect. They were proposed by a mutilated Congress; they were proposed by a mutilated House of Representatives and Senate. That mutilation at one time was voluntary, but now, since it has been healed by the submission and obedience of the insurgents to the Constitution and laws of the United States, you have proceeded to continue it, to enlarge it, to protect it indefinitely; and with all this violence done by you to the Constitution, and to the rights of the people and the sovereign States of the United States to take part in this important business of amending the Constitution, you still continue the mockery of your amendments. How ridiculous! How absurd!"

On February 3d, the Senate, on motion of Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, proceeded to the consideration of the House resolution above-mentioned for an amendment of the Constitution, as in Committee of the Whole. He moved to amend the resolution by striking out the whole of section one, and inserting, in lieu thereof, the following:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or any State, for any reason not equally applicable to all citizens.

A debate subsequently ensued, during which Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, yesterday my colleague (Mr. Hendricks) addressed the Senate at some length, and was followed in the same strain of remark by the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Dixon), to show that the Republican party was committed by the platform adopted at Chicago from taking any action upon this subject. Very much stress was placed upon it by my colleague, as well as the Senator from Connecticut, who, I believe, repeated his argument this afternoon in several forms. It is insisted that the Republican party committed itself to the doctrine that, so far as suffrage in the loyal States was concerned, it should be left entirely to the States. That resolution, perhaps, went no further, and was intended to go no further, than to define the constitutional position of the party—that, as the Constitution now is, the regulation of suffrage belongs to the several States; but it certainly was not intended to commit the party to the doctrine that it would not at any time thereafter propose to change the Constitution upon that subject.

"Now, Mr. President, I propose to speak for a few minutes in regard to the language of this amendment. I will vote for the amendment as it came from the House of Representatives, or I will vote for the clause as reported by the Judiciary Committee in the Senate if I can get no better form; but I desire to say that it comes far short of what should now be the action of Congress on this subject, in my opinion. The resolution as it came from the House and the amendment reported by the Committee on the Judiciary are in substance the same, differing somewhat in phraseology. The amendment of our committee is:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"It will be observed that this language admits or recognizes that the whole power over the question of suffrage is vested in the several States, except as it shall be limited by this amendment. It tacitly concedes that the States may disfranchise the colored people or any other class of people for other reasons save and except those mentioned in the amendment. They cannot be disfranchised by reason of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. In other words, it leaves all the existing irregularities and incongruities in suffrage. I have entertained the idea that, when we came to amend the Constitution upon this subject, we ought to make suffrage uniform throughout the United States; that the same class of men should be allowed in every State to vote for President and Vice-President, and members of Congress, and members of the State Legislatures, that elect Senators; that the same class of men excluded in one State ought to be excluded in every other State. In other words, I think suffrage ought to be uniform.

"In the State of Indiana a man of foreign birth, who has been in the United States one year and in the State of Indiana six months, and who has declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States, is allowed to vote for President, Vice-President, members of Congress, and State officers. Just over the line, in the State of Ohio, the same man would not be allowed to vote unless he had been in the country five years and had become fully naturalized. Here is a class of men taking part in the government of the country in one

State who are excluded in the next State. I am not discussing the propriety or impropriety of these regulations, but I am speaking of their inconsistencies. In the State of Massachusetts, for instance, they have an educational test; in the State of Rhode Island, if I am correctly informed, there is a property qualification. The population of that State is so numerous that the voting ratio must be reduced by requiring a property qualification. In some States a residence of six months is required; in other States a residence of twelve months is required, and perhaps there may be some other conditions of suffrage prescribed. In the State of New York I believe that colored men are allowed to vote if they are worth $250 in real estate.

"Now, sir, when we come to amend the Constitution of the United States on this subject, would it not be proper to make suffrage uniform? And it is as easy to amend it in the one way, I believe, as it is in the other. This amendment leaves the whole power in the States just as it exists now, except that colored men shall not be disfranchised for the three reasons of race, color, or previous condition of slavery. They may be disfranchised for want of education or for want of intelligence. The States of Louisiana and Georgia may establish regulations upon the subject of suffrage that will cut out forty-nine out of every fifty colored men in those States from voting, and what may be done in one of these States may perhaps be done in others. They may, perhaps, require property or educational tests, and that would cut off the great majority of the colored men from voting in those States, and thus this amendment would be practically defeated, in all those States where the great body of the colored people live. Sir, if the power should pass into the hands of the rebel population of those States—perhaps I should beg pardon now, I should rather call it the Conservative or Democratic population—if they could not debar the colored people of the right of suffrage in any other way, they would do it by an educational or a property qualification.

"Mr. President, I am not sure, on looking further at this amendment, but that the language itself can be dodged without establishing either a property qualification or an educational test. Take the State of Kentucky, Maryland, or any of these States choosing to do so; may they not dodge it? It says the right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by any State or by the United States 'on account of'—'by reason of' is the language of the amendment of the House—'race, color, or previous condition of servitude.' I should suppose that the words 'race or color' would be sufficient. I am somewhat averse to putting the word 'color' into the Constitution. I am somewhat averse to making any reference to slavery in the Constitution.

"Now, Mr. President, why is it necessary to insert these words, 'or previous condition of servitude' or 'slavery?' It says they shall not be debarred of the right of suffrage on account of race or color or previous condition of servitude. It is because some of these States might say, 'We will debar these men from voting, not on account of their race, not on account of their color, but because they have once been slaves.' Suppose that one of these States should say, 'We will debar these men from voting, not by reason of color or race or previous condition of slavery, but because they are deficient in natural intelligence, incapable of improvement, and incompetent to take a part in the administration of the Government.' If they put it upon that reason, it might be perhaps a strained construction amendment; but we ought not now to be providing an amendment that is susceptible of a double construction. They say they do not disfranchise these men on account of their color, race, or having been slaves, but because they are naturally inferior in point of intellect, and unqualified to take part in the administration of the Government. I am not sure but that in that way the whole provision may be dodged. That is just the position taken by the great body of the Southern people. If you will ask them their opinion of the colored race, they will tell you that they are an inferior race, and hardly human beings, and disqualified from taking part in the administration of the Government; and if they put that in their constitutions, and give that as a reason, it becomes a question whether they have not dodged the whole provision. We would deny the truth or soundness of their reason; but they would insist on it, and claim that it is not provided against in the amendment.

"Now, Mr. President, I would prefer an affirmative amendment, an amendment declaring who shall have the right to vote, not a negation but an affirmation, and one that defines the right of suffrage, and does not leave it open for the construction of different States; and I think that, if we are not to have an affirmative definition of suffrage, the amendment offered by the Senator from Michigan (Mr. Howard) is perhaps as good a one as has been presented, and certainly better than the one that came here from the House; and I will ask the Secretary to read it."

The Chief Clerk: "The amendment of Mr. Howard proposes to strike out section one of the House article, and insert:

Citizens of the United States of African descent shall have the same right to vote and hold office as other citizens."

Mr. Morton: "That pertains simply to citizens of African descent. This amendment refers also only to citizens of African descent; but that gives them an affirmative right, says they shall have the same right to vote that other citizens have. It therefore cuts off every possible construction of the amendment as it

came from the House of Representatives, or the one offered by the committee, by which they could be debarred from the right of suffrage. It places these men precisely upon the same ground with all others; but it still leaves the States the power of establishing an educational or property test by which they would cut off the great mass of colored men. I think this is the best of the three, but that it would be still better to adopt an amendment declaring who shall have the right to vote, making it uniform throughout the United States, and leaving no question of construction for the States."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "Mr. President, I send to the chair an amendment which I shall propose to the report of the Committee on the Judiciary in due time."

The Chief Clerk: "The amendment now submitted proposes to strike out all after the words 'article fifteen' and insert:

Congress shall have power to abolish or modify any restrictions upon the right to vote or hold office prescribed by the constitution or laws of any State."

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, said: "I am now brought directly to the proposed amendment of the Constitution. Of course, the question stares us in the face, why amend what is already sufficient? Why erect a supernumerary column?

"So far as I know, two reasons are assigned. The first is that the power of Congress is doubtful. It is natural that those who do not sympathize strongly with the equal rights of all should doubt. Men ordinarily find in the Constitution what is in themselves, so that the Constitution in its meaning is little more than a reflection of their own inner nature. As I am unable to find any ground of doubt, in substance or even in shadow, I shrink from a proposition which assumes that there is a doubt. To my mind, the power is too clear for question. As well question the obligation of Congress to guarantee a republican form of government; or the abolition of slavery; or the prohibition upon the States to interfere with the rights and privileges of citizenship, each of which is beyond question.

"Another reason, assigned for a constitutional amendment is, its permanent character in comparison with an act of Congress which may be repealed. On this head I have no anxiety. Let this beneficent prohibition once find a place in our statute-book, and it will be as lasting as the national Constitution itself, to which it will be only a legitimate corollary. In harmony with the Declaration of Independence and in harmony with the national Constitution, it will become of equal significance, and no profane hand will touch its sacred text. It will never be repealed. The elective franchise once recognized, can never be denied; once conferred, can never be resumed. The rule of equal rights once applied by Congress under the national Constitution will be a permanent institution as long as the republic endures; for it will be a vital part of that republican government to which the nation is pledged.

"Dismissing the reasons for the amendment, I turn to those which make us hesitate to present it for ratification. There are two. The amendment admits that, under the national Constitution, as it is, with its recent additions, a caste and an oligarchy of the skin may be set up by a State without any check from Congress; that these ignoble forms of inequality are consistent with republican government; and that the right to vote is not an existing privilege and immunity of citizenship. All this is plainly admitted by the proposed amendment, thus despoiling Congress of beneficent powers and emasculating the national Constitution itself. It is only with infinite reluctance that I can consent to any such admission, which, in the endeavor to satisfy ungenerous scruples, weakens all those texts, which are so important for human rights.

"The hesitation to present the amendment is increased, when we consider the difficulties in the way of its ratification. I am no arithmetician; but I understand that nobody has yet been able to enumerate the States whose votes can be counted on to assure its ratification within any reasonable time. Meanwhile, this great question, which cannot brook delay —which, for the sake of peace and to complete reconstruction, should be settled at once—is handed over to prolonged controversy in the States. I need not depict the evils which must ensue. A State will become for the time a political caldron, into which will be dropped all the poisoned ingredients of prejudice and hate, while a powerful political party, chanting like the witches of Macbeth—

'Double, double, toil and trouble,
Fire, burn; and caldron, bubble'—

will use this very amendment as the pudding-stick with which to stir the bubbling mass. Such a controversy should be avoided, if possible; nor should an agitation, so unwelcome and so sterile, be needlessly invited. 'Let us have peace.'

"Of course, if there were no other way of accomplishing the great result, the amendment should be presented, even with all its delays, uncertainties, and provocations to local strife. But happily all these are unnecessary. The same thing may be accomplished by act of Congress without any delay, without any uncertainty, and without any provocation to local strife. The same vote of two-thirds, required for the presentation of the amendment, will pass the act over the veto of the President. Once adopted, it will go into instant operation, without waiting for the uncertain concurrence of State Legislatures, and without provoking local strife so wearisome to the country. The States will not be turned into political caldrons, and the Democratic party will have no pudding-stick with which to stir the bubbling mass.

"I do not depart from the proprieties of this

occasion when I show how completely the course I now propose harmonizes with the requirements of the political party to which I belong. Believing most sincerely that the Republican party, in its objects, is identical with country and with mankind, so that in sustaining it I sustain these comprehensive charities, I cannot willingly see this agency lose the opportunity of confirming its supremacy. You need votes in Connecticut, do you not? There are three thousand fellow-citizens in that State ready at the call of Congress to take their place at the ballot-box. You need them also in Pennsylvania, do you not? There are at least fifteen thousand in that great State waiting for your summons. Wherever you most need them, there they are; and be assured they will all vote for those who stand by them in the assertion of equal rights. But in standing by them you stand by all which is most dear in the republic.

"Pardon me; but if you are not moved by considerations of justice under the Constitution, then I appeal to that humbler motive which is found in the desire for success. Do this, and you will assure the triumph of all that you can most desire. Party, country, mankind, will be elevated, while the equal rights of all will be fixed on a foundation not less enduring than the Rock of Ages."

Mr. Vickers, of Maryland, said: "Mr. President, I will advert to one or two of the positions assumed by the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Sumner) in his speech to-day. I understood him to contend that, from the clause of the Constitution which he read, power was given to Congress to regulate elections in the States. If I am mistaken, he will correct me. I do not so read the Constitution. The second section of the first article provides that:

> The House of Representatives shall be composed of members chosen every second year by the people of the several States; and the electors in each State shall have the qualifications requisite for electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislature.

"That section recognizes the absolute right of the States to regulate the qualifications of electors for Representatives, because the States have the exclusive right to regulate the qualifications of electors for members of their Legislatures, and the same qualifications which the States prescribe for the exercise of the right of suffrage for members of the most numerous branch of the Legislature are to be the qualifications of electors for Representatives to the Congress of the United States. There is no power given to Congress to regulate those qualifications; but it belongs exclusively to the States."

Mr. Sumner: "If my friend will allow me, I desire to ask him a question just there, which I have no doubt he will answer very easily; but I should like to have his answer, and should value it very much indeed. I ask the Senator from Maryland whether in his opinion color can be a qualification of a voter? I should like an answer to that specific question, can color be a qualification of a voter?"

Mr. Vickers: "Well, sir, if the power is given exclusively to the States, if the States have the absolute and uncontrollable power to regulate the qualification of voters, it is not for me to say whether their regulations shall have reference simply to color, or to a property qualification which they have in Massachusetts, or to intelligence, or to any thing else. The States may prescribe, I suppose, that an individual shall be able to read the Constitution of the country. That, I presume, would be a qualification which the States would have the right to impose. It is impossible for me to limit the extent of the power of the States in regard to this subject, because it is one of their reserved powers, and is unlimited. The General Government has no right to regulate this question of suffrage."

Mr. Sumner: "Then, to come back to my original question, I understand that the learned Senator does say that color may be a qualification for a voter. On that point I should like to have his answer distinctly, because it is the pivot or one of the pivots of this question. I understand him to say that color may be. Now, I do not wish to intrude upon his speech, but I should like to ask him whether he supposes a State Legislature could select among the qualifications the color of the hair or the color of the eye? Would the Senator say that that could be a qualification under the Constitution of the United States? I put to him that question; I should like an answer to that."

Mr. Vickers: "Well, sir, that, of course, is an extreme case."

Mr. Sumner: "Not at all. It is the very case before the Senate."

Mr. Vickers: "It is not for me to say what it would be expedient for a State Legislature to do. It is not always expedient to exercise the full extent of the power which is conferred upon legislative bodies. But I would ask the Senator from Massachusetts if the color of the hair, added to the disqualification of the voter intellectually, is not a power in the Legislature? I would ask the honorable Senator if public virtue and public intelligence are not the very foundations of our republic? Why, sir, how can we exist as a republic without intelligence and public virtue?"

Mr. Sumner: "Yes, but the point to which I wish to call the attention of my friend is not whether public intelligence and public virtue are essential to a republic, for there we are agreed; not whether they may not be recognized as qualifications, but the point is whether any inherent quality under Providence planted in the human form by God can be made by any vote of man a qualification for an elector? That is the practical question which I put to the Senator."

Mr. Vickers: "Well, sir, as I stated to-day, there are five races of men. These are the red man, the yellow man, the white man, the

black man, and the brown man. Now, I ask if it is not competent for a Legislature to disfranchise or to withhold the elective franchise from any one of these races? Is not color the distinctive mark of the race? And because here is a distinct race, an inferior race, and because this race has color, the race is disqualified. It is not altogether on account of the color of the skin. That is only one of the indications and marks by which you distinguish the race. Have we not a right to withhold the elective franchise from the Chinese, who are of a different color from us and from the negro? Would the Senator say that, because the Chinese have a certain complexion, therefore we have no right to disfranchise them because of that complexion? If they are a different race, if they are pagans, according to the speech of the Senator from Oregon (Mr. Williams), have we not a right to disqualify them and withhold from them the elective franchise?"

Mr. Sumner: "That is not the question. I do not say that they may not be disqualified for their paganism. That is another question. That is a question of character. A man may cease to be a pagan; he may change; he may become a Christian; but a man cannot cease to be a colored man if he is so made by Providence. The Ethiopian cannot change his skin. The point that I put to the Senator, and on which I want his frank, explicit answer, is, whether the mere color of the skin, or the color of the hair, or the color of the eyes, can be made, under the Constitution, a qualification for a voter? That is the point."

Mr. Vickers: "If the color of the skin, the color of the hair, or the color of the eye, distinguishes one race from another, then I say the color of the skin, of the hair, or of the eye, can make the disqualification, and the Legislature has a right to make it. It matters not whether it be of the skin, the hair, or the eye; if it be the distinguishing mark of that race, and distinguishes it from our race, then we have a right to do it. Why, sir, the Senator from Nevada (Mr. Stewart), in his speech here in 1865, said that this was a white man's Government; that we were of a different race; and the honorable Senator from Ohio, now occupying the chair, said that two races, being different, could not exist prosperously and happily together, and that it would be better that this black race should be sent to the tropics, where he understood they would thrive and develop all their faculties, and that in the same region a white man would depreciate. It matters not whether it be the color of the hair, or of the eye, or of the skin, if that distinguishes one race from another."

Mr. Sumner: "I see my honorable friend does not flinch from the conclusion."

Mr. Vickers: "But, sir, I was going to say that the qualifications which the Constitution speaks of are the qualifications of voters for Representatives to Congress, for they are to have the same qualifications that voters for members of the Legislature are to possess. Then, to show that this is the true meaning of the Constitution, let me refer to the clause as to presidential electors:

> The Congress may determine the time of choosing the electors, and the day on which they shall give their votes, which day shall be the same throughout the United States.

"That is all the power which Congress has in reference to the subject. They may determine the time for the choosing of the electors, and the day on which they shall cast their ballots; and when that is exercised the power of Congress over the subject is exhausted. But in the second section of the second article of the Constitution it is provided that—

> Each State shall appoint, in such manner as the Legislature thereof may direct, a number of electors, equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress.

"The State Legislature may appoint the electors to vote for President and Vice-President of the United States. They may elect them or may direct them to be elected by the people of the State if they see fit. The whole power is in the Legislature, and it was designed to be placed there. They are the best judges of the mode and manner in which the elections should be held, and they are the best judges of the qualifications of the voters.

"Mr. President, I had never heard, until the honorable Senator from Massachusetts asserted it to-day, that when human rights and the Constitution came into conflict, the Constitution was to yield to human rights. That is the broad doctrine which he laid down. Why, sir, if that doctrine is to prevail, how many differences of opinion are there in reference to human rights? We should have no Constitution; it would be undefined, and there would be nothing tangible in reference to the fundamental law. But if the doctrine of the Senator from Massachusetts prevails, if human rights are to override the Constitution of the country, then does not the doctrine of human rights asserted by the Senator apply as well to females as to males? The Senator from Kansas would say it did; and I ask if human rights are not as applicable to woman as to man? And if the doctrine of human rights is to be the rule by which the Constitution is to be construed, then it must be so construed as to admit female suffrage; and yet I suppose the Senator from Massachusetts would not support a measure of this kind. It is not unusual for Senators to lay down a general principle and argue upon that principle, and then in the practical application of it to come short of its results. This general doctrine comprehends woman as well as man, and shall our sympathies be limited to the latter? Shall our affections go out only for the black race? Shall we not rather include the women and give them the same privileges and rights which

it is attempted to confer upon the negro? It has been beautifully said that 'we go to man for philosophy and to woman for consolation;' and, although I am no advocate for woman suffrage, I believe that, if the Congress of the United States had been composed exclusively of women, we should have had no civil war. We might have had a war of words, but that would have been all.

"The Senator from Massachusetts seems to think that, if he can accomplish this result and extend the right of suffrage to the negro, we shall have peace. Sir, he may call it peace, but such a peace will be at the price of constitutional liberty, at the price of the destruction of the landmarks of your Constitution. What sort of peace is that which is achieved by aggression upon and destruction of the very Constitution under which we live? It is but the beginning of strife. The Senator thinks it would produce peace, but I say it would not produce peace. He assimilates the conduct of the Democratic party, in case this question is not settled in the way he proposes, to the witches in Macbeth. But, is it not known to the Senator that he who sought the bubbling caldron was destroyed? And if this bubbling of the political caldron is to be assimilated to that described in Shakespeare, I should think the honorable Senator would be willing to see it come to pass, because it would be but the forerunner of the destruction of that party which he denominates the advocates of slavery.

"I could not but contrast in my own mind the sentiments and constitutional positions assumed by the Senator from Massachusetts today with the principles and the doctrines of constitutional law which were promulgated by his illustrious predecessor who had secured to himself the appellation of the expounder and defender of the Constitution. There is not a word in any thing he ever wrote, in his orations or in his arguments, which can sustain the views of the honorable Senator from Massachusetts, the latitudinarian views which he expressed to-day upon the subject of the construction of the Constitution of the United States. Nor did I see any thing in the authorities which were produced by that Senator from Hamilton and Madison. What he read from these great men related to the enumeration of inhabitants of the country in reference to fixing the proportion of Representatives, and had nothing to do with suffrage.

"If we introduce these votes which are to be cast, not with an intelligent understanding of the purpose and object for which they are placed in the ballot-box, if we are to receive them from a class of persons who are uneducated, illiterate, who cannot read your Constitution, who know nothing about its checks and its balances, about its relations to the State governments, it is an injury, a positive injury, to those who have the right to vote. Why is it that we punish illegal voting severely? It is because illegal voting is a fraud upon legal voters; it impairs and weakens the weight and force of the legal votes which are cast; and if we introduce these unmeaning votes, which are not cast with an intelligent reference to the purposes and objects for which the right of suffrage is given, shall we not thus weaken and impair the rights which those have who are entitled to vote?"

Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, said: "Mr. President, I have proposed for submission an amendment to this resolution. It is very brief, and relates to the manner of submitting this proposition of amendment to the Legislatures of the States, viz.:

That the foregoing amendment shall be submitted for ratification to the Legislatures of the several States, the most numerous branches of which shall be chosen next after the passage of this resolution.

"My amendment proposes to submit the constitutional amendment covered by this joint resolution for ratification to the Legislatures of the several States, the most numerous branches of which shall be chosen next after the adoption of this resolution by Congress, and to confine its consideration to those Legislatures of the respective States who shall be so elected immediately or next after we adopt the resolution, and in view of it, and who shall assemble in pursuance of their several local constitutions for a performance of their general duties, among others this duty of passing upon amendments to the Constitution which Congress may submit to them.

"Now, sir, what are the facts in regard to the last amendment which was submitted by Congress to the several States? Two or more States proceeded by formal act of their Legislatures to ratify the amendment, and afterward, at succeeding sessions, proceeded to withdraw that ratification, to withdraw the assent which they, in the first instance, had given. In the case of one, and perhaps more—I recollect distinctly in the case of one State—the constitutional amendment was rejected by the Legislature, and at the next session, opinion having changed in that State, the Legislature proceeded to ratify it. You see what confusion may arise in the action of the States upon an amendment submitted by Congress, in case we do not decide, when we submit such amendment, what authority shall act upon it.

"I am not in favor of submitting this amendment, or any other amendment, under ordinary circumstances, to conventions in the several States, not so much for the reasons which were stated by the Senator from Connecticut (Mr. Ferry) as because of the inconvenience and expense which are entailed upon the people of the States by that mode. That is a reason which has always operated upon Congress since the Government was founded, along with other considerations, to prevent the submission of any amendment to conventions of the people in the several States—a form of submission which it is competent for Congress to adopt.

I take it for granted that the practice of the Government always will be, unless under very extraordinary circumstances, to submit amendments to the action of the Legislatures of the several States.

"But, sir, it will be wise and becoming also for Congress to adopt some rule with regard to the submitting of amendments to the Legislatures; and what better rule can be adopted by it than to submit them to the Legislatures of the several States who shall be chosen next after the amendment is submitted, the legislators who are chosen when the people understand that the amendment is to be submitted to them, and who act in selecting those legislators in full view of that consideration? It is true that in most, if not all of the States, one branch of the Legislature has a more permanent tenure of office than the other.

"We know it is now disputed whether the fourteenth constitutional amendment, as it is called, has been adopted or not by the Legislatures of New Jersey, Oregon, and Ohio; and a similar question arises as to another State which rejected it originally and afterward ratified it. There must be some principle of law applicable to this subject of ratification. Is it possible that any gentleman can pretend that ratifications are in order in the States at all times until the subject of constitutional amendment is disposed of, and that, on the other hand, rejections are of no account? Take the case of the Legislature which rejected the amendment. Was its subsequent ratification legal? Assume that; and then attempt to assume the other doctrine, and see what inconsistency you have assumed.

"If this reasoning be true, in what condition are we? Why, sir, we are in this condition: that you cannot have a constitutional amendment rejected finally at all in the United States; rejections amount to nothing, because ratifications at some future time, ten, twenty, fifty, or one hundred years hence, may give it validity; and, on the other hand, you insist that a ratification, however obtained, under whatever circumstances of misapprehension or of haste or of trick, or of fraud even, can never be withdrawn by a State; it is to be forever bound by it. You avoid all this field of debate by designating now, when you submit the amendment, the Legislatures who are to pass upon your amendment, who are to ratify or reject it.

"This comprises what I desired to say upon this point, with a single exception; and that is, to express my own opinion upon this question which has been debated. My idea is this: that an amendment proposed to Legislatures or to conventions for ratification, until the time when it has been ratified by three-fourths of the States, is, of necessity, in its very nature, a simple proposition, and nothing more; that it becomes a contract or compact between the States at the moment when the last Legislature or convention necessary to make up three-fourths of the States has ratified and approved it. Until that time it is upon the same footing as a proposition for a contract or agreement between individuals which has not been accepted by both or by all the parties to be bound by it, which is therefore binding upon none, and assent to which may be withdrawn at pleasure by any of the parties who are to be bound by it after it shall have been duly adopted or agreed upon. The States, so long as a constitutional amendment is pending before them, unratified by the requisite number of States, are in the same condition in which individuals would be where a proposition of contract or of agreement between them was pending and under consideration. No State, up to that point of time when the amendment becomes binding upon the State, becomes a contract or a compact between it and the other States, can possibly in law or in good faith or in good conscience be bound by it. Its freedom of action and its freedom of will remain to it, and it can exercise that freedom of action and of will by recalling its assent. And who can complain? What State is injured? No one can cry out upon the State that it has violated good faith. After three-fourths of the States have ratified the amendment, it becomes a part of the Constitution, and every State is bound by it. Of course, no State can repeal the Constitution of the United States, and its day of choice and of volition has passed, and passed forever."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, It will not escape the attention of any man that there is an anomaly in the Constitution of the United States. While to all other governments that I know of in the world, properly called governments, pertains the faculty of regulating and prescribing the qualifications of voters, it is a very singular fact that no such faculty belongs to the Government of the United States. The first clause of the Constitution, although it does not impart any power to the States in reference to the qualification of electors, recognizes the undoubted fact that the States then possessed the right to prescribe qualifications for the electors within their own limits, and authorizes those same electors to be the electors of the Representatives in Congress, and of the electors of President and Vice-President, so that it has always been out of the power of Congress, under the Constitution, to prescribe who shall and who shall not vote for Representatives in Congress or for electors of President and Vice-President.

"In this respect the Government of the United States is subject entirely to the action of the State governments; and herein consists this strange anomaly. Certainly, ordinarily speaking, the power of regulating suffrage ought to pertain to the Government which is to be affected by it. Our fathers, however, did not see fit to grant to the Federal Government any such authority; and I believe the present is the only attempt which has been made, since the foundation of the Government,

to interfere with this right of the States to prescribe the qualifications of voters not only within their own limits, but as to the Federal Government.

"Now, sir, on looking over the amendment which has been proposed to us by the Committee on the Judiciary, although I am in favor of conferring the right of suffrage on the colored man as such, I do not find the provision expressed so clearly in that amendment as I wish it were. Indeed, sir, the frame of the amendment, its form, its legal intendment, interpretation, and effect, are to me all very objectionable. It declares that 'the right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.' Observe, sir, and I call the attention of Senators to the clause, 'shall not be denied or abridged by the United States.' Sir, the United States have never granted to any citizen of the United States in the States, nor abridged to him, the right to vote. The Government of the United States has not intermeddled, nor has it the right to intermeddle, with the right of voting; and it is hardly proper language, therefore, to say that this right, with which the Government of the United States cannot intermeddle, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States. It is hardly intelligible language to me, as a lawyer.

"Again, there arises from that peculiar form of expression, 'shall not be denied or abridged by the United States,' what, to my mind, is a very plain implication that in respect to other matters except race, color, or previous condition of servitude, the United States may, through its proper organs, if the Government shall see fit, abridge, or deny to citizens of the United States in a State, the right to vote or to hold office. For instance, the implication arises that for any other cause, whether it be religious belief, or a want of moral training, or defect of education, or whatever other test Congress may see fit to prescribe, the right to vote may be taken away from the citizen of the United States by act of Congress. Certainly I do not apprehend that the Committee on the Judiciary intended any such thing; but so plain to me is this implication that under such a clause Congress would have the right to deny or abridge the right of voting for some other causes than those mentioned in the article, that I certainly can never give that amendment my vote, for I will never agree, here or elsewhere, that the Congress of the United States or any State government shall have it in its power to say to a citizen of the United States, 'You shall not vote or hold office because your religious creed is not so and so, or because you do not belong to and commune with this, that, or the other religious denomination.' I prefer to adhere to the present provisions of the Constitution of the United States in all these respects—the Constitution which prohibits utterly and forever the setting up of any religious test.

"I am willing, as I have already remarked, to extend to the colored man, who is a citizen of the United States, the right to vote and to hold office, like any other citizen; but I prefer to do it in direct and plain terms, so that he who runs may read, without circumlocution, without indirection, but plainly, in terms that are intelligible to the lowest capacity. I shall, therefore, at the proper time, propose an amendment to the amendment now before us, which will be in the following words:

Citizens of the United States, of African descent, shall have the same right to vote and hold office in States and Territories, as other citizens, electors of the most numerous branch of their respective Legislatures.

"Thus adopting the constitutional language of electors having the qualifications of electors of the most numerous branch of the State Legislatures. It seems to me that this expression meets exactly the case which is before us. Why not come out plainly, manfully, and frankly to the world and say what we mean, and not endeavor to darken counsel with words without knowledge, by circumlocution, by concealing, or endeavoring to conceal, the real thing which we aim at? Give us, then, the colored man, for that and that only is the object that is now before us. The sole object of this whole proceeding is to impart, by a constitutional amendment, to the colored man who has become free in the United States, the ordinary right of citizens of the United States, and that is the whole of it. I do not wish by any form of words to conceal the fact or to blur the fact that I am in favor of extending to this class of men the right to vote and to hold office in the United States.

"Sir, it is impossible, in the very nature of things, that so large a portion of citizens of the United States as the black portion now are can for any considerable length of time remain in our midst without enjoying the right of suffrage. That would be a great anomaly in our condition. It would be a state of things entirely inconsistent with the genius and mild, beneficent, democratic spirit of our Government. Sir, if they are to remain citizens of the United States, to have the right of eating the bread which they earn, of having a title to the clothes which they earn; if they are to be permitted to purchase houses and lands, to become fathers and mothers, with all the domestic rights which pertain to that condition belonging to them, we must sooner or later see to it that they are citizens possessed of the right to vote and to be represented in the legislative bodies who have control of their persons and their property. Upon the principle of republican government they are entitled thus to be represented; and it will be impossible for the American people, however strong may be the spirit of caste, however odious the black man may be in the eyes of some of our fellow-citi-

zens—it will be utterly impossible to continue this black race in a state of pupilage, of inferiority in respect to political rights, for any considerable length of time; and I think, therefore, for their security, for our own security, as an act of justice to them and of security and strength to the Union itself, and the glory of the American people, this thing ought to be done, and I am prepared to vote for it."

Mr. Norton, of Minnesota, said: "I desire to ask the Senator from Michigan if the intention, the meaning of the Chicago platform was, that suffrage in the loyal States was merely a question of propriety or of right; whether it properly as a matter of propriety belonged to them or belonged to them as a matter of right?"

Mr. Howard: "Well, Mr. President, the honorable Senator has got a little ahead of the game, and if he had not been so impatient, and allowed me to proceed with my remarks, I possibly might have given him an answer. I will endeavor to do so now:

While the question of suffrage in the loyal States properly belongs to the people of those States.

"Does anybody doubt it? Did anybody ever doubt it? It properly belonged to those States because the Constitution of the United States, which was in full force as to the loyal States, recognized it as one of the reserved rights of the States at that time. And it not only properly belonged to the people of the loyal States at that time, but constitutionally belonged to them. There is no doubt about that. Why, then, do we hear so much said about the perfidy of the Republican party in now seeking to make an amendment by which suffrage shall be regulated in the various States? The quibble turns upon the little word 'properly,' which was plainly, taken in connection with its context, used in the sense of 'constitutionally.' That was all."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "The Senator has just now said that no one ever questioned that that was the proper construction of it, and that of right under the Constitution, as it then was and still is, the right to regulate suffrage exclusively belongs to the States. I think the Senator is mistaken in saying that no one doubted that. I think one of the most distinguished of his party, the Senator from Massachusetts, does hold that Congress, for the Northern as well as the Southern States, can regulate suffrage."

Mr. Sumner: "Does the Senator refer to me?"

Mr. Hendricks: "I do, sir."

Mr. Sumner: "If he will read the bills—I have introduced a great many—they have always gone to the single point that under the Constitution of the United States no State had a power to deny suffrage on account of color. There is where I stand. I raise no question of the power of the States to regulate suffrage; I go into the question of the meaning of the Constitution of the United States, and I insist that under that you cannot, without falsifying every rule of interpretation which will be found in any book of jurisprudence, without falsifying every sentiment of the heart, say that under the power to regulate you can disfranchise a race. Every presumption is to be in favor of human rights. Some of the bravest sentiments of English jurisprudence have all gone in that direction, even to the extent of saying that that man is impious and cruel who does not favor human rights. There I stand. In every interpretation of the Constitution, in the construction of every word and phrase in it, I give to it a meaning in favor of human rights; and when I am asked what is meant by the term 'to regulate,' I say to determine the manner of elections, not to disfranchise a race. When I am asked what may be qualifications, I say clearly those things which may be acquired, those things which are attainable to human effort, not those things that by the providence of God are unattainable. Sir, it is an insult to God and to humanity to say that such a thing can be a qualification. There I stand. Therefore, let the Senator understand me. I have been very clear and explicit from the beginning. I never have claimed for Congress under the existing Constitution the power to regulate. I never have ventured to deny it, because much can be said even in favor of the power to regulate. But I do insist that under the power of making regulations you cannot disfranchise a race, you cannot degrade the country, you cannot degrade the age."

Mr. Hendricks: "I do not think I understand the Senator from Massachusetts now, though he is the master of language. That I may understand him, I will ask him one further question. Has he not claimed that, where the States have denied the suffrage to the negro people, Congress may interfere and give in those States the suffrage to the colored people?"

Mr. Sumner: "Of course I have."

Mr. Hendricks: "Under the existing Constitution?"

Mr. Sumner: "Of course I have. To me it is as plain as the sun."

Mr. Norton: "Mr. President—"

Mr. Howard continued: "I have thus, Mr. President, as briefly as possible, expressed my objections to the form which this amendment has received at the hands of the Committee on the Judiciary. I think it contains within itself a grant of power to the Congress of the United States to set up other tests for voting and holding office; any other tests, if you please, but those specifically mentioned in the clause. I am quite sure that neither the Senate nor the House of Representatives, if they look upon this matter in that light, will ever agree to any such proposition; and I am entirely certain that the Legislatures of the several States to whom this amendment may be transmitted will entirely dissent from it; while I have no doubt that, if the proposition is plainly submitted of giving to the citizens of African descent the

right to vote and hold office like other citizens of the United States, the amendment will be carried by a handsome majority."

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, I did not expect to add any thing to the remarks I made upon the platform adopted by the Republican party last year; but I feel it proper to call the attention of the Senator from Michigan to a view that I take of that platform. It is very clear that he and the distinguished Senator from Massachusetts do not agree. They did not agree last year, and when they stood side by side upon the platform they could not have agreed. There is in this platform a distinction taken between the Northern and the Southern States. There is in this platform claimed for Congress the right to control suffrage in the Southern States, the right to extend it to the colored people there. That is what is claimed in the first part of the resolution, that Congress has the right to extend suffrage to the colored people in the Southern States. As an opposite idea to that, the last clause of the resolution declares that the control of that subject properly belongs to the people of the States in the Northern States."

Mr. Howard: "The loyal States."

Mr. Hendricks: "That is the same thing, I suppose. By loyal States you mean the States that did not go into the rebellion—States that, in the language of the Senator from Michigan, 'did not forfeit by rebellion their control of the subject.' Then in the Southern States this platform claims a right for Congress to confer suffrage upon the colored people; in the Northern States it claims for the people of the States the right to control that question 'properly,' not constitutionally."

Mr. Howard: "Yes, constitutionally."

Mr. Hendricks: "No, sir; the language is, it belongs to the Northern States 'properly.'"

Mr. Howard: "It belongs to them from ancient usage—by prescription, if you please. It was one of the original State rights. It was not granted to the people of any of the States by the Constitution. The Constitution found it existing and recognized that right as existing in the States."

Mr. Hendricks: "Here is the language:

> While the question of suffrage in all the loyal States properly belongs to the people of those States.

"Now, if it properly belongs to the people of the States to regulate suffrage, is it proper for Congress to take it away? If it belongs to the people of the State of Indiana, how can all the rest of the States united take it away from them?"

Mr. Howard: "If the Senator will excuse me, he asked whether it would be proper for Congress to take it away. Sir, Congress is not going to take it away. Congress cannot take it away. What we are doing does not take away the right of the States in this regard. If that right is taken away, it must be taken away by the American people represented in their various Legislatures, and in the form prescribed by the fundamental law of the republic—the Constitution—to which every citizen is subject and a party."

Mr. Hendricks: "If it properly belongs to a State, can twenty-seven States take it away from that one State?"

Mr. Howard: "Yes."

Mr. Hendricks: "Then it does not properly belong to it; it belongs to twenty-seven States. It cannot properly belong to one State, because of its State sovereignty, and at the same time properly belong to twenty-seven States. The one State is regulated by law, and the twenty-seven States by constitutional amendment."

Mr. Howard: "Will the honorable Senator allow me to call his attention to the very language of the article?"

Mr. Hendricks: "Certainly."

Mr. Howard: "'While the question of suffrage in all the loyal States properly belongs to the people of those States;' not to each one."

Mr. Hendricks: "Well, I will ask, can each one of the loyal States control it by a constitutional amendment?"

Mr. Howard: "Undoubtedly."

Mr. Hendricks; "Without a constitutional amendment? By a constitutional amendment? Which does the Senator claim? I ask his attention. Does he claim that the Southern States have no control over it any more, but that the loyal States, in the form of a constitutional amendment, may take the control of the suffrage away from any one State? Is that the position of the Senator?"

Mr. Howard: "My position—I now repeat it—is, that while the rebel States were, so to speak, *de facto* out of the Union, after they had forfeited their political rights under the Constitution, they were at the mercy and subject to the action of the Congress of the United States; while they were in that condition they could not, as against the will of Congress, regulate suffrage or do any thing else within the limits of their own States as independent sovereign States, as they are called; but, after they shall be remitted to their original condition as States of the Union in pursuance of the regulations and laws of Congress, and become represented in the two Houses of Congress, and thus become reinstated as sister States of the Union, they would, of course, have the same right as the original loyal States, not only in that respect, but in all others."

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, in the course of this short debate the Senator from Michigan has put two constructions upon this last clause of his platform. In the first place, he said that it meant that constitutionally it belonged to each State. Now I understand him to say that it belongs to all the loyal States in the aggregate; that the people of all the loyal States rightfully control it."

Mr. Howard: "Three-fourths."

Mr. Hendricks: "These two positions he has occupied in the last twenty minutes. When

the Senator wishes to get away from the force of the plain language of his party, understood by everybody, and wants now to do that which a year ago was declared to be by the platform improper to do, of course he has to resort to criticism upon his own platform."

Mr. Sumner: "May I remind the Senator that a conspicuous leader of the party, who is now dead, made haste, when that improvident resolution was put before the public, to denounce it as foolish and utterly untenable? I refer to Thaddeus Stevens. He said that that position taken at Chicago was foolish and untenable. He wrote a letter within a week after that was published."

Mr. Hendricks: "Was that letter published?"

Mr. Sumner: "It was published and extensively circulated. I never had any hesitation in saying the same thing."

Mr. Hendricks: "Then I understand that Mr. Stevens, to whom the Senator refers, and the Senator from Massachusetts himself, put this construction upon this clause, that it declares the control of suffrage properly as a political question, independently of constitutional provisions, to belong to the States; and if that be the proper construction, then I say to the distinguished Senator from Massachusetts that his party now proposes to do that which it pledged to the people a year ago that it would not do."

Mr. Warner, of Alabama, said: "I should like to ask the Senator from Indiana a question. What limit is there to the power of the people of this country to change the Constitution or the system of government?"

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, that is a very grave question that is asked. I intended to ask some Senators that question in a very few minutes. There is a particular provision in the Constitution of the United States that it may be amended. Where, Mr. President, does the power of amendment stop? I say the power of amendment is limited to the correction of defects that might appear in the practical operations of the Government; but the power of amendment does not carry with it the power to destroy one form of government and establish another. I will ask the distinguished Senator who has just propounded the question to me, whether, under the form and pretext of an amendment, you can change the office of the Chief Executive of this nation, and make him cease to be a President, and make him a king?"

Mr. Warner: "I will answer the question. I think it is in the power of the people of this country to establish any system of government they see fit, to abolish the office of President, and abolish Congress, and the Supreme Court, and the whole form of government. I think the whole matter is in the hands of the people, and that they are sovereign."

Mr. Hendricks: "Then I understand that answer given by the Senator to be, that, under the constitutional provision for amendment, under the proceeding for amendments, the Congress of the United States by a two-thirds vote of each body, three-fourths of the States ratifying it, may change this Government from a republic and make it a monarchy.

"We have now a distinct proposition before us. I am not going to talk in this general way about what the people of the United States may do. They may revolutionize, perhaps; there may be a revolution, and the present Government may go down under that revolution, and a monarchy may be its result. Perhaps we are in the midst of such a revolution as that now. Perhaps we have gone very rapidly and far in that direction of revolution; but I am speaking of the power of Congress and of three-fourths of the States to amend the Constitution of the United States; and now I understand it to be averred as a doctrine of the party that the President may be displaced and a king established in his stead."

Mr. Drake, of Missouri, said: "I should like to inquire of the honorable Senator whether he considers that the statement of a position of that kind on the part of one Senator on this floor makes it the doctrine of the party?"

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, it is an answer to a question that is propounded in the Senate; and now, if the Senator from Missouri is not satisfied with the answer that has been given by the distinguished Senator, I shall be very much obliged to him if he—and I know he is a gentleman who expresses himself exactly—will tell the Senate just where the power of amendment stops under the provisions of the Constitution of the United States."

Mr. Drake: "I would state that, if the honorable Senator from Indiana would be so good as to enlighten my dull comprehension as to the importance of that question in this discussion, I will answer him with a great deal of pleasure; but now for my part I really do not see it. I do not see whether it amounts to one thing or another where the limit of constitutional amendment may be. We are discussing a question now of amending the Constitution in a particular which unquestionably is not subversive of the Constitution; not the case that the Senator suggested a while ago."

Mr. Warner: "I answered the question of the Senator from Indiana very squarely, and I would ask him to answer my question as frankly. Where does the power of the people of this country to amend or to change their Constitution and system of government end?"

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, I believe that there is a limit to the power of two-thirds of Congress and of three-fourths of the States to amend the Constitution of the United States. I believe that they have a right to amend the Constitution in those respects wherever defects appear in the practical operations of the Government, to make it more complete and satisfactory; but they have no power, in my judgment, so to amend the Constitution as to change

the character and the nature of the Government. This is, as was well expressed by the Senator from Tennessee this evening, not purely a confederacy, nor is it altogether a popular government. It is a government of the people, and at the same time a confederacy. The States, before the formation of the Federal Government, were independent States. They had the right to go into the confederacy, or not to go into it, as they pleased. It was not obligatory upon Pennsylvania to become a party to the confederacy; and, if the other States had agreed to the Constitution, and Pennsylvania had not agreed to it, Pennsylvania would not have been a part of the Government; and that was provided for in the Constitution itself, for the very last provision of the Constitution is that—

> The ratification of the conventions of nine States shall be sufficient for the establishment of this Constitution between the States so ratifying the same.

"The States, as States thus coming into the Union, came in upon the basis of the Constitution itself. They surrendered up a portion of their State authority and power, and they retained a portion. I say that a government thus formed cannot, by the authority of amendment of the Constitution, be so changed as entirely to depart from the spirit and the purpose of the confederation."

Mr. Howe, of Wisconsin, said: "I understood the Senator to say that we could not, by an amendment of the Constitution, change the nature or character of the Government."

Mr. Hendricks: "Yes, the nature of the Government itself."

Mr. Howe: "I wish to ask the Senator from Indiana what amendment can be made to the Constitution that will not change the nature or character of the Government?"

Mr. Hendricks: "Why, sir, I can conceive of very many amendments. I think, if the Senator will turn to the book, he will find about twelve amendments that did not change the character of the Government. One of these amendments, to which I will refer by way of illustration in answer to the Senator, was that for the election of President and Vice-President: the mode of electing the President and Vice-President is different from what it was originally.

"Mr. President, my objection, which I now choose to state to the amendment proposed and pending before the Senate, is that it does change the nature of the Government; it does take away from the States a power which they retained, and which is necessary to that independence and sovereignty of the States which the original compact contemplated they should enjoy.

"Now, Mr. President, in using the term 'sovereignty of the States,' I do not mean that the States have control of every subject. In that sense the States are not sovereign; in that sense the Federal Government is not sovereign; but in the language of the courts the States are sovereign within the sphere of their jurisdiction or reserved powers, while the General Government is sovereign within the sphere of its jurisdiction. I think that the right to control the suffrage for the election of State officers is essential to the independence of the States, is essential to the very nature of the Government itself.

"In further illustration of the question asked by the Senator from Wisconsin, I may say that the Constitution might be so amended as to regulate the suffrage in the election of Federal officers. I think that, for the purpose of electing members of Congress, by an amendment of the Constitution the qualifications of the voters might be defined, and that would not change the nature of the Government; it would change, to some extent, the mode of selecting Federal officers. But when the Constitution of the United States comes to regulate the mode of selecting State officers, and takes away from the States the control of that question, you materially change the framework of the Government itself. I can conceive of no power so important to a State as to decide who shall be her officers and in what mode these officers shall be selected, whether by all the people or by a portion of the people. It is for her to select her own officers, to define who shall be her officers and how they shall be chosen; and, if you take that power away from a government and confer it upon another government, you have materially and very essentially changed the nature of the relations between the two."

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "Will the honorable Senator permit me to read from Marshall's opinion in the case of McCulloch *vs.* State of Maryland?"

Mr. Hendricks: "With great pleasure."

Mr. Davis: "'A power to create implies a power to preserve. A power to destroy, if wielded by a different hand, is hostile to and incompatible with these powers to create and preserve.' 'The sovereignty of a State extends to every thing which exists by its own authority, or is introduced by its permission.' 'That the power to destroy may defeat and render useless the power to create; that there is plain repugnance in conferring on one government a power to control the constitutions and measures of another.'"

Mr. Hendricks: "That is much more satisfactorily expressed than I was able to express it. When this Government was established, there were certain powers retained by the States, and there were certain defined powers conferred upon the Government of the United States. In the exercise of the powers conferred upon the Government of the United States, that Government is sovereign. In the exercise of the powers retained by the States those governments are sovereign. Where a State has the power to regulate a subject and the General Government has no control over its action in that regulation, the State is completely sov-

ereign in that regard, because she is entirely master of the subject; and where the government of the United States regulates a subject without State interference at all, that Government is entirely sovereign over that subject; as sovereign as any Government can be over any subject whatever.

"Now, sir, it is of the very essence of the relations between the States and the General Government that the States shall retain the control of a large class of subjects. All questions of a domestic sort, the regulation of property, the descent of estates, the courts that regulate such questions—these are exclusively within the control of the States; their regulation requires that the State shall have a Legislature, that it shall make laws; and, if it make laws as an independent and sovereign State over these subjects, it must have the control and selection of the law-makers. And, if you take away from the State the power to select the law-makers, you take away from the State the control of the subjects that the laws may operate upon. So, when the Constitution of the United States takes away from the State the control over the subject of suffrage, it takes away from the State the control of her own laws upon a subject that the Constitution of the United States intended she should be sovereign upon. But I have said more upon this question than I intended to do.

"Now, Mr. President, if it were the pleasure of Congress to change the Constitution upon a subject so important as this, ought it not to be clear and beyond all doubt that it would result in public good? I know there are very many distinguished men in the Republican party who have recently expressed the opinion that universal suffrage would be an evil; that these colored people, just come out of a condition of slavery, were not qualified to exercise the suffrage for the good of the public.

"I have not been satisfied, as many gentlemen of the Republican party recently were not satisfied, that it is wise to extend the suffrage to the colored people. If any State chooses to do it under the existing Constitution, it is her own right to do so. I make no war upon that. That is right, because it is in the sense of the Constitution right, the State having the power to do so. But I am not satisfied, I never have been satisfied, that it is wise to make suffrage universal so as to include that race; and I think upon this subject there are some Senators in this Hall who are going to vote for this amendment who will agree with me. I will come to that directly.

"Some Senator this evening said that intelligence and virtue were essential to the safe exercise of the suffrage. I think that race does not now bring to the mass of the intelligence of this country an addition. I do not think it ever will. That race in its whole history has furnished no evidence of its capacity to lift itself up. It has never laid the foundation for its own civilization. Any elevation that we find in that race is when we find it coming in contact with the white race. The influence of the white race upon the colored man has carried him up somewhat in the scale of civilization, but when dependent upon himself he has never gone upward. I am willing that that shall be tested by the history and experience of two thousand years back. While the tendency of the white race is upward, the tendency of the colored race is downward; and I have always supposed it is because in that race the physical predominates over the moral and intellectual qualities. I may be mistaken in that; I will not undertake to say that that is certainly so. But I believe that the tendency of that race is downward when not supported by the intelligence of the white race.

"There are some Senators here who do not want the Chinese to vote. The Senators from Oregon and California, I think, are all opposed to the Chinese voting; and I think the Senator from Nevada (Mr. Stewart) is; and why? I believe they said they were pagans; but they are not such pagans as we find in Africa. China is the original home of a civilization that the world honors to this day. Why, sir, in China they had many of the rare and useful inventions long before they were known in Europe. It is said that gunpowder was known in China before it was in Europe."

Mr. Edmunds: "And printing."

Mr. Hendricks: "Yes; it is said that printing in a rude form was known there; and the compass was in use there; and one of their great writers is as immortal as the classics of Athens, with a morality that comes nearer the morality of Jesus Christ than that of any ancient writer. But these Chinese, who are capable of a very high civilization, who have sustained their own civilization, to some extent at least, if they come to our country are not to be voters. They are in the way, I suppose, of the State of Nevada and of party hopes in California; I do not know why. Are they not prepared to give as intelligent a vote as the negro? Do they not understand our form of government as well as the negro? Are they not likely to become as well informed?

"But the Senator from New Jersey (Mr. Frelinghuysen) puts their exclusion upon the ground of their religion, that they are pagans. Is it the business of this Government to prescribe what God or in what form men shall worship? He says that we are a Christian people. Not altogether, sir. We have no such test as that. It is not a test that obtains in any of the States now that a man shall be a Christian in order to be a voter. In the Senator's own State the Jew, a man who is not a Christian, is a voter. The Jew, who does not believe in the Saviour that the Senator and I believe in, is a voter still. You do not exclude him because he is not a Christian; you do not exclude the infidel, who recognizes no God at all."

Mr. Frelinghuysen: "May I ask the Senator

from Indiana whether he intends to class the intelligent, respectable Israelites of this country who believe in one superintending God, with the pagans and heathens of Asia, for that is the argument?"

Mr. Hendricks: "No, sir; I am not making any such argument as that. That was the Senator's argument, and I was trying to combat it. The Senator insisted that a man must be a Christian to be a voter in this country."

Mr. Frelinghuysen: "No."

Mr. Hendricks: "Because we were a Christian people, he said."

Mr. Frelinghuysen: "My insistment was this: not that a man must be a Christian to be a voter, but that it was not our duty to extend the rights of naturalization and citizenship to a pagan and heathenish class."

Mr. Hendricks; "The Senator added, 'Because we are a Christian as well as a free people.' I think that was the Senator's expression. So that the argument was that none but Christians ought to vote, and I was carrying out the Senator's own argument. Sir, I am in favor of men voting in this country who belong to the white race, and conduct themselves properly."

Mr. Stewart: "I should like to ask the Senator if he is in favor of naturalizing Chinese and pagans who acknowledge no allegiance to the Government of the United States."

Mr. Hendricks: "That is a very remarkable question. Of course I am in favor of naturalizing no such man as that; and anybody who is naturalized under our law must abjure all allegiance to any other Government, and in the most formal manner possible recognize the authority of our Government. The Senator is not in favor, I believe, of allowing the Chinese to vote, while he is in favor of allowing the negro to vote; and I am speaking of the position occupied by the Senators from the Pacific coast upon this particular question. It does not suit them to have the Chinese vote, for some reason or other. I guess it is not popular out there to have the Chinese vote, and they are opposed to it. I would not wish to force the Chinese vote upon the people of the Pacific coast unless they wanted it themselves; and if I desired to amend the Constitution so as to force the Chinaman to vote in California, I would say, 'Let the people of California have a chance to express their wish on that subject;' and, if they voted it down, I would not attempt to force it upon them. They are the best judges of the interests of their society, and that which will contribute to the strength and purity of their State government. And the same is true in Indiana. But Nevada, with her twenty-five thousand people, has just as large a vote upon the adoption of this constitutional amendment as Indiana with her fifteen hundred thousand. But Nevada does not want the Chinaman, and she does want the colored man to vote. She has no colored people, but she has Chinamen. That is the style of this controversy. It suits certain purposes that the suffrage should be extended to the negro; it does not suit for other purposes that it should be extended to other races."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Sir, I wish to call the attention of the Senate for one moment to the character of the whole train of argument that has been offered against this amendment. Take that of the Senator from Kentucky, the Senator from Delaware, and other Senators that I might refer to. I say that the whole train of argument is based upon those broad doctrines and those old theories upon which the right of secession rested. We were not told by the Senator from Kentucky and the Senator from Delaware that they believed in the right of secession, but they advocated the same theories, urged the same arguments, and cited the same history upon which the right of secession has been based for the last twenty years."

Mr. Saulsbury, of Delaware, said: "Will the honorable Senator allow me to ask him a question? I ask whether the historical references that I made were not true references; and whether the facts in relation to the formation of the Federal Constitution are not evidenced by the records of the convention which framed it?"

Mr. Morton: "Mr. President, I might admit the Senator's references, but I should deny his deductions. The Senator told us to-day frankly that we were not one people. He said in the Senate of the United States, after the culmination of a war that cost this nation six hundred thousand lives, that we were not a nation. He gave us to understand that we were as many separate nationalities as we have States; that one State is different from another as one nation in Europe is different from another. He denied expressly that we were a nation. He gave us to understand that he belonged to the tribe of the Delawares, an independent and sovereign tribe living on a reservation up here near the city of Philadelphia, but he denied his American nationality. The whole argument from first to last has proceeded upon that idea, that this is a mere confederacy of States; to use the language of the Senator to-day, a partnership of States. What is the deduction? If that is true, there was the right of secession; the South was right, and we were wrong. He did not draw that deduction, but it is one that springs inevitably from his premises.

"Sir, the heresy of secession is not dead; it lives. It lives after this war, although it ought to have been settled by the war. It exists even as snow sometimes exists in the lap of summer, when it is concealed behind the cliffs and the hedges and in the clefts of the rocks. It has come forth during this debate. We have heard the very premises, the very arguments, the very historical references upon which the right of secession was urged for thirty years. The whole fallacy lies in denying our nationality.

I assert that we are one people and not thirty-seven different peoples; that we are one nation, and as such we have provided for ourselves a national Constitution, and that Constitution has provided the way by which it may be amended.

"Now, sir, what shall be the extent of that amendment? Does the Constitution say how far or to what extent you shall amend it? Not a word of it; but it provides for its amendment, and that amendment may be as radical and as far-going as any part of the original instrument. Can that be denied? The States gave up, it is said, the right to coin money, the right to make war, the right to regulate commerce; and if they gave up those powers, they have a right to give up, according to the mode prescribed by the Constitution, the power to regulate suffrage.

"It may be said that, under this form of amendment, we would not have the right to change the character of our Government from a republic to a monarchy. That is an extreme case. But, sir, we are not changing the character of our republican government. It is still the same in form, though modified, when we say that the States shall be limited in their power to regulate the suffrage.

"One word, sir, in regard to what has been said about the sentiment of Republicans in reference to admitting colored men to the elective franchise. There were doubts in the minds of many of us about admitting six hundred thousand men, fresh from slavery, to the exercise of suffrage. There were many of us who doubted the effect of that, and would have avoided it if it could have been done, and given these men a short time to prepare themselves for the exercise of that right. But, as circumstances progressed, as history moved on, we could not give them that time; we were compelled to try the experiment immediately; and thus far it has worked well. But, sir, the great body of the men upon whom the right of suffrage is to be conferred by this amendment are men who have long been free, who live in the Northern States—not men just emerged from slavery, but a comparatively educated class living throughout the entire North. The argument that might be made against enfranchising men just emerging from slavery cannot be made against the colored men of Indiana, of New York, and of the entire North."

Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, said: "Mr. President, the Senator from Indiana seems to think that no statesman can bear in mind two ideas at the same time; that there can be no such thing as State rights maintained by anybody under the Constitution unless that person is a secessionist; and that, on the other hand, no man can maintain that there is any such thing as rights in the Federal Government under the Constitution without being in favor of an absolute concentrated Government at Washington. Sir, these two ideas must go together in our system of government, and the time is coming when they must be discussed, when the rights of the States under the Constitution must be acknowledged. It is just as much a war on the Constitution to deny the States the rights which belong to them as it is a war on the Constitution to maintain the doctrine of secession."

Mr. Morton: "I have never denied the doctrine of State rights—never."

Mr. Doolittle: "The honorable Senator then admits that the States have rights under the Constitution?"

Mr. Morton: "I have always denied State sovereignty; and I do now. I deny the doctrine that the States are separate and independent nations. We are one people. But, sir, the States have certain rights, rights that are guaranteed to them by the Constitution of the United States, just as we have rights secured to us both by the Federal and State constitutions. We have State rights, but have no State sovereignty, and never had."

Mr. Doolittle: "Mr. President, the honorable Senator says there is no State sovereignty. I contend that by every decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, by every declaration made by every writer upon our system of government in the beginning, whether a Federalist or a Republican, it was always maintained that the States had an attribute of sovereignty, not absolute, but under the Constitution, because under the Constitution they have parted with their absolute sovereignty; nor has the United States Government any sovereignty under the Constitution which is absolute. All the power which the United States Government has under the Constitution is limited. Sovereignty is limited by the Constitution. State sovereignty is limited by the Constitution; the United States sovereignty is limited by the Constitution; and the great difficulty of our times is that men cannot think or will not think that the two sovereignties exist at the same time under our Government, the one limited by the other.

"Why, Mr. President, from earliest childhood every man in this body has been taught that we live in the solar system where the planets that revolve around the sun are controlled by two forces; one a force tending toward the centre by the force of gravitation, the centripetal force; and the other is the centrifugal force, by which they are driven in their orbits around the centre. Mr. President, if either one of these forces were taken away, it would absolutely destroy the system. In our solar system, if the centrifugal force were taken away, and nothing but the centripetal force left to act, every planet would be drawn to the centre of the sun. On the other hand, if the centripetal force were destroyed in our solar system, and no force permitted to operate but the centrifugal force, all the planets would be driven in a tangent away from our system into illimitable space. Sir, it is the

operation of these two forces, the one which tends to the centre, the other which tends to the circumference, which keeps these planets moving in their orbits, which maintains our system, which keeps it from destruction; and the destruction of either of these forces is the destruction of the solar system.

"Now, sir, come to our system of government: these two forces are planted in it of necessity. These two ideas have been here from the beginning. There have been men who represented the one and represented the other from the beginning. There have been men who have contended always for the absolute sovereignty of this central Government, and other men who have contended always for the absolute sovereignty of the States; and both of them have contended for a falsehood from the beginning. There is no absolute sovereignty in this Government, nor is there any absolute sovereignty in the States; but, under the operation of our system devised by our fathers, wise as if it had been inspired from on high, and as if they had wisdom almost like Him who created the solar system under which we live, these two grand ideas, two great forces in government, were put in operation at one and the same time, each limiting the other, each operating upon the other, both working together, and working out that harmonious system in which alone we live and move and have our being; and that man or statesman, call himself what he may, whether a fire-eating secessionist of the South who comes into this body or elsewhere and maintains the absolute sovereignty of the State, with its right to withdraw from the Union, to retire from the system, to overturn the Government; or that other statesman, Republican though he may call himself, who comes into this body or elsewhere and maintains that this Government only has absolute sovereignty, and that it has the power to seize to itself all the powers of the Government—whichever one of these men undertakes to do this, is making war on the Government and war on the system under which we live.

"Mr. President, it is in these two ideas, limited by each other, controlled by each other, that we alone can maintain our system of government. We must maintain the rights of the States under the Constitution. We must love to maintain the rights of the States. We must maintain the rights of the Federal Government. And, while we put down rebellion, put down secession when it undertakes, under the doctrine of State rights run mad, to destroy the Government, to break up the system, if the time ever comes that in this body, from any quarter, East or West, or North or South, any party stands forward to determine that this is the Government and here is all power, and that in Congress are to be vested all the powers of government, that party will be equally at war with the system. Both must be resisted; the doctrine must be overcome; and I tell the Senator from Indiana that the doctrine of unqualified centralization of power in this Government is just as dangerous as the doctrine of secession. Both of them are at war with the Constitution.

"Mr. President, I should not have been drawn into any remarks on this occasion, had it not been for the speech of the honorable Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton), and particularly that portion of his speech where he seems to claim that every man who maintains that the States have rights under the Constitution, and ought to have rights under the Constitution, is only repeating the arguments of secessionists. Sir, what I claim is the rights of the States under the Constitution, not outside of the Constitution. I claim their rights under the Constitution which it guarantees to those States, not a right to secede, not a right to nullify, not a right to break up the Government, but a right to live in the Government and enjoy under the Constitution the rights which its secures.

"Mr. President, I maintain that it is just as necessary for us to insist upon the rights of the States as upon the rights of the Federal Government. The time is coming, in my judgment, when the people of the States will be aroused to this question. The danger is that, while we have been exerting all the powers of this Government, great and gigantic as they are, to put down the secession of States, not in the exercise of rights, but in the exercise of wrongs — attempting to exercise powers which they have not, and cannot have, under the Constitution—our people are becoming accustomed to look upon the exercise of these great powers by this Government with indifference."

Mr. Drake, of Missouri, said: "Now, sir, the honorable Senator from Indiana (Mr. Hendricks) seemed to be concerned this evening as to the limit of the power of amendment of the Constitution, without drawing a distinction between that which is an amendment of the Constitution and that which is a revolution to overthrow it. I have simply to say that, so far as amendment is concerned, there is no limit. You cannot find a word in the Constitution which makes a limit upon the right of the people to amend it, except in that article which declared that 'no amendment which may be made prior to 1808 shall in any manner affect the first and fourth clauses of the ninth section of the first article.'"

Mr. Edmunds: "And the equal representation of States in the Senate."

Mr. Drake: "No, sir; excuse me. The language does not apply there at all, as I have had occasion to show here before. But there was the only limitation on the power of amendment contained in the Constitution, and it was a limitation in favor of the importation of slaves from the coast of Africa to this continent."

Mr. Buckalew: "May I ask the Senator whether by an amendment submitted by Congress you could take away the senatorial representation of any State?"

Mr. Drake: "Not without its consent. The Constitution expressly forbids it. It does not say that you shall not take it away by an amendment, but simply sets out the broad, distinct proposition that 'no State shall without its consent be deprived of its equal suffrage in the Senate.' Now, sir, the only shackle that the people of the United States put upon the power of amendment was that which was to go to perpetuate slavery in this country and to keep up the African slave-trade; and so now, after the lapse of eighty years, comes up the response from the same spirit, that there is no power in the Constitution to make an amendment which shall give the right of suffrage to that long-enslaved race. The spirit in the two cases is the same, that which would have consigned them to eternal slavery and that which would now prevent their being lifted into the condition of enfranchised citizens.

"Mr. President, gentlemen here talk about the rights of the States. What right has any State in this Union but that which it gets from the Constitution? Go over it, examine it from the beginning to the end, examine it in the light of history, examine it with the severest logic. I say to these gentlemen who talk so about the rights of States, that there is not a State in this Union that has one single right but that which it derives from the Constitution. Every single right that the States may have had before, they threw into the great mass which went to make up the powers of this Union, and just so much as the nation saw fit to give them they have, and not an atom more. And when you talk about the rights of States, it matters not what the extent of them is, how great or how little, certain it is that in that instrument they all lie and are all there granted or conceded; and there is not one right, except that of equal senatorial representation, which cannot be taken away from any State by a constitutional amendment passed by two-thirds of Congress and ratified by three-fourths of the States.

"But, Mr. President, I do not propose to continue this discussion. The few minutes that I have now occupied are sufficient to express what I desired to express, except one other thing drawn out by the remarks of the honorable Senator from Wisconsin; and that is upon the assumed right of the Supreme Court of the United States to declare an act of Congress unconstitutional and void. I take leave to say to that gentleman that whenever the proper time comes I shall take the position here, and maintain it, too, that there does not abide in that court one particle of right to make any such declaration with regard to any act of Congress."

Mr. Edmunds: "Not even involving civil rights?"

Mr. Drake: "Not involving any right. The people of the United States did not establish a Government of three departments which were to cross each other's track in that way and destroy each other. The law of parallelism was laid down to all three of them. They were to run in parallel lines, never to cross each other; but I am not going into that discussion now. I wish to meet right here at the threshold the first declaration that I have heard yet made by a Senator on this floor recognizing the right of the Supreme Court to declare any act of Congress unconstitutional, with a complete denial of that right, and with a challenge to any man to find that right granted in the Constitution to that tribunal."

Mr. Hendricks: "Suppose that between two citizens there is a controversy in regard to property; the claim of the one citizen is based upon a provision of the Constitution of the United States, and the claim of another citizen is based upon a law of Congress. The two are inconsistent. If the law be sustained, the one man gains his case; if the Constitution, on the other hand, be sustained, the other man carries the case, and that cause comes to the Supreme Court of the United States. Which shall govern, the provision of the Constitution or the law? Which party ought to gain the case?"

Mr. Drake: "In the first place, in answer to the honorable Senator, I will say that he supposes an impossible case. The honorable Senator cannot find in the Statutes-at-Large of the United States one single act of this Congress which in its plain and palpable terms enacted a thing which was in violation of the Constitution."

Mr. Hendricks: "That is not the question."

Mr. Drake: "Yes, it is, sir; because, unless you do find that in a law which is in plain and palpable violation of the Constitution, the matter of whether it is a violation of the Constitution is a matter of construction and deduction, and the moment you come to the question of construction and deduction, then I say that a judgment has been entered in the Halls of the Congress of the nation higher than any judgment which any court of the United States or of any State can render."

Mr. Doolittle: "Do I understand the honorable Senator to say that the opinion of Congress is supreme on all these constitutional questions?"

Mr. Drake: "I mean to say, and in due time whenever the opportunity offers I will say it at length and make it good, that there never is passed an act by the two Houses of the Congress of the United States—and it is a position I took here in the first prepared speech I delivered in this Chamber, in December, 1867—that there never is an act passed by the two Houses of Congress that they do not by the act of passing it enter in the records and archives of the nation a solemn judgment that that act is in accordance with the Constitution of the United States."

Mr. Edmunds: "Suppose it is not in point of fact?"

Mr. Drake: "Suppose it is not in point of fact, who is to decide it? Not the courts."

Mr. Edmunds: "Who, then?"

Mr. Drake: "The people, sir, are to decide it."

Mr. Edmunds: "Revolution?"

Mr. Drake: "No, sir. The judicial power does not contain political power, and no power exists to unmake a law by declaring it invalid but the power that made it. These points I touch upon merely."

Mr. Doolittle: "I understand the honorable Senator from Missouri simply to say that Congress can do no wrong."

Mr. Drake: "No, sir. The Senator from Missouri does not say any such thing. But the Senator from Missouri does say that a body containing some three hundred men, many of them the picked men of the nation, illustrious many of them, far better lawyers, many of them, than are on the bench of your Supreme Court, are quite as competent to judge in a matter of construction and deduction of constitutionality as four or five gentlemen sitting in another room in this Capitol who were never set to be guardians over the judgment of Congress."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I wish to put an inquiry to my friend, with a view to get his idea in all sincerity. Suppose Congress should pass a law which should declare that the Supreme Court of the United States and the circuit and district courts of the United States should have no jurisdiction of controversies arising between citizens of different States, and, in spite of that law, a citizen of the State of Missouri should sue a citizen of the State of Vermont in the circuit court of the United States for the district of Vermont, would my friend maintain that it would be the duty of the judge presiding in that circuit to dismiss that suit in spite of the Constitution?"

Mr. Drake: "That is the same description of question put to me by the Senator from Indiana."

Mr. Edmunds: "Very good. Answer mine."

Mr. Drake: "It is supposing an impossibility. I will not answer a question of that kind, Mr. President, for the simple reason that it supposes that which is impossible."

Mr. Whyte, of Maryland, said: "Congress passed an act known as the legal-tender act some years ago, the constitutionality of which is now pending before the Supreme Court of the United States. May I ask the Senator whether the decision of the Supreme Court in that case ought to be respected, if it should decide that law to be unconstitutional?"

Mr. Drake: "I answer, without hesitation, not at all, sir. I stand to my position, and the Senate of the United States and the House of Representatives of the United States have both got to come to it some time or other, or else probably submit to have their powers and energies crippled by the decisions of that court or some other United States court."

Mr. Whyte: "I ask my friend from Missouri how he will explain that section of the Constitution, section two, article three, which says:

> The judicial power shall extend to all cases in law and equity arising under this Constitution, the laws of the United States, and treaties made or which shall be made under their authority."

Mr. Drake: "I have no explanation to give about it now, except simply to deny that the judicial power of that court contains and includes political power. I deny that the right to invalidate a law, to cripple it, to sweep it off the statute-book, is or can be under any circumstances a judicial power. At some future time, if opportunity offer, I will, as I said before, present my views at length on this whole subject."

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, said: "The honorable Senator having referred to me, will he allow me to read a passage from the opinion of Chief-Justice Marshall in the case of McCulloch *vs.* State of Maryland?"

Mr. Drake: "Sir, I am quite familiar with that, I think."

Mr. Davis: "I should like to put it in the Senator's speech. Mr. President, let me read the passage. I can show the honorable Senator to-morrow four acts of Congress that have been declared by the Supreme Court to be unconstitutional in their judgment. I will read the passage to which I referred my honorable friend in this opinion of Chief-Justice Marshall in the case of McCulloch *vs.* Maryland:

> But, were its necessity less apparent, none can deny its being an appropriate measure,
>
> "That is, the Bank of the United States—
>
> and if, it is, the degree of its necessity, as has been very justly observed, is to be discussed in another place. * * * Should Congress, in the execution of its powers, adopt measures which are prohibited by the Constitution, or should Congress, under the pretext of executing its powers, pass laws for the accomplishment of objects not intrusted to the Government, it would become the painful duty of this tribunal, should a case requiring such a decision come before it, to say that such an act was not the law of the land."

Mr. Drake: "Yes, Mr. President, whenever that court does assume to itself the power to declare any act of Congress unconstitutional and void, then begins the struggle for supremacy in this country."

Mr. Edmunds: "They have done so forty years ago."

Mr. Drake: "They have not done it forty years ago. They have not interfered with the administration of this Government. Whenever they do, then the question will come up whether the two Houses of Congress, in the exercise of their high constitutional functions as the embodiment of the sovereignty of this great nation coming direct from the people,

are to lie at the mercy from day to day of a tribunal created by themselves."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment offered by the Senator from Oregon to the amendment of the committee. The amendment proposes to strike out all of section one of the amendment reported by the Committee on the Judiciary, and to insert in lieu thereof the following:

Congress shall have power to abolish or modify any restrictions upon the right to vote or hold office prescribed by the constitution or laws of any State."

Mr. Davis: "Mr. President, my honorable friend from Indiana (Mr. Morton) referred to myself, in connection with other Senators, as having given some support to the doctrine of nullification. I choose, at this late hour of the evening, to disclaim that that is my position. My position is simply this: according to proper language, there is no sovereignty in the United States or in any of the States; the sovereignty rests with the people. The people divided their sovereignty, and they delegated it to two governments; that is, to two classes of governments. They delegated a portion of it to the Government of the United States by the Constitution. The rest of the sovereignty of the people of the United States is in the people respectively of the States. My position is, that as to the sovereignty and powers delegated by the Constitution of the United States to the Government of the United States, the Government of the United States and the United States are a nationality. Within the scope and operation of all the sovereignty and of all the power delegated by the Constitution to the United States, the United States exercises the full and entire sovereignty delegated to it by the people in the Constitution.

"My other position in relation to that subject is, that as to the sovereignty not delegated by the Constitution to the people, but reserved to the States, the States are sovereign; and the States are as much sovereign, within the scope of their reserved sovereignty and powers, as the Government of the United States; and the United States are sovereign within the sphere of the powers delegated to the United States and to the Government of the United States by the Constitution. I hope that my position is understood. That distinction has been taken repeatedly and sustained by the judgments of the Supreme Court. There is not a commentator upon the Constitution of the United States, from the *Federalist* and Hamilton and Madison down, that does not recognize the same partition of sovereignty and the same exclusive and paramount authority of the States as to all the sovereignty and power reserved by them, and so of the United States in relation to all the sovereignty and powers delegated to the United States by the Constitution."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "If the honorable Senator from Kentucky will allow me to say a word, I am not entirely certain that I fully comprehend his idea of sovereignty. He speaks of sovereignty as resting in the people. Let me inquire of the honorable Senator what people he refers to—the whole people of the United States, constituting in and of themselves an imperial popular community? Are those the people in whom the ultimate supreme sovereignty rests, or is it in the people of the several States?"

Mr. Davis: "My position is, that, as to powers delegated to the United States and the Government of the United States by the Constitution, that portion of the sovereignty belongs to all the people of the United States; that it is a delegated sovereignty from all the people of the United States to that extent. So far as the sovereignty and powers of government are not delegated by the Constitution to the United States and the Government formed by the Constitution, that sovereignty belongs as exclusively to the people of the States as it did before the formation of the Constitution."

Mr. Howard: "Then I will inquire whence the honorable Senator derives that doctrine? Is it from the history of the American nation, or is it from the Kentucky resolutions of 1798?"

Mr. Davis: "I derive it from the Constitution; I derive it from the treatises upon the Constitution by the men who made it; I derive it from Hamilton and Madison, from Kent and Story and Marshall, and every other great light and luminary of the Constitution. I will read a paragraph from Madison's letters on this subject:

It has been too much the case, in expounding the Constitution of the United States, that its meaning has been sought not in its peculiar and unprecedented modification of power, but by viewing it, some through the medium of a simple government, others through that of a mere league of governments. It is neither the one nor the other, but essentially different from both. It must consequently be its own interpreter. No other government can furnish a key to its true character. Other governments present an individual and indivisible sovereignty. The Constitution of the United States divides the sovereignty; the portions surrendered by the States composing the Federal sovereignty over specific subjects; the portions retained forming the sovereignty of each over the residuary subjects within its sphere.

"In the case of McCulloch *vs.* The State of Maryland, Chief-Justice Marshall decides that all powers of government appertain to sovereignty. He decides explicitly that the charter of a Bank of the United States is an exercise of sovereignty, and he says in the most explicit language that all exercise of political power is an exercise of political sovereignty. Now, my position is simply this: that the portion of it yielded up by the people of all the States, as enumerated in the Constitution, is an emanation from the people of all the States, acting by States, to the United States and to the General Government; that, so far as sovereignty is not delegated by that instrument to the United States and to the Government formed by the Constitution, that sovereignty is retained by the States; and it is as distinctively, as

peculiarly, and as exclusively their right now as it was before the formation of the Constitution, and the Supreme Court have so decided in repeated cases.

"Now, Mr. President, while I am up I will add another word or two. I have taken the position in my argument that Congress has no power to propose an amendment to the Constitution that would revolutionize the essential nature and character of the Government formed by the Constitution. My further position is, that the proposed amendment does revolutionize the distinctive and peculiar character of the Government; that the Government of the United States is not a single Government; that it is a mixed Government of the United States and the people of the States. The honorable Senator from Michigan, I presume, comprehends me, if I have made myself distinct.

"I then say that, as a part and parcel of our system of government, the government of the States is as essential as the Government of the United States; that it can no more be dispensed with without a revolution and an overthrow of our mixed system of State and Federal Government than could the Government formed by the Constitution of the United States be overthrown without a revolution. I say here, and I maintain as a principle asserted by all the men who assisted in forming the Constitution and who have given any exposition on it, and by every able and accepted commentator on the Constitution, that the government of the States is as much a part of our complex and mixed system of government as the Government of the United States; and in conformity to that principle I assert, as a true proposition, that it would no more change or revolutionize our system of government to destroy the Government of the United States than it would to destroy the governments of the States.

"Now, Mr. President, I advance another step in my argument. I say that a proposition made in Congress to amend the Constitution of the United States by abolishing the United States Government would not come within the scope of the power of Congress to propose amendments to that instrument. I say it would be revolutionary and destructive of our system; and that a power to propose amendments to our system does not involve and cannot carry a proposition to destroy the system. I therefore say that if this proposition was to propose an amendment to the Constitution of the United States by which the Government created by that Constitution should be abolished, such a proposition as that would wholly transcend the power of Congress to propose amendments to the Constitution. I assert as the parallel of that position, that the governments of the States being as necessary, as constitutional, and as proper a portion of our system as the Government of the United States, a proposition to abolish, to destroy, to abrogate the governments of the States it is not competent for Congress to make under the guise of executing the power to propose amendments to the Constitution. That is my position. I say that if the proposition was to create a presidency for life, with succession to his son, Congress has no power, under the article that is professed to be pursued now, to make such a proposition."

Mr. Howard: "If the Senator will allow me, would it be revolutionary and destructive of the Constitution to extend the presidential term from four years to six, as the Confederate government did, or to ten, fifteen, or twenty years, in case the people should see fit to do so?"

Mr. Davis: "I say the proposition to amend the Constitution by extending the presidential term would not be a revolution; it would not alter the essential nature of our Government; but I will tell the Senator what proposition would be of that character. If he was to propose now, as an amendment to the existing proposition, that Senators should hold their offices during their lives, and upon the death of each Senator his place should descend to his eldest son, such a proposition as that would be revolutionary, and it is not competent for Congress under its power to propose amendments to offer any such proposition as that.

"It would be no less revolutionary to abolish the State governments than to take either of the steps that I have indicated. It would be a subversion, a revolution, an overthrow of the essential nature and character of our mixed Government, for Congress to destroy the State governments. Congress, therefore, has no power to make such a proposition in the form of an amendment. I object to this so-called amendment, that it does substantially comprehend such a proposition as that. It is substantially a proposition to abolish the State governments. It carries a principle with it which Congress may at any time carry to that extent. If Congress has the power to regulate the whole subject of suffrage, and to regulate the matter of who shall be eligible to office, that is the substance of the aggregation of the State governments when applied to them; and Congress might as well, and with more propriety—it would be a great deal a less stride of power—proceed at once to abolish, absolutely and without qualification, the State governments. I say that Congress has no such power.

"Chief-Justice Marshall, in the opinion in the case of McCulloch *vs.* The State of Maryland, lays it down that what the people of a State have the power to organize and to institute they have the power to maintain. I ask the honorable Senator from Michigan what people have a right to form a State government for that State? What power is there upon this earth that has the rightful authority to form, to change, to abolish, and to introduce another government instead of the present existing government of the State of Michigan? No other power but the people of that State; and

Chief-Justice Marshall, in the case that I have referred to, states several times the proposition that a power to organize, to create, on the part of a State, imparts and carries with it a power to preserve its own organization. Then every State having the exclusive power to organize its own State government, according to the positions taken by Chief-Justice Marshall in that case, each State government has the power to preserve the State government which it has the right to make. I say that for Congress to interfere with the power of the States to make their governments is as much usurpation of power as it would be for a State to attempt to overthrow the Government of the United States."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected; there being, on a division—yeas 6, nays 38.

Mr. Drake: "I move an amendment to the amendment, to strike out all of section one of the proposed article and insert:

No citizen of the United States shall, on account of his race, color, or previous condition of servitude, be by the United States or any State denied the right to vote or to hold office."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, said: "Mr. President, I think the proposition of the Senator from Missouri is open to the same objection which lies against the amendment of the Committee on the Judiciary. If I understand it rightly, there arises from it the same implication which is derived from the language of the committee, namely, that although the United States, that is, Congress, may not deny or abridge the right to vote and hold office on account of race, or color, or previous condition of slavery, Congress may establish some other test upon the ground that it is fairly implied. Now, sir, I cannot vote myself for any such thing."

Mr. Drake: "I would inquire of the honorable Senator from Michigan if he conceives it to be within the range of possibility in constitutional construction that the express denial to the United States or to any State of the right to do one particular named thing could by implication be held to be an affirmation of its right to do another thing?"

Mr. Howard: "The question is entirely too general in its terms, and does not admit of any definite and exact answer. The clause submitted by the Committee on the Judiciary is this:

The rights of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"As I understand it, the proposition of the Senator from Missouri is tantamount to this. Now, it appears to me very evident that if this clause shall be adopted, there is granted to the United States, by a plain, manifest indication, the power to deny or abridge these rights for some other and any other cause. I cannot give it any other interpretation. I am not perfectly sure, however, that the proposition of the Senator from Missouri is liable to the same objection, because this is the first time I have heard it."

Mr. Drake: "The right to vote is an individual right; it does not belong to masses of people, but it belongs to each individual. When you frame a constitutional provision which is to bear upon the right of the individual and not upon the right of communities, then I take it that almost every gentleman in the Senate will at once recognize the propriety of making the provision apply to the individual directly, and not to masses. Every man who goes to the polls goes upon his own individual right to vote, and his right to vote cannot be affected one way or the other by the right of any mass of people of whom he may be one. Therefore it is that I object so strongly to the language of the House resolution, the putting of these words at the end of the amendment, 'or class of citizens of the United States,' as if my right to vote could by any possibility be affected by the right of any other class of citizens of the United States. It is a great deal better to make it as strictly personal and individual in its bearings as it can be made."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "If I could persuade myself that the amendment reported by the committee does imply, as the Senator from Missouri supposes, that there exists now any citizen of the United States—which is a subject to which the sentence relates—without the right to exercise political privileges, then most certainly I should think that it was a great deal better than any amendment which did not imply such an existing right, because I am one of those, and I may as well say it now as ever, who believe that the fourteenth amendment which we have already adopted has undertaken to secure to citizens of the United States all the privileges and immunities that belong to citizens as such, including, of course, and comprehending all belonging to the class. There is no qualification or limitation, but words the most comprehensive possible in a statute or in a constitution are used. I believe that every citizen of the United States, in respect to whom political rights can be asserted at all, is entitled now to exercise political privileges; and therefore, if there is any man in the United States who was before that amendment entitled to exercise political privileges, that amendment extended to all the citizens similarly situated, without arbitrary and mere fanciful distinctions, such as color, nativity, education, or of religion, an equal right; because if there is any vitality at all in that article, which was so much studied here, and which at last has commanded the assent of three-fourths of the States, it is that it gave the great and comprehensive word 'privileges' to all citizens alike, and that it made secure to them privileges that belonged to the highest class of community.

"What I am calling the attention of the

Senate to is the argument, if I may so speak, of a judge or a lawyer of a construction. Now, if, having last year passed one statute, this year you pass another on the same subject, do you not by a certain implication, at least in the moral sense, raise and put forth the idea that the old statute did not answer the purpose that you are now seeking for? What my friend has said in relation to the inherent and inalienable rights of human nature are not to be prejudiced by any thing in the Constitution. My point is that, by putting something in the Constitution, which we now propose to do, we shall have raised the intellectual question, not the human one, whether we are not concluded by now attempting to make this amendment, that the amendment we made before did not reach the same end. I do not say that that is a sound argument. We may go on making amendment after amendment that have the same legal scope and effect, it is true: but it so happens in the course of human affairs that the world will not accept that idea. The country will believe—and the country in a large degree influences judicial as well as political proceedings—that we are satisfied in both Houses of Congress that the Constitution of the United States as it now stands does not contain any security of political privileges to any man. I do not wish to make that concession."

Mr. Drake: "Will the honorable Senator from Vermont allow me to inquire whether I understand the scope of his argument?"

Mr. Edmunds: "I do not know that you do."

Mr. Drake: "That is exactly what I do not know myself, and I wish to ascertain. The question with me is, on which I wish to get information from the honorable Senator, whether he considers that the first section of the fourteenth article of amendment to the Constitution does now confer upon citizens of the United States the right to vote in the States in which they reside?"

Mr. Edmunds: "Decidedly, Mr. President. I congratulate my friend from Missouri, after this long, sleepless night, on his having understood my proposition perfectly."

Mr. Drake: "Then I must be permitted to say, Mr. President, that I do not think the proposition is a sound one."

Mr. Edmunds: "That, sir, is a question of opinion about which my friend from Missouri will permit me to differ from him, I have no doubt. This fourteenth article, if he will allow me to call his attention to it, was certainly intended to do something. I may make use of the same argument that I was suggesting a moment ago against the wisdom of passing this one. It was intended to make it a subject in addition, was it not, touching the political privileges and rights of citizens of the United States? We have already in the Constitution an express declaration that the privileges and immunities of the citizens of the several States should be guaranteed to them in whatever State they might take up their residence. I am not using the language but the substance of the section, with which my friend is well acquainted. We had that already. We had the article abolishing slavery. What, then, did we lack? What was the fourteenth article designed to secure? What was there left in the range of the rights of citizenship under the Constitution as it stood before the fourteenth article, except exactly that which is covered and comprehended in the broadest of language contained in the fourteenth article, that the privileges and immunities of citizens of the United States shall not be either abridged or denied by the United States or by any State; defining also, what it was possible was open to some question after the Dred Scott decision, who were citizens of the United States."

Mr. Howe: "Will my friend allow me to ask him, if that language secures the right to vote to men, does it not also to women and children?"

Mr. Edmunds: "Not necessarily."

Mr. Howe: "Why not?"

Mr. Edmunds: "For a reason that my friend will find better stated, in a legal point of view, than I can state it, in a decision of the supreme court of the State of Kentucky, pronounced about twenty-five or thirty years ago. He will find it there decided that, in order to be a citizen, in the general and comprehensive sense of the term, such as the fourteenth article defines it to be, a person must have of necessity, as an essential and indispensable ingredient in citizenship, the highest political privileges that belong to any class in society. Then the court proceeded to say that, although that is true, the highest privileges belonging to any class in society are not extended to females, and therefore the qualification as to females is made in this general right upon the same legal principle that it is made as to idiots and insane persons; not that a female is necessarily like either, but, I am speaking in a mere legal sense, as a court would construe it. So, therefore, without at this hour in the day taxing the patience of those who listen to me, by going into the legal and logical argument that can be made and that is made by the courts to deny the right to vote to females, while they assert and maintain that it is an essential and indispensable constituent of the right of manhood citizenship, I refer my friend to those judicial decisions to show that there is comprehended in the very name of citizen in this country, truly and rightly considered and adjudicated, the same great and all-embracing powers that in ancient times applied to a Roman citizen."

Mr. Howe: "But I wish, if my friend will allow me, to ask him if the decision of the supreme court of Kentucky, to which he refers, pronounced twenty-five years ago, is not reversed by this very clause of the Constitution, which says that all persons, born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the juris-

diction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the States in which they reside."

Mr. Edmunds: "Not reversed at all; for that is exactly what the decision holds. It holds that everybody, subject to the qualification I have named, is a citizen of the country for that purpose; that there belongs to everybody who, as a part of the highest class in community, may exercise political privileges, equal political rights; and therefore, as the case was in Kentucky, a male person cannot be a citizen unless, being a citizen, he has breathed into him, at the same moment with the fact that he is a citizen, the right to vote. That is perhaps a sufficient definition of citizenship in the narrow sense we are now speaking of, as distinguishing between the rights of citizens, rather than defining what they are. A citizen is a person in community who, other things being equal, is invested with all the privileges that belong to the highest class in community, by whatever name you may call them."

Mr. Warner, of Alabama, said: "I will ask the Senator from Vermont how long he thinks it would be before the construction which he gives to the Constitution, namely, that the right to vote and hold office inure to citizenship, would be so far enforced as to practically give to every citizen the right to vote and hold office?"

Mr. Edmunds: "I think that depends upon the courageous fortitude and the vigorous aggressive assertion of that right under the Constitution that the two Houses of Congress may show. I believe if we were to pass a law under the fourteenth article of amendment which should assert and put into practical operation what I believe to be the true spirit and life of it, that it would not be two years, or one year, before in three-fourths of the States—more than you can get in one year or ten years for any new amendment of the Constitution—it would be an accomplished fact."

Mr. Drake: "Mr. President, I would not protract this debate a moment longer, if it were not that the honorable Senator from Vermont, it seems to me, has taken an exceedingly erroneous and detrimental view of the first section of the fourteenth article of amendments to the Constitution. We have arrived at the stage of the debate upon this great question when it is exceedingly important that we should understand precisely what we are about and express our views with the utmost perspicuity that we are capable of, for now is the time when we are to select the language that is to go into this amendment.

"The honorable Senator from Vermont takes the position that the fourteenth article of amendment does in fact now, at this moment of time, confer the right to vote upon all citizens of the United States. I am constrained to differ from the Senator from Vermont in that view; and I think it will be apparent to the Senate, by a very brief examination of the terms of that section, that no such claim can be rightfully based upon it. Let us look at the first sentence of that section:

> All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside.

"Does the honorable Senator contend that that sentence is the one which confers upon men the right to vote? If he does, then every State provision with regard to voters is completely overridden and put out of sight. Where they require a man to reside in a State twelve months, that is abrogated and annulled by this sentence, if that be operative to confer the right of suffrage; because the very moment that a man takes up his residence in a State, it may be upon the very morning of the day of election, he can go to the polls and deposit his ballot, notwithstanding the declaration of the constitution of that State that he shall have resided there one year, or two, as is the case in some States.

"I do not think that the honorable Senator from Vermont will claim that that sentence of the first section of the fourteenth article confers upon any man the right of suffrage. It is simply, and never was intended for any thing else than, a definition of what constitutes a citizen of the United States and a citizen of a State—a question that had been debated in this country, about which judicial decisions *pro* and *con.* had been given, and about which the opinions of Attorneys-General of the United States had been given; and yet it was never settled, and probably never would be settled, until settled just in this way.

"Now, sir, let us look at the next portion of that sentence which, from the remarks of the honorable Senator, I take to be the one that he considers to cover the right to vote. It reads thus:

> No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States.

"To make the argument of the Senator from Vermont good, it must be that he holds that a privilege of a citizen of the United States is to vote."

Mr. Edmunds: "Is it not one of yours?"

Mr. Drake: "It is; but I am a citizen also of Missouri, and under her constitution entitled to vote. I say a citizen of the United States merely is not entitled to vote anywhere in the United States. There is not a spot of land in the United States where a man is entitled to vote merely because he is a citizen of the United States. He must comply with the terms of the local constitution or the local law."

Mr. Sumner: "Does the Senator take into view the clause of that amendment by which Congress is expressly empowered to enforce the amendment?"

Mr. Drake: "I do."

Mr. Sumner: "Is there not a source of power in that?"

Mr. Drake: "There is a source of power to enforce all that is written in that amendment."

Mr. Sumner: "That is, to enforce the immunities and privileges of citizens. Congress has plenary power to enforce those immunities and privileges. What more can it have? What amendment can you invent now that will give Congress so much as it has there?"

Mr. Drake: "Mr. President, there is the very assumption again that the word 'privileges' embraces the right to vote; and that is the very thing I am disputing. I say again, and I call upon any Senator here who can do it, to show me where in the United States a man can vote merely because he is a citizen of the United States. I say, fearlessly, nowhere within the limits of the territory of the whole United States. There is, wherever he may be, a local constitution or a local law which prescribes something more than to be a citizen of the United States in order that he shall vote. Every Senator here knows that fact as existing in his own State, and therefore it is that it is impossible that the word 'privileges' as contained in this section of the Constitution can embrace the right to vote because a man is a citizen of the United States."

Mr. Patterson, of New Hampshire: "I should like to call the attention of the gentleman to one point, as I do not wish to speak myself on this subject. If the construction which the Senator from Vermont puts upon this first section of the fourteenth amendment is true, will it not abrogate the educational provision with regard to the right of suffrage in Massachusetts? Will it not abrogate the religious test which is in the letter of the constitution of New Hampshire for officeholding, and the requirement of residence also?"

Mr. Drake: "I would say, with regard to that, that there is just one conclusion to which the constitutional lawyer must come if the construction claimed by the Senator from Vermont is correct; and that is, that every single provision contained in every constitution of every State of this Union is wiped out by that single sentence, except the mere requirement that the man shall be a citizen of the United States, and that it imposes that requirement upon every man in every State, notwithstanding the constitution of the State may admit men to vote who are not citizens of the United States. I do not think that that is a correct construction of this sentence. I think we have more to do. I think that sentence referred only to the privileges and immunities which attach to men as citizens of the United States."

Mr. Edmunds: "What are those?"

Mr. Drake: "Personal, sir; the right to life, liberty, property, and the pursuit of happiness."

Mr. Edmunds: "Do you think, then, that a citizen of the United States would have a right to acquire real estate in your State except he took it by or in conformity to your law?"

Mr. Drake: "No, sir; that is a mere matter of local form."

Mr. Edmunds: "A mere regulation."

Mr. Drake: "A mere regulation as matter of local form."

Mr. Edmunds: "So is the residence of the voter."

Mr. Drake: "But this does not have the effect of wiping out that regulation."

Mr. Edmunds: "It does if it is construed in that way."

Mr. Drake: "If it is to be construed as giving the right to vote, then, as I said before, it does wipe out every thing else, and we stand here then before the whole country claiming that a constitutional amendment, which was adopted without any man in the nation ever saying that it meant that thing, does sweep out from the constitutions of all the States all the requirements of age, of residence, of property, of education. Every thing of that kind is swept away by that one clause, and all men who are citizens of the United States are entitled to vote wherever they may happen to be at the time of the election."

Mr. Edmunds: "I hope the Senate will not be frightened out of any fair construction of the fourteenth article, or any other article, by the tremendous consequences which my friend from Missouri has painted. I do not think it would be very frightful if it should happen that the clause in the constitution of New Hampshire which requires a certain religious test—I do not know whether it is Mohammedan or Christian or what it may be—for holding office, or the clause in any other State constitution which limits the right to vote to persons of a particular race, were swept away. The question is, after all, what is the fair, legal construction that can be fairly put upon language which is to be interpreted favorably and beneficially for the enlargement of the rights of men. The argument that the Senator from Missouri has addressed to us is based purely upon consequences that he supposes to be absurd or inconvenient which are to flow from that construction.

"Now, sir, to condense; the key to this whole question between my friend and me is here: if it is one of the essential privileges of citizenship, as my friend knows that it is to him and to me, to vote, to exercise political power, then the Constitution says that the privileges which belong to him and me shall not be denied or abridged by any State.

"The Constitution does not say that the privileges and immunities of a particular class, a chosen few, shall not be denied or abridged. It does not declare that in the State of New Hampshire the privileges and the immunities of Protestants shall not be abridged or denied. It does not say that in Massachusetts the privileges and immunities of those who can read and write and know how to defend themselves shall not be denied; but it is a comprehensive term as well in the objects over which it rests as in the subject of which it speaks; and the difficulty which my friend has suggested, that

it wipes away every regulation of the exercise of rights in the States because it gives those rights, is purely imaginary. Every lawyer knows, every statesman knows, every intelligent man in the country knows that it is one thing to have a right which is absolute and inalienable, and it is another thing for the body of the community to regulate equally and fairly the exercise of that right."

Mr. Drake: "I wish to inquire of the Senator whether, when he votes at the polls in the State of Vermont, he votes there as a citizen of the United States or as a citizen of Vermont?"

Mr. Edmunds: "Both."

Mr. Drake: "Then both being done, one would not suffice. The citizenship of the United States would not suffice."

Mr. Edmunds: "The Constitution answers that question. It declares that because I am a citizen of the United States I am a citizen, for that reason, of the State of Vermont, if I reside there. That is the very language of it."

Mr. Howard: "I wish to say but one word on this subject. I feel it a duty to make a single remark. As many of the Senators well know, I served on the joint Committee on Reconstruction, who reported the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution to the Senate and to the House of Representatives; and I am not unfamiliar with the object of that amendment. It was discussed at great length before the committee, and by the committee, as well as in the Senate; and I feel constrained to say here now that this is the first time it ever occurred to me that the right to vote was to be derived from the fourteenth article. I think such a construction cannot be maintained. No such thing was contemplated on the part of the committee which reported the amendment; and, if I recollect rightly, nothing to that effect was said in debate in the Senate when it was on its passage.

"One word further. The construction which is now sought to be put upon the first section of this fourteenth article, it seems to me, is plainly and flatly contradicted by what follows in the second section of the same article. After declaring in the first section that—

> All persons born or naturalized in the United States and subject to the jurisdiction thereof are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside;

"And after declaring that—

> No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States;

"The second section goes on to say:

> But when the right to vote at any election for the choice of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States, Representatives in Congress, the executive and judicial officers of a State, or the members of the Legislature thereof, is denied to any of the male inhabitants of such State, etc.

Plainly and in the clearest possible terms recognizing the right of each State to regulate the suffrage and to impart or to declare the necessary qualifications of voters for members of the House of Representatives, electors of President and Vice-President, and members of the State Legislature. Sir, can any thing be clearer?"

Mr. Sumner: "The Senator is aware that that was denied at that time, and it would not have passed the Senate had anybody attributed to it that meaning. That I am able to say. It could not have passed the Senate. The Senator knows very well that there was an amendment, as it came from the House of Representatives, that was susceptible of such an interpretation; and I felt it my duty to oppose it, which I did at great length and most elaborately, precisely on the ground that it did abandon to the States the power to discriminate against colored persons; I refused to support that amendment, and I associated myself with others in that refusal. The Senator from Illinois (Mr. Yates) took part in that discussion, and he was associated with me in consultation to defeat the amendment. We did defeat it, and on that ground, that it conceded to the States the power to discriminate against colored persons. We said we would have nothing to do with any such proposition. Then this article was brought forward, and it was sustained on that avowed ground, that it did no such thing."

Mr. Howard: "I have but another word to say. The occasion of introducing the first section of the fourteenth article of amendment into that amendment grew out of the fact that there was nothing in the whole Constitution to secure absolutely the citizens of the United States in the various States against an infringement of their rights and privileges under the second section of the fourth article of the old Constitution. That section declares that—

> The citizens of each State shall be entitled to all privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States.

"There it was plainly written down. Now, sir, it seems to me, that, unless the Senator from Vermont and the Senator from Massachusetts can derive the right of voting from this ancient second section of the fourth article upon the ground that the citizens of each State are entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens of the several States, they must give up the argument; and I assert here with confidence that no such construction was ever given to the second section of the fourth article of the Constitution.

"Now, sir, the first section of the fourteenth article, in the first place, makes the declaration that—

> All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside.

"That had not previously been enacted. Then follows the inhibitory clause, which was deemed so important by the committee, that—

> No State shall make or enforce any law which shall

abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States.

"The immediate object of this was to prohibit for the future all hostile legislation on the part of the recently rebel States in reference to the colored citizens of the United States who had become emancipated, and who finally were declared to be citizens by the civil rights bill passed by Congress. It was to secure them against any infringement or violation of their rights by those Southern Legislatures. That is the whole history of it."

Mr. Sumner: "The Senate must meet very soon again, and can then come to a vote on all these different propositions and give them the attention they deserve. I therefore move that the Senate adjourn."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the motion of the Senator from Massachusetts, that the Senate adjourn."

Mr. Stewart called for the yeas and nays, and they were ordered; and, being taken, resulted—yeas 11, nays 37; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Sumner, Vickers, and Yates—11.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Spencer, Stewart, Thayer, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—37.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Conkling, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Grimes, Henderson, Morton, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Pool, Sherman, Sprague, Tipton, and Whyte—18.

So the Senate refused to adjourn.

Mr. Cragin, of New Hampshire, said: "Mr. President, I did not think that I could possibly be tempted to say any thing in reference to the question now under consideration; but the position taken by the Senator from Vermont greatly surprises me. When I remember the struggle that we had here in the passage of the fourteenth amendment; when I remember that it was announced upon this floor by more than one gentleman, and contradicted and denied by no one, so far as I recollect, that that amendment did not confer the right of voting upon anybody, I say I am surprised that such a position should be taken at this late hour in the debate. There is no doubt upon the question. It was the understanding of Congress and of the people of this country that that amendment did not confer and did not seek to confer any right to vote upon any citizen of the United States. That amendment was passed after the passage of the civil rights bill. That law had not been carried out. It had not been enforced. It was passed also for the purpose of deciding once and forever that the emancipated slave was a citizen of the United States. There were other reasons which entered into the consideration of that question. But that it conferred the right to vote was distinctly disclaimed on this floor in the caucus which has been alluded to here to-night; and, for one, I am not willing to have it go out from this Senate that we passed that amendment understanding that it conferred any right to vote."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Missouri to the amendment of the Senator from Nevada."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question now is on the amendment offered by the Senator from Nevada."

Mr. Howard: "I now offer the amendment to which I referred during the discussion as a substitute for the pending amendment. It is as follows:

Citizens of the United States of African descent shall have the same right to vote and hold office in States and Territories as other citizens, electors of the most numerous branch of their respective Legislatures."

Mr. Sumner: "If we are to have a constitutional amendment now, I want to have it as complete as possible, so that it shall provide against any possible necessity of any amendment hereafter. It will be observed that this amendment of my friend from Michigan, like the amendment of the committee, is confined simply to the right to vote and hold office. It seems to me that we ought to make a complete work, and to provide for full equality of rights in all respects. If there be any other particular under the head of right, we ought to secure it to all persons, without distinction of color. I propose, therefore, to add to the amendment of my friend from Michigan these words:

And there shall be no discrimination in rights on account of race or color.

"Of course the object of this is to broaden the proposition, not merely to make it a guarantee of the right to vote and to hold office, but a guarantee of equal rights universally."

Mr. Drake: "I would ask the honorable Senator from Massachusetts what is the necessity for that, in view of the language of the first section of the fourteenth article of the amendment to the Constitution, which says:

Nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law, nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws."

Mr. Sumner: "I should answer the Senator's question by putting him another. What is the use of the constitutional amendment on which you are now to vote?"

Mr. Drake: "Just the very use that it expresses on its face, to secure the right of suffrage to these men whose personal and legal rights we had guaranteed in the previous amendment, but had not guaranteed to them the right of suffrage."

Mr. Sumner: "I differ radically and entirely from my friend, and I think there is just the

same necessity for the supplementary provision that I propose as there is for the provision which has his support. If the clause to which he calls attention is inadequate to protect persons in their rights of citizenship, including the right to vote, it is inadequate to protect them in any thing; the clause is so much waste-paper. Now, are we in earnest? Are we disposed to close this question up so that no petitions hereafter shall come to us asking equal rights protected either by Congress or by constitutional amendment? I say I want to make complete work and finish it so that hereafter there shall be no question. It is on that account that I would make the addition to the proposition of my friend from Michigan."

Mr. Edmunds: "I hope the Senate will not agree to that amendment. It does not, as it seems to me, stand on any principle. It limits constitutional privileges to persons of African descent, selecting one particular and peculiar nationality. It does appear to me that there is nothing republican in that. It may do as an expedient for to-day."

Mr. Ferry, of Connecticut, said: "I am in favor of the proposition of the Senator from Michigan, because it meets and remedies the one existing evil with regard to which there is yet an omission in the Constitution of the United States."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "I hope this amendment will be adopted, because it is explicit and declares just exactly what we mean. We either mean to enfranchise the African or not in this country by means of this amendment. If we mean that, we say it, and it is understood by everybody. If we mean to provide that all foreigners of all races and conditions and classes, whether from Asia or Africa, shall come in here and enjoy the privileges of this amendment, then we ought to adopt some language to accomplish that purpose; but, as suggested by the Senator from Connecticut, the practical evil in this country at this time is that persons of African descent are disfranchised. We propose to provide a remedy, and we do not exclude anybody else by this amendment, but we provide that those persons shall have the right to vote and to hold office, if it becomes necessary, as I have no doubt it will."

Mr. Cole, of California, said: "I am in favor of the amendment of the Senator from Michigan which has just been read. It will effectually leave out of the question the subject of the Chinese immigration which has excited so much feeling on the part of Senators not from the Pacific coast. I am not myself apprehensive of any great difficulty arising from that source. The Chinese, to be sure, in some numbers come to the Pacific coast, but not with the intention of becoming citizens. I presume no application on the part of a single one of them has been made to become a citizen of the United States. So wedded are they to their native country, the Celestial Empire, that even the dead are taken back there. This proposition of the Senator from Michigan goes to the extent of enfranchising native-born Americans. It is entirely different in its scope and extent from one which would include the Chinese."

Mr. Edmunds: "Mr. President, we are now coming to an important practical question, and I shall be excused, for one, I have no doubt, for expressing my views briefly upon it; because I regard this amendment, if adopted, as fatal in its consequences to the very ends that gentlemen wish to attain. I wish gentlemen to bear in mind that all that we propose to do to amend the Constitution is to confer upon citizens, not upon aliens, certain rights that we suppose them now to be deprived of either legally or illegally. It has nothing to do with the question whether the Asiatic race should be received into the family of this nation as citizens. It only speaks as to the political status of citizens of the United States. Now, I should be glad to know what sort of a spectacle we shall make in history, dealing with our male adult citizens, if we declare in the fudamental law which regulates the very substructure of society that the citizens of African descent shall be entitled to certain privileges by name."

Mr. Ferry: "Entitled to the same rights with other citizens."

Mr. Edmunds: "Yes, entitled to the same rights with other citizens; and then the question arises, what are the rights of other citizens? Taking the view that in the present state of constitutional law it belongs to the States and is with them, the rights of some citizens of Connecticut are one thing and of other citizens another thing. Which class of citizens of Connecticut is to furnish the standard of comparison?"

Mr. Warner, of Alabama, said: "I hope this amendment will not be adopted. I hope the Congress of this country will not single out one race for protection; but that we shall go at once to the broad, grand, affirmative proposition which shall secure the object the Senator from Vermont so well states—that of securing to all the citizens of this country their rights. I think this proposition to single out one race is the weakest one that can be put before the country. If we want to strengthen it and give it a chance of adoption, we ought to amend it and insert the Irish and Germans. I think to single out one race is unworthy of the country and unworthy of the great opportunity now presented to us. We ought to go to the root of the matter by putting in the fundamental law a provision which will make the Constitution beyond doubt mean what the Senators from Vermont and Massachusetts now understand it to mean."

Mr. Patterson, of New Hampshire, said: "I hope that this proposition will be adopted; for, of all the amendments which have been offered, I think it is the best. Our object is to meet a

wrong done to a class of black native citizens; to give them the same privileges that other citizens of the United States possess. The Constitution gives to the United States the right to establish a uniform system of naturalization; so that Europeans and Asiatics coming to our coast may be naturalized upon the same conditions in California and in New York. So by the passage of this proposition we shall relieve these black citizens, native to the soil, from the wrong which is done them, without doing any wrong to the Asiatics who may flow in upon our Western shores. I prefer, for one, to leave that question open, so that, if a war springs up in Asia and these increasing tides of immigration from Asia pour upon our Pacific coast in such numbers as to endanger the welfare of those States, they may have it in their power to guard themselves against the threatened evils, and then, if any evil should result, it will be in our power to remedy it. 'Sufficient unto the day is the evil thereof.' Let us meet this evil, and not, in attempting to meet it, provide others that we know not of."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Michigan to the amendment of the Senator from Nevada."

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted—yeas 16, nays 35; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Chandler, Cole, Corbett, Cragin, Ferry, Harlan, Howard, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wade, Welch, and Williams—16.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Bayard, Buckalew, Cameron, Cattell, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Frelinghuysen, Harris, Hendricks, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of Tennessee, Ramsey, Rice, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, Whyte, Willey, Wilson, and Yates—35.

ABSENT—Messrs. Conklin, Conness, Davis, Dixon, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Morton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Pool, Robertson, Ross, and Sprague—15.

So the amendment to the amendment was rejected.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is now on the amendment of the Senator from Nevada."

Mr. Warner: "I wish to move a substitute for the whole proposition."

The Chief Clerk: "The proposed amendment is to strike out all after 'section one' and to insert the following:

The right of citizens of the United States to hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of property, race, color, or previous condition of servitude; and every male citizen of the United States of the age of twenty-one years, or over, and who is of sound mind, shall have an equal vote at all elections in the State in which he shall have actually resided for a period of one year next preceding such election, except such as may hereafter engage in insurrection or rebellion against the United States, and such as shall be duly convicted of treason, felony, or other infamous crimes."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, I thought nothing would tempt me to say one word in this debate on the constitutional amendment, but Senators have already perceived the difficulty we are approaching, and we might as well at once face the issue. There are five different causes of exclusion from the right to vote in this and other countries. The first is race. This cause of exclusion has existed in this country in nearly all the States until recently. The second is property, and that has existed in England since the foundation of their government. The third is religion, which exists in almost all countries except our own. The fourth is nativity, and that exists in nearly all countries. The fifth is education, and that is an experiment of ours, I believe, in Massachusetts.

"Now, Mr. President, if we are endeavoring to settle this question once for all, I think it would be wiser and better to declare that every male citizen of the United States, native or naturalized, above the age of twenty-one years, shall have the right to vote, unless he is excluded for crime; and that no State shall exclude any one from the right to vote because of his race, because of his property or want of property, because of his religion, because of his birthplace, or because of the misfortune of want of education. As this amendment makes the nearest approach to that, I have made up my mind to vote for it, or I shall vote for the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Wilson). I do not like to apply a rule so narrow and limited as to guarantee rights to the African race which we refuse to the Asiatic race or to other races. I do not wish to include the ignorant masses of our Southern population and exclude the partially-intelligent classes of the State of Massachusetts. I do not want to include the negroes and exclude or allow a State to exclude foreigners who are declared to be citizens of the United States under the laws of the United States.

"Therefore, it does seem to me that, if we intend to now prescribe a rule for suffrage in this country, we ought to make it operate universally and withdraw from the States all power to exclude any portion of the male citizens of the United States, leaving them, if they choose, to regulate the length of residence, whether females shall participate in the elective franchise, at what age males shall vote, etc.; but to exclude from them all power to deprive any portion of our male citizens above the age of twenty-one years of the right to vote, unless where the right has been forfeited by crime. If the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts is voted down and this amendment is voted down, then the next best proposition, I think, is that report of the Committee on the Judiciary, which I shall then vote for."

Mr. Howard: "I have two objections to this amendment. The first is that it proposes to change the existing Constitution in refer-

ence to qualifications of President of the United States. If this amendment shall be adopted, then that clause of the Constitution which requires that the President of the United States shall be a native-born citizen of the United States is repealed, and any person who has been naturalized and then become a citizen of the United States will be eligible to the office of President; and so of the members of the Senate."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, said: "Mr. President, I do not propose to prolong this debate or discuss the merits of the particular amendment now pending. I am satisfied that no argument will avail in this body to prevent the passage of this amendment in some form, or as to effect its particular object, the grant of the franchise of suffrage to the negro race.

"The fiat has gone forth, and the fell spirit of party, the bane of republics, has decreed its passage. I have yet the hope, however, that many of even Republican members of the State Legislatures will have sufficient sense of duty to regard the confidence and good faith which in all free governments should always be maintained between the representative and his constituents, and that they will decline in many of the States to act upon the proposed amendment without first ascertaining the will of their constituents, and if that will is ascertained I have no fears as to the decision of the people.

"Sir, the mode and time at which this amendment has been introduced and the pressure for its passage in the last month of an expiring Congress show conclusively that it is intended to fetter the people—to throw a chain around the limbs of the giant while he slumbers. Whether you succeed or fail in your object, you may yet find that the people have more than the single eye of Polyphemus, and when the giant awakens many of you will seek in vain to escape his just vengeance by creeping under the bellies of sheep, like Ulysses and his companions.

"I shall make no further opposition to the amendment in any form you may please to mould it, beyond my negative vote."

Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, said: "Mr. President, this proposition of the Senator from Alabama is one of universal suffrage and universal amnesty. I confess that I should like to feel myself authorized to extend amnesty and make it universal now, and I shall take pleasure in doing so whenever I can be convinced that the true interests, the welfare, the safety, the public peace of the country will justify it. The time has not yet come when we can venture so far as that. We have not fully justified ourselves yet in imposing this restriction in our previous legislation. I have not yet seen those fruits meet for repentance to justify me in responding to the inclinations of my feelings and my heart. I, therefore, while that feature remains in the proposition of the Senator from Alabama, allowing those who have been so recently engaged in a most terrible effort to overthrow the best of all governments on the face of the earth to be reintroduced into the political control of the government—I say at present I cannot bring myself to allow that to be done if I can prevent it."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Alabama to the amendment of the Senator from Nevada."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts, said: "I desire to submit an amendment, to strike out section one and insert the following:

There shall be no discrimination in any State among the citizens of the United States in the exercise of the elective franchise in any election therein, or in the qualifications of office in any State, on account of race, color, nativity, property, education, or religious belief."

Mr. Anthony, of Rhode Island, said: "It is now within half an hour of the usual time of meeting for to-morrow, and in order to make the Journal read correctly there should be an adjournment, and I think, Mr. President, something is due to the officers of the Senate."

On motion of Mr. Anthony, at eleven o'clock and thirty-five minutes A. M. (Tuesday, February 9), the Senate adjourned.

In the Senate on February 9th, Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, moved that the consideration of the constitutional amendment be taken up. The question was on the adoption of the amendment offered by Mr. Wilson, of Massachusetts.

The yeas and nays were ordered; and, being taken, resulted—yeas 19, nays 24; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Cattell, Conness, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Howe, McDonald, Morton, Ramsey, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Sumner, Van Winkle, Wade, Welch, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—19.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Bayard, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Davis, Dixon, Fessenden, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Howard, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Norton, Nye, Patterson of Tennessee, Rice, Robertson, Spencer, Stewart, Trumbull, Vickers, and Willey—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckalew, Cameron, Chandler, Cragin, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Henderson, Hendricks, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Pool, Saulsbury, Sprague, Thayer, Tipton, Warner, and Whyte—28.

So the amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Sawyer, of South Carolina, said: "I move to amend the amendment by striking out all of section one of the amendment reported by the committee, and inserting the following:

The right to vote and hold office in the United States and the several States and Territories shall belong to all male citizens of the United States who are twenty-one years old, and who have not been or shall not be duly convicted of treason or other infamous crime: *Provided*, That nothing herein contained shall deprive the several States of the right to make such registration laws as shall be deemed necessary to guard the purity of elections and to fix

the terms of residence which shall precede the exercise of the right to vote: *And provided*, That the United States and the several States shall have the right to fix the age and other qualifications for office under their respective jurisdictions, which said registration laws, terms of residence, age, and other qualifications, shall be uniformly applicable to all male citizens of the United States."

The amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Fowler, of Tennessee, said: "I now offer my amendment, to strike out all of section one of the amendment reported by the committee, and to insert:

All the male citizens of the United States, residents of the several States now or hereafter comprehended in the Union, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, shall be entitled to an equal vote in all elections in the State wherein they shall reside; the period of such residence as a qualification for voting to be decided by each State, except such citizens as shall engage in rebellion or insurrection, or shall be duly convicted of treason or other infamous crime."

The yeas and nays were ordered; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Cragin, Dixon, Fowler, Patterson of Tennessee, Ross, Sherman, Van Winkle, and Wilson—9.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cattell, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Davis, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sawyer, Spencer, Stewart, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Wade, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Yates—35.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckalew, Cameron, Chandler, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Grimes, Henderson, Hendricks, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, Sprague, Sumner, Thayer, Warner, and Whyte—22.

So the amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Conness, of California, said: "In the first line of the committee's amendment the word 'or' occurs between the words 'States' and 'by.' I move to insert the word 'nor' instead of 'or;' so that it shall read:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States nor by any State."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from California to the amendment of the committee."

The amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Vickers, of Maryland, said: "I desire to offer an amendment to the amendment. It is to insert at the end of the amendment the following:

Nor shall the right to vote be denied or abridged because of participation in the recent rebellion."

The question was taken by yeas and nays, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Ferry, Fowler, Grimes, Harlan, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Ramsey, Robertson, Sawyer, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, and Wilson—21.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cattell, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harris, Howard, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Rice, Ross, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Wade, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Yates—32.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Edmunds, Henderson, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Osborn, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, Sprague, Warner, and Whyte—13.

So the amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, said: "I move to amend the amendment by inserting after the word 'vote' in the first line the words 'for electors of President and Vice-President and members of the House of Representatives of the United States;' and by inserting after the word 'office' in the second line the words 'under the United States;' so as to make the clause read:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote for electors of President and Vice-President and members of the House of Representatives of the United States, and hold office under the United States, shall not be denied or abridged by the United States nor by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The yeas and nays were ordered; and, being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Grimes, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Saulsbury, and Van Winkle—12.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cattell, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Vickers, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—42.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Chandler, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Henderson, Kellogg, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Sprague, and Whyte—12.

So the amendment to the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Corbett, of Oregon, said: "Mr. President, I had the honor to offer an amendment, which I intend to call up at the proper time for consideration, to be added after the amendment of the committee, in these words:

But Chinamen not born in the United States and Indians not taxed shall not be deemed or made citizens."

The amendment was rejected.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment of the Senator from Massachusetts (Mr. Wilson) to the amendment proposed by the Senator from Nevada (Mr. Stewart)."

The yeas and nays were ordered, and resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Conness, Cragin, Ferry, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Hendricks, Howe, McDonald, Morton, Osborn, Pool, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Buckalew, Chandler,

Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Dixon, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Ramsey, Saulsbury, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Trumbull, Vickers, and Whyte—27.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Davis, Fowler, Henderson, Howard, Kellogg, Norton, and Pomeroy—8.

So the amendment to the amendment was agreed to.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on the amendment as amended."

The amendment as amended was agreed to.

Mr. Buckalew: "Now, I offer my amendment, to add:

That the foregoing amendment shall be submitted for ratification to the Legislatures of the several States the most numerous branches of which shall be chosen next after the passage of this resolution."

The yeas and nays were ordered, and resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Van Winkle, Vickers, and Whyte—13.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howe, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—43.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Grimes, Henderson, Howard, Kellogg, McDonald, Norton, Osborn, Pomeroy, and Sprague—10.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Dixon: "I now offer my amendment. It is in the fourth line of the resolution to strike out the words 'the Legislatures of' and insert 'conventions,' and in the sixth line to strike out the word 'Legislatures' and insert 'conventions;' so as to read:

That the following article be proposed to conventions in the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said conventions, shall be held a part of said Constitution.

"I ask that the question may be taken by yeas and nays."

The yeas and nays were ordered, and resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Vickers, and Whyte—11.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—45.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Fowler, Grimes, Henderson, Howard, Morton, Norton, Osborn, Pomeroy, and Sprague—10.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Morton: "I offer the following amendment, which is reported unanimously by the Committee on Representative Reform, to come in as an additional article:

ARTICLE —. The second clause, first section, article two of the Constitution of the United States shall be amended to read as follows: each State shall appoint, by a vote of the people thereof qualified to vote for Representatives in Congress, a number of electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust and profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector; and the Congress shall have power to prescribe the manner in which such electors shall be chosen by the people."

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on agreeing to this amendment."

The yeas and nays were ordered; and, being taken, resulted—yeas 27, nays 29; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Cattell, Dixon, Doolittle, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Hendricks, Kellogg, McDonald, Morton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Rice, Ross, Sawyer, Spencer, Van Winkle, Vickers, Wade, Warner, Welch, Whyte, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—27.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howe, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of Tennessee, Ramsey, Robertson, Sherman, Sprague, Stewart, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, and Yates—29.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Edmunds, Henderson, Howard, Norton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, and Thayer—10.

So the amendment was rejected.

Mr. Sumner: "I move an amendment to strike out all after the enacting clause and insert the following:

That the right to vote, to be voted for, and to hold office, shall not be denied or abridged anywhere in the United States under any pretence of race or color; and all provisions in any State constitutions or in any laws, State, Territorial, or municipal, inconsistent herewith are hereby declared null and void.

SEC. 2. That any person who, under any pretence of race or color, wilfully hinders or attempts to hinder any citizen of the United States from being registered, or from voting, or from being voted for, or from holding office, or who attempts by menaces to deter any such citizen from the exercise or enjoyment of the rights of citizenship above mentioned, shall be punished by a fine not less than $100 nor more than $3,000, or by imprisonment in the common jail for not less than thirty days nor more than one year.

SEC. 3. That every person legally engaged in preparing a register of voters, or in holding or conducting an election, who wilfully refuses to register the name or to receive, count, return, or otherwise give the proper legal effect to the vote of any citizen under any pretence of race or color, shall be punished by a fine not less than $500 nor more than $4,000, or by imprisonment in the common jail for not less than three calendar months nor more than two years.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the district courts of the United States shall have exclusive jurisdiction of all offences against this act; and the district attorneys, marshals, and deputy marshals, the commissioners appointed by the circuit and territorial courts of the United States, with powers of arresting, imprisoning, or bailing offenders, and every other officer specially empowered by the President of the United States, shall be, and they are hereby, required, at the expense of the United States, to institute proceedings against any person who violates this act, and cause him to be arrested and imprisoned or bailed, as

the case may be, for trial before such court as by this act has cognizance of the offence.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That every citizen, unlawfully deprived of any of the rights of citizenship secured by this act, under any pretence of race or color, may maintain a suit against any person so depriving him, and recover damages in the district court of the United States for the district in which such person may be found."

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted—yeas 9, nays 47; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Edmunds, McDonald, Nye, Ross, Sumner, Thayer, Wade, Wilson, and Yates—9.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Bayard, Buckalew, Cameron, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Drake, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Hendricks, Howe, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, White, Willey, and Williams—47.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cattell, Henderson, Howard, Kellogg, Norton, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Tipton, and Welch—10.

So the amendment was rejected.

The joint resolution was reported to the Senate as amended.

The President *pro tempore:* "The question is on concurring in the amendment made as in Committee of the Whole."

The amendment made as in Committee of the Whole was concurred in.

Mr. Morton: "I desire to renew the amendment I offered in regard to electing electors directly by the people, which was to insert as an additional article the following:

ARTICLE XVI.—The second clause, first section, second article of the Constitution of the United States shall be amended to read as follows: each State shall appoint, by a vote of the people thereof qualified to vote for Representatives in Congress, a number of electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an elector; and the Congress shall have power to prescribe the manner in which such electors shall be chosen by the people."

The result was announced as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Cameron, Cattell, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Dixon, Doolittle, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Spencer, Thayer, Vickers, Wade, Warner, Welch, Whyte, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—37.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Chandler, Cragin, Davis, Drake, Edmunds, Frelinghuysen, Harris, Hendricks, McCreery, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Sherman, Stewart, Trumbull, Van Winkle, and Yates—19.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Henderson, Howard, Norton, Nye, Pomeroy, Sprague, Sumner, and Tipton—10.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Morton: "There is another amendment connected with this, providing for its separate submission, which should be adopted along with the amendment, so that there will be no controversy about that."

Mr. Wilson: "I suggest to the Senator from Indiana that he is periling the whole measure by this proposition."

Mr. Morton: "I move to amend the preliminary part of the resolution so as to make it read:

Be it resolved, etc. (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following articles be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as amendments to the Constitution of the United States, either of which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be held as part of said Constitution."

The resolution was read the third time.

Mr. Wilson: "I move the reconsideration of the vote ordering the joint resolution to a third reading."

The motion to reconsider was agreed to.

Mr. Wilson: "Now, I move to reconsider the vote by which the amendment was adopted."

Mr. Anthony: "I move to recommit the whole subject to the Committee on the Judiciary."

The motion to recommit was not agreed to.

The amendments were ordered to be engrossed, and the joint resolution to be read a third time.

The resolution was read the third time.

The President *pro tempore:* "On the passage of this resolution the yeas and nays must be taken to ascertain whether the constitutional two-thirds required is obtained. The Clerk will therefore call the roll."

The question being taken by yeas and nays, resulted—yeas 39, nays 16; as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Harlan, Harris, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Thayer, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—39.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Corbett, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fowler, Grimes, Hendricks, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Sprague, Vickers, and Whyte—16.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckalew, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Henderson, Howard, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Sumner, Tipton, and Trumbull—11.

The President *pro tempore:* "Two-thirds having voted in the affirmative, the joint resolution is passed."

In the House, on February 15th, Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, moved to take up the amendments of the Senate to the House joint resolution, which was agreed to, and the amendments of the Senate read as follows:

Line two add the letter "s" to the word "article."

Line three strike out the word "an" and add "s" to "amendment."

Line four, after "State," insert "either of."

After line six insert "first amendment."

Strike out the first section and insert in lieu thereof:

No discrimination shall be made in any State among the citizens of the United States in the exercise of the elective franchise or in the right to hold office in any State, on account of race, color, nativity, property, education, or creed.

At the end of the resolution insert the following:

Second amendment:

ARTICLE —. The second clause, first section, second article of the Constitution of the United States shall be amended to read as follows:

Each State shall appoint, by a vote of the people thereof qualified to vote for Representatives in Congress, a number of electors equal to the whole number of Senators and Representatives to which the State may be entitled in the Congress; but no Senator or Representative or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States shall be appointed an elector; and the Congress shall have power to prescribe the manner in which such electors shall be chosen by the people.

Amend the title of the resolution by striking out "an" and adding "s" to "amendment."

Mr. Boutwell said: Here is a proposition in regard to electors which has not been considered in this House. The proposition concerning suffrage has been materially changed. I have considered whether it is practicable to concur in the amendments of the Senate with an amendment, but I have come to the conclusion that that, as a matter of business, is impracticable. I see no way in the present condition of things except to non-concur in the action of the Senate, and to ask for a committee of conference, and I make that motion."

Mr. Bingham, of Ohio, moved that the House concur, which motion had the precedence.

The question was taken, and decided in the negative, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Axtell, Baker, Beatty, Bingham, Buckland, Sidney Clarke, Coburn, Cullom, Deweese, Dickey, Dockery, Donnelly, Eggleston, Haughey, Heaton, Asahel W. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Kitchen, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Nunn, Orth, Pile, Plants, Poland, Scofield, Shanks, Spalding, Stover, Thomas, John Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Welker, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, and Stephen F. Wilson—57.

NAYS—Messrs. Anderson, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Beck, Benjamin, Benton, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Boyer, Bromwell, Brooks, Buckley, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Callis, Cary, Chanler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Clift, Cobb, Corley, Cornell, Covode, Dawes, Driggs, Edwards, Eldridge, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Fox, Glossbrenner, Gove, Gravely, Grover, Haight, Hamilton, Hawkins, Higby, Holman, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Humphrey, Hunter, Jenckes, Johnson, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Julian Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Kerr, Ketcham, Knott, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, Loan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marshall, Marvin, McCarthy, McCormick, McKee, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mungen, Myers, Newcomb, Newsham, Niblack, Nicholson, Norris, O'Neill, Plaine, Perham, Peters, Phelps, Pierce, Polsley, Pomeroy, Price, Prince, Pruyn, Randall, Raum, Robertson, Robinson, Roots, Ross, Sawyer, Shellabarger, Sitgreaves, Smith, Starkweather, Stewart, Stokes, Stone, Taber, Taffe, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Burt Van Horn, Van Trump, Van Wyck, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Whittemore, William Williams, Windom, Wood, Woodward, and Young—133.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Allison, Ames, Archer, Arnell, Bailey, Baldwin, Barnes, Blackburn, Boles, Broomall, Cake, Cook, Delano, Dixon, Dodge, Eckley, Ela, French, Garfield, Getz, Golladay, Goss, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Hill, Hooper, Richard D. Hubbard, Judd, Lincoln, Logan, Maynard, McCullough, Mercur, Morrissey, Mullins, Pettis, Pike, Schenck, Selye, Stevens, Sypher, Taylor, Tift, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Thomas Williams, and Woodbridge—52.

In the Senate, on February 17th, Mr. Stewart, of Nevada, moved to take up the message of the House, asking for a committee of conference on the constitutional amendment. The motion was agreed to, and Mr. Stewart further moved that the Senate insist on its amendments and agree to the conference. Subsequently Mr. Stewart withdrew this motion, and moved that the Senate recede from its amendment and concur in the House proposition. On a division of the question, the motion to recede was adopted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Robertson, Stewart, Thayer, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Yates—33.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Fowler, Harlan, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Rice, Ross, Saulsbury, Sherman, Spencer, Vickers, Wade, Warner, Whyte, and Wilson—24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Conness, Grimes, Henderson, Howe, Ramsey, Sawyer, Sprague, Sumner, and Tipton—9.

The question was then taken on concurring in the resolution of the House, and rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sherman, Stewart, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Williams, and Yates—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fowler, Grimes, Hendricks, McCreery, McDonald, Norton, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Spencer, Sumner, Thayer, Vickers, Warner, Welch, Whyte, and Wilson—27.

This closed the proceedings on the proposition of the House.

The motion was then made that the Senate, as in Committee of the Whole, resume the consideration of a joint resolution reported January 15th, and amended January 28th, proposing an amendment to the Constitution, which was agreed to.

The Chief Clerk: "The resolution when last up was amended to read as follows:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, namely:

ARTICLE XV. The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation."

Mr. Stewart: "I move to insert the word 'by' before the words 'any State;' so as to read, 'shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State.'"

The amendment was agreed to.

The joint resolution was then reported to the Senate as amended in Committee of the Whole, and agreed to. It was then adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Spencer, Stewart, Thayer, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—35.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Vickers, and Whyte—11.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Conness, Corbett, Dixon, Doolittle, Fessenden, Grimes, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Morrill of Maine, Nye, Sherman, Sprague, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, and Yates—20.

In the House, on February 20th, the rules were suspended, and the joint resolution of the Senate taken up. All amendments were rejected except one by Mr. Bingham, to strike out in line three the words "by the United States or," and to insert in line four, after the word "color," the words "nativity, property, creed;" so that it will read as follows:

The right of citizens of the United States to vote and hold office shall not be denied or abridged by any State on account of race, color, nativity, property, creed, or previous condition of servitude—

which was agreed to, yeas 92, nays 70; and the resolution was subsequently passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Baker, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bowen, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckland, Buckley, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Corley, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dickey, Dockery, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, French, Garfield, Goss, Gove, Gravely, Griswold, Halsey, Hamilton, Haughey, Heaton, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Marvin, Maynard, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Myers, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pettis, Pile, Plants, Poland, Pomeroy, Price, Prince, Raum, Roots, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Selye, Shanks, Shellabarger, Smith, Starkweather, Stevens, Stokes, Stover, Sypher, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Tift, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windham, Woodbridge, and the Speaker—140.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Barnum, Beck, Boyer, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Hawkins, Holman, Hotchkiss, Humphrey, Jenckes, Johnson, Knott, Marshall, McCormick, McCullough, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Randall, Robinson, Ross, Stone, Taber, Van Trump, Woodward, and Young—37.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Anderson, Bailey, Baldwin, Barnes, Blackburn, Boles, Boyden, Brooks, Callis, Cornell, Delano, Deweese, Dixon, Edwards, Glossbrenner, Harding, Asahel W. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Ingersoll, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Lincoln, Loan, Mallory, McCarthy, Morrissey, Mullins, Newcomb, Newsham, Norris, Nunn, Pierce, Pike, Polsley, Robertson, Sitgreaves, Spalding, Stewart, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auken, Van Wyck, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, and Wood—46.

In the Senate, on February 23d, the amendment of the House was disagreed to. Messrs. Stewart, Conkling, and Edmunds, were appointed a committee of conference on the part of the Senate; and Messrs. Boutwell, Bingham, and Logan, on the part of the House.

In the House, on February 25th, Mr. Boutwell reported as follows:

The committee of conference on the disagreeing votes of the two Houses on the joint resolution (Senate No. 8) proposing an amendment to the Constitution of the United States having met, after full and free conference, have agreed to recommend and do recommend to their respective Houses as follows:

That the House recede from their amendments and agree to the resolution of the Senate, with an amendment, as follows:

In section one, line two, strike out the words "or hold office," and that the Senate agree to the same.

On agreeing to the report, the vote was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Bailey, Baker, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blaine, Blair, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Bromwell, Broomall, Buckley, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Callis, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Corley, Cornell, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Dickey, Dodge, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Eggleston, Ela, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, French, Garfield, Goss, Gove, Gravely, Griswold, Hamilton, Harding, Haughey, Heaton, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hopkins, Chester D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, William Lawrence, Logan, Lynch, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newsham, Morris, Nunn, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pettis, Pike, Plants, Poland, Pomeroy, Price, Prince, Raum, Robertson, Roots, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Shellabarger, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Stover, Taffe, Thomas, John Trimble, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Windom, and the Speaker—144.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Barnes, Beck, Boyer, Brooks, Burr, Cary, Chanler, Eldridge, Fox, Getz, Glossbrenner, Golladay, Grover, Haight, Hawkins, Holman, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Loughridge, Mallory, Marshall, McCormick, McCullough, Mungen, Niblack, Nicholson, Phelps, Pruyn, Robinson, Ross, Stone, Taber, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wood, Woodward, and Young—44.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Baldwin, Barnum,

Blackburn, Boles, Buckland, Cake, Delano, Deweese, Dixon, Dockery, Edwards, Halsey, Asahel W. Hubbard, George V. Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Morrissey, Newcomb, Pierce, Pile, Polsley, Randall, Schenck, Selye, Sitgreaves, Sypher, Taylor, Tift, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Wyck, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Stephen F. Wilson, and Woodbridge—35.

The vote in the Senate, on concurring in the report, was as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Anthony, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Cragin, Drake, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Sherman, Stewart, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—39.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Vickers, and Whyte —13.

ABSENT—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Corbett, Edmunds, Grimes, Henderson, Pomeroy, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, and Yates —14.

The joint resolution, as adopted, was as follows:

Be it resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled (two-thirds of both Houses concurring), That the following article be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which, when ratified by three-fourths of said Legislatures, shall be valid as part of the Constitution, namely:

ARTICLE XV. *Sec.* 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

SEC. 2. The Congress, by appropriate legislation, may enforce the provisions of this article.

On February 10th, at one o'clock P. M., the Senate proceeded to the hall of the House for the purpose of counting the vote for President of the United States. The President of the Senate took his seat as presiding officer of the joint convention of the two Houses. The Speaker occupied a chair on the left of the President of the Senate.

The certificate of the State of New Hampshire was read in full, after that the result merely in each State was announced. When the State of Louisiana was announced, Mr. Mullins, of Tennessee, objected to counting the vote, as follows:

I object to any count of the votes certified from the State of Louisiana, and raise the question in regard to them that no valid election of electors for President and Vice-President of the United States has been held in said State.

The rule in the case under which the convention was acting required that, upon objection being made to counting the vote of any State, each House should separately consider and decide on the question raised.

The Senate then withdrew to consider the objection. After numerous resolutions and amendments had been offered and rejected, the following resolution of Senator Sprague, of Rhode Island, was accepted as presenting the question in proper form:

Resolved, That the votes of the electors of the State of Louisiana for President and Vice-President be counted.

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Buckalew, Cameron, Cattell, Cole, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Davis, Dixon, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Hendricks, Howe, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Ross, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Sprague, Stewart, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, White, Willey, Williams, and Yates—51.

NAYS—Messrs. Chandler, Howard, Nye, Robertson, Sumner, Thayer, and Wilson—7.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Henderson, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Norton, Pomeroy, Wade, and Welch —8.

In the House, the question was put, as follows: "Shall the votes certified from the State of Louisiana be counted?" and decided in the affirmative—yeas 137, nays 63.

The House having notified the Senate of its concurrent vote in favor of counting the vote of Louisiana, both Houses again assembled in joint convention and proceeded to count the votes. Upon the State of Georgia being announced, Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, made the following objections to counting the vote:

I object, under the joint rule, that the vote of the State of Georgia for President and Vice-President ought not to be counted, and object to the counting thereof, because, among other things, the vote of the electors in the electoral college was not given on the first Wednesday of December, as required by law, and no excuse or justification for the omission of such legal duty is set forth in the certificate of the action of the electors.

Secondly. Because at the date of the election of said electors the State of Georgia had not been admitted to representation as a State in Congress since the rebellion of her people, or become entitled thereto.

Thirdly. That at said date said State of Georgia had not fulfilled in due form all the requirements of the Constitution and laws of the United States, known as the reconstruction acts, so as to entitle said State of Georgia to be represented as a State in the Union in the electoral vote of the several States in the choice of President and Vice-President.

Fourthly. That the election pretended to have been held in the State of Georgia on the first Tuesday of November last past was not a free, just, equal, and fair election; but the people of the State were deprived of their just rights therein by force and fraud.

Whereupon the Senate retired to decide upon them, and adopted the following resolution:

Resolved, That, under the special order of the two Houses respecting the electoral vote from the State of Georgia, the objections made to the counting of the vote of the electors for the State of Georgia are not in order.

In the House, the following question was presented: "Shall the electoral vote of the State of Georgia be counted notwithstanding the objections thereto?" and decided in the negative.

The joint convention was then resumed, and, amid great confusion and loud objections by

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, the President ordered the result to be announced as follows:

List of Votes for President and Vice-President of the United States for the Constitutional Term to commence on the 4th of March, 1869.

STATES.	Number of electoral votes.	For President.		For Vice-President	
		Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois.	Horatio Seymour, of New York.	Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana.	Francis P. Blair, Jr., of Missouri.
Maine	7	7	..	7	..
New Hampshire	5	5	..	5	..
Vermont	5	5	..	5	..
Massachusetts	12	12	..	12	..
Rhode Island	4	4	..	4	..
Connecticut	6	6	..	6	..
New York	33	..	33	..	33
New Jersey	7	..	7	..	7
Pennsylvania	26	26	..	26	..
Delaware	3	..	3	..	3
Maryland	7	..	7	..	7
North Carolina	9	9	..	9	..
South Carolina	6	6	..	6	..
Georgia	9	..	9	..	9
Alabama	8	8	..	8	
Louisiana	7	..	7	..	7
Ohio	21	21	..	21	..
Kentucky	11	..	11	..	11
Tennessee	10	10	..	10	..
Indiana	13	13	..	13	..
Illinois	16	16	..	16	..
Missouri	11	11	..	11	..
Arkansas	5	5	..	5	..
Michigan	8	8	..	8	..
Florida	3	3	..	3	..
Iowa	8	8	..	8	..
Wisconsin	8	8	..	8	..
California	5	5	..	5	..
Minnesota	4	4	..	4	..
Oregon	3	..	3	..	3
Kansas	3	3	..	3	..
West Virginia	5	5	..	5	..
Nevada	3	3	..	3	..
Nebraska	3	3	..	3	..
Including Georgia	294	214	80	214	80
Excluding Georgia	285	214	71	214	71

The President: "The tellers report that the whole number of votes cast for President and Vice-President of the United States, including the votes of the State of Georgia, is 294, of which the majority is 148; excluding the votes of the State of Georgia it is 285, of which the majority is 143. The result of the vote, as reported by the tellers, for President of the United States, including the State of Georgia, is—for Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois, 214 votes; for Horatio Seymour, of New York, 80 votes. Excluding the State of Georgia, the result of the vote is—for Ulysses S. Grant, of Illinois, 214 votes; for Horatio Seymour, of New York, 71 votes. The result of the vote, as reported by the tellers, for Vice-President of the United States, including the State of Georgia, is—for Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, 214 votes; and for Francis P. Blair, Jr., of Missouri, 80 votes. Excluding the State of Georgia, the result of the vote is—for Schuyler Colfax, of Indiana, 214 votes; and for Francis P. Blair, Jr., of Missouri, 71 votes.

"Wherefore, in either case, whether the votes of the State of Georgia be included or excluded, I do declare that Ulysses S. Grant, of the State of Illinois, having received a majority of the whole number of electoral votes, is duly elected President of the United States for four years, commencing on the 4th day of March, 1869; and that Schuyler Colfax, of the State of Indiana, having received a majority of the whole number of electoral votes for Vice-President of the United States, is duly elected Vice-President of the United States for four years, commencing on the 4th day of March, 1869.

"The object for which the House and Senate have assembled in joint convention having transpired, the Senate will retire to its Chamber."

The Senate accordingly retired from the Hall of the House of Representatives.

The Speaker then resumed the chair, and called the House to order.

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, said: "I rise to a question of privilege, and offer the following resolution:

Resolved, That the House protest that the counting of the vote of Georgia by the order of the Vice-President *pro tempore* was a gross act of oppression, and an invasion of the rights and privileges of the House."

Mr. Holman: "I object to the introduction of that resolution."

The Speaker: "The House has the right to adopt such resolutions as it may consider proper when it deems that its rights and privileges have been infringed upon. The Chair asks permission to make a statement in relation to what occurred in the joint convention, and has created so much feeling."

There was no objection.

The Speaker: "The Chair desires to submit the history of the joint rules, the apparent conflict in which has produced the excitement in the joint convention of the two Houses.

"By the Constitution of the United States the President of the Senate presides in joint convention when the electoral votes are counted. The Constitution proceeds no further; it simply provides that—

The President of the Senate shall, in the presence of the Senate and House of Representatives, open all the certificates, and the votes shall then be counted: the person having the greatest number of votes for President shall be President—

"And—

the person having the greatest number of votes as Vice-President shall be the Vice-President, if such number be a majority of the whole number of electors appointed.

"On the 6th day of February, 1865, the two Houses of Congress adopted the twenty-second joint rule, in order, so far as possible, to prevent scenes like those which have occurred in the joint convention just adjourned. The sec-

ond paragraph of that joint rule reads as follows:

If upon the reading of such certificate by the tellers—

"This is the certificate of the vote of any State—

any question shall arise in regard to counting the votes therein certified, the same having been stated by the presiding officer, the Senate shall thereupon withdraw, and said question shall be submitted to that body for its decision; and the Speaker of the House of Representatives shall in like manner submit said question to the House of Representatives for its decision. And no question shall be decided affirmatively, and no vote objected to shall be counted except by the concurrent votes of the two Houses; which being obtained, the two Houses shall immediately reassemble, and the presiding officer shall then announce the decision of the question submitted; and upon any such question there shall be no debate in either House.

"If this rule stood alone, it would follow necessarily that if any objection were made to the counting of any vote from any State of the Union, whether that vote was uncontested or contested, the two Houses must meet in their respective Chambers, and without debate decide the question. A few days since, however, the same legislative power that enacted this joint rule saw fit to enact another in the form of a concurrent resolution covering part of the precise ground covered by the twenty-second joint rule. This was adopted in both branches upon the yeas and nays with direct reference to the joint meeting which has just been held. The Chair, though not a lawyer, supposes it to be one of the fundamental principles of legal interpretation, that when there are two statutes bearing upon any question, and it is impossible to reconcile them, the later statute must have the prevailing force. If they can be reconciled, they must both stand. The same bodies which enacted the twenty-second joint rule adopted, on votes by yeas and nays in both branches, a concurrent resolution, the preamble to which has been overlooked amid the feeling which has grown up in the joint convention. The twenty-second joint rule provides that 'if upon the reading of any such certificate,' that is, the certificate from any State, 'any question shall arise in regard to counting the votes therein certified,' a certain procedure shall then follow. The concurrent resolution, however, adopted within the last few days, lays down a different rule in regard to one State, and in the opinion of the Speaker of the House takes that State out of the operation of the twenty-second rule. The Chair thinks it was intended to be taken out, that intelligent gentlemen in voting for it intended to withdraw the State of Georgia from the operation of the twenty-second joint rule; otherwise, as the Chair will show, it would in the concluding part be an absurdity. The preamble to this concurrent resolution reads as follows:

Whereas, the question whether the State of Georgia has become and is entitled to representation in the two Houses of Congress is now pending and undetermined—

"That apparently being a fact within the knowledge of members of both branches of Congress—

and whereas, by the joint resolution of Congress passed July 20, 1868, entitled 'A resolution excluding from the electoral college votes of States lately in rebellion, which shall not have been reorganized,' it was provided that no electoral votes from any of the States lately in rebellion should be received or counted for President or Vice-President of the United States until, among other things, such State should have become entitled to representation in Congress pursuant to the acts of Congress in that behalf: Therefore,

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That on the assembling of the two Houses on the second Wednesday of February, 1869, for the counting of the electoral votes for President and Vice-President, as provided by law and the joint rules, if the counting or omitting to count the electoral votes, if any, which may be presented, as of the State of Georgia, shall not essentially change the result, in that case they shall be reported by the President of the Senate in the following manner:

"This is the language which the resolution commands shall be uttered by the mouth of the President of the Senate:

Were the votes presented, as of the State of Georgia, to be counted, the result would be, for —— for President of the United States, —— votes; if not counted, for —— for President of the United States, —— votes; but in either case —— is elected President of the United States; and in the same manner for Vice-President.

"This concurrent resolution, adopted by the same legal authority which adopted the joint rule, declares in its preamble that it is a fact apparent to Congress that it is a grave question whether the State of Georgia is entitled to representation; that that question is undetermined; and that therefore, when the two Houses shall assemble, '*as provided by law and by the joint rules*,' then if the counting, or the omitting to count, the electoral votes of Georgia shall not affect the result, the result shall be announced by the President of the Senate in a form of language which he is imperatively required to adopt. The President of the Senate has complied with the law which the two Houses laid down for him. In the opinion of the Chair, he would have been subject to the censure of the two Houses if he had not complied with the law which these bodies laid down for the performance of his duties in joint convention. The Chair entertained the objection of the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler) when the Senate retired, because the Senate retired upon the ruling of their own President. But the Chair thinks that in the subsequent proceedings of the joint convention the President of the Senate complied exactly with his oath and his duty under the joint rules and the concurrent resolution, the latter being the later, and, so far as it differs from the other, qualifying and repealing it."

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts: "Now, Mr. Speaker, let us see exactly where we stand.

The Constitution of the United States says that the President of the Senate shall open in convention all of the votes of all of the States, and they shall be therein counted, and it is as impossible for this House or the Senate, either jointly or separately, in concurrence or otherwise, to stop the operation of that constitutional enactment as it is to turn back the sun in its course; for, as you will see, sir, we stand in this position: if the House and the Senate, by joint action before had, can determine what votes shall be counted and what votes shall not be counted, then the House and the Senate can determine who is and who is not to be the President of the United States, and who is and who is not to be the Vice-President of the United States."

Subsequently Mr. Butler offered the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the House protest that the counting of the vote of Georgia by the order of the Vice-President *pro tempore* was a gross act of oppression, and an invasion of the rights and privileges of the House.

Resolved, That the twenty-second joint rule of the House and Senate be, and hereby is, rescinded on the part of the House.

Resolved further, That the resolutions now pending be, and are hereby, referred to a select committee of five, with leave to report at any time.

On these resolutions an extensive debate ensued, during which Mr. Woodward, of Pennsylvania, said: "I beg to inquire why the vote of Georgia should not have been counted; why it should have been counted with a qualification? That qualification was admirably stated by the president of the convention when he said that the effect of the concurrent resolution was to count the vote of Georgia if it meant nothing, and not to count the vote if it meant any thing. When he said that, he stated the legal effect and consequence of that resolution precisely. Now, I ask, why should a sovereign State of this Union be treated in that manner? Listen to it! The nation will listen to the words of Mr. Wade, uttered from that seat yesterday, that the two Houses had decided that if the vote of Georgia would effect nothing it should be counted, and if it would effect any thing it should not be counted. If you treat Georgia in that manner this year, what State may you not treat in the same manner next year or on some future occasion? What is that but a dissolution of the Union? Will you say that Georgia is not in the Union? Here are her members sitting on this floor. What right have they to be here if Georgia is not in the Union? Georgia has been in the Union from the beginning; she has never been out of the Union unless you allege what I deny, that her attempted secession took her out of the Union. But you say that her act of secession was null and void, and she herself has so declared and repealed the act, and you have reconstructed her. She is not only the original Georgia, but a Georgia reconstructed by this Republican Congress. Then, I ask, why should not her electoral vote be counted like the vote of any other State?

"Gentlemen will not find in the Constitution or laws of the United States, or in the Commentaries of Chancellor Kent, or in the writings of Justice Story, or in any other authority of that kind, the true reason for the course that has been pursued in regard to Georgia. I will give them the reason. The Senate had refused to admit the Senators from Georgia. It was the Senate that originated this concurrent resolution, and in an evil hour we concurred in it. And the President of the Senate came here and held us to our action, and he did well. But it was the Senate that invented this mode of excluding Georgia. Not because Georgia did not vote on the right day. That was not the reason; but the reason is contained in the preamble to the concurrent resolution, which sets forth that it is doubtful whether Georgia is within the Union, and that that question is now pending before Congress. That is the reason assigned by the Senate for excluding Georgia. The Senate is deliberating about admitting Senators from Georgia, and therefore does not want the vote of that State counted. I say, therefore, that this whole difficulty arises out of your reconstruction laws. If you would treat Georgia as Georgia ought to be treated, as a State in this Union, and admit her Senators into the Senate of the United States, as her members have been admitted on this floor, there is no more reason why the vote of Georgia should be counted with a slur, or not counted at all, than there is why the vote of Pennsylvania should be treated in like manner. That is the origin of this difficulty, and it is not to be removed by the adoption of the resolution submitted by the gentleman from Massachusetts (Mr. Butler). We are not to repair the wrong into which we have fallen by committing another wrong in censuring the president of the joint convention for holding the convention to the law which they had made for themselves. I am, therefore, opposed to the resolution of the gentleman from Massachusetts. If his proposition had been to repeal the concurrent resolution which was the cause of all this difficulty, no man on this floor would have voted for it more cordially and heartily than I would have done."

Mr. Eldridge, of Wisconsin, said: "I believe that the concurrent resolution and the twenty-second joint rule of the two Houses are both of them in contravention of the Constitution. the first utterly, and the latter in part, at least, void—a nullity for that reason. I raised that question yesterday as a point of order before the convention; but no attention, no consideration was given to it by the presiding officer. He virtually decided that the resolution was higher authority than the Constitution. I believe, if my point had been sustained, if it had been properly considered and decided, we would have avoided all the difficulties in which this House as well as the joint conven-

tion became involved. We should have avoided the disgraceful exhibition which the convention made of itself before the country and the world. We should have performed our duty to the country as required by the Constitution. We should have counted the votes of the States as the certificates were opened by the presiding officer, and, though the result would have been the same, so far as the persons elected are concerned, we should not have felt the sting of mortification and shame which we now all feel at the manner in which that work was done. The Constitution provides expressly that the Senate—which, according to my judgment, means the organized Senate, with its officers and machinery—and the House of Representatives, which is the organized House of Representatives with its officers and its machinery—shall be present when the Vice-President shall open the certificates; and that 'the votes shall then be counted.' It must be, therefore, if there is in contemplation of the Constitution a proper certificate from a State, and that certificate has been opened by the Vice-President, the duty of the body composed of the Senate and House of Representatives, as described and assembled, to count those votes. It has no right or power to count them merely as a matter of count; but it must count them for the purpose of the result, for the purpose of ascertaining the result—the count itself determining the result. This is the obvious, and, it seems to me, the only true meaning of the Constitution. To count them conditionally or hypothetically is no count at all.

"The Constitution determines the effect of the vote; the joint convention has nothing to do with that, nor has the House of Representatives or the Senate, or both combined. The vote of the State is to be counted, to be counted for a purpose, and that purpose is to ascertain who the people of the United States have by their will determined shall be the President and Vice-President for the four years next after the 4th of March. To count the vote of Georgia according to the concurrent resolution is a mockery; it is an insult. It matters not that it will not change the result as a matter of fact. If it can constitutionally be so counted in the case when it will not change the result, it may be so counted in case it would change the result. And then the voice of Georgia may be stifled; the voice of the people of a sovereign State may be suppressed. And it is not Georgia or the people of Georgia, but it is Massachusetts or Wisconsin that may not be allowed to utter its voice on the question."

The resolutions of Mr. Butler were subsequently modified by him so as to read as follows:

Resolved, That the House protests against the manner of procedure and the order of the President of the Senate *pro tempore*, in presence of the two Houses, in counting the vote of Georgia in obedience to the order of the Senate only, and against his acts dissolving the convention and the two Houses at his own will, as an invasion of the rights and privileges of the House.

Resolved, That the above resolution be, and hereby is, referred to a select committee of five, with leave to report at any time, and report by bill or otherwise.

Mr. Kelsey, of New York, offered the following substitute:

Resolved, That the subject of an amendment of the joint rules governing the convention of the two Houses of Congress for the purpose of counting electoral votes for President and Vice-President of the United States be referred to a select committee of five, with power to report by bill or otherwise at any time.

On motion, the resolutions were laid on the table, yeas 130, nays 55, not voting 38.

In the Senate, on January 11th, Mr. Washburne, of Illinois, introduced a bill to repeal an act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, passed March 2, 1867. This bill passed the House, yeas 121, nays 47, not voting 53.

In the Senate, the Committee on Retrenchment, to whom the bill was referred, reported it back with an amendment to strike out, as follows:

That an act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, passed March 2, 1867, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

And to insert in lieu thereof:

That the first section of the act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, is hereby amended, so as to read as follows: That every person (excepting the Secretaries of State, of the Treasury, of War, of the Navy, and of the Interior, the Postmaster-General, and the Attorney-General) holding any civil office to which he has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and every person who shall hereafter be appointed to any such office, and shall become duly qualified to act therein, is and shall be entitled to hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified, except as herein otherwise provided.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That the second section of said act is hereby amended so as to read as follows: That it shall be lawful for the President, whenever, during a recess of the Senate, in his opinion, the public good shall require it, to suspend any officer appointed as aforesaid, excepting judges of the United States courts, and to designate some suitable person to perform temporarily the duties of such office until the next meeting of the Senate, and until the matter shall be acted upon by the Senate; and such person so designated shall take the oaths and give the bonds required by law to be taken and given by the person duly appointed to fill such office; and in case of such suspension it shall be the duty of the President, within twenty days after the first day of such next meeting of the Senate, to report to the Senate such suspension, with the name of the person so designated to perform the duties of such office; and if the Senate shall concur in such suspension, and advise and consent to the removal of such officer, they shall so certify to the President, who may thereupon remove such officer, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint another person to such office; but, if the Senate shall refuse to concur in such suspension, the officer so suspended shall forthwith resume the functions of his office, and the powers of the person so performing its duties in his stead shall cease; and the official salary and emoluments of such officer shall, during such suspension, belong to the person so performing the duties thereof, and not to the officer so suspended: *Provided, however*, That the President may, in his discretion, be-

fore reporting such suspension to the Senate as above provided, revoke the same, and reinstate such officer in the performance of the duties of his office.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That no person shall hold, nor shall he receive, salary or compensation for performing the duties of more than one office or place of trust or profit under the Constitution or laws of the United States at the same time, whether such office or place be civil, military, or naval; and any person holding any such office or place, who shall accept or hold any other office or place of trust or profit under the Constitution or laws of the United States, shall be deemed to have vacated the office or place which he held at the time of such acceptance.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That nothing in the foregoing section shall be construed to prevent such designations or appointments of officers to perform temporarily the duties of other officers as are or may be authorized by law, nor to prevent such appointments or designations to office or duty as are required by law to be made from the Army or Navy.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That the penalties provided in the act to which this is an amendment shall apply to violations of this act.

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I think it right that, in a word or two, I should explain the action of the committee, as it respects this bill. The House bill proposes to sweep from the statute-book the law of 1867 altogether, and to restore, for all future time, so far as legislation goes, to the President of the United States, the power which, before that time, he had exercised, of controlling the appointments to all the offices of the United States, because, under the previous practice, the President of the United States, exercising the power of removals during vacations, and filling vacancies thus created by persons of his own selection, without the consent of the Senate, had it in his power, and frequently exercised that power, to hold persons in office whose nominations were not acceptable to the Senate; and it was done in all cases where he desired some other person to hold an office than the one to whose appointment the Senate had consented. As the Senate knows, and as the country knows, in 1867, we undertook to reform this abuse, as we thought it was, which had grown up in the administration of the law, and provided the Tenure-of-office Act of 1867. By that not only all the subordinate officers of the United States, but the heads of Departments, were made the officers of the law, and did not hold their places at the will of the President.

"The House of Representatives, as I have said, now propose to sweep that all away, and go back to the old system of things. The committee did not think that to be wise. Not legislating for to-day or to-morrow, or the next year, or the next four years, but legislating for the country, and for the future as well as for the present, they thought we ought to retain the substantial principle on which the act of 1867 was founded, that of making the public service of officers, who are exercising duties imposed upon them by law, dependent upon the law, according to the term that the law gives to them, and dependent upon the will of the Senate, advisory to the will of the President, in the selection of those agents. We, therefore, have recommended that, instead of repealing the act, it be so modified as to permit the President of the United States to suspend a civil officer whenever, in his judgment, the public good shall require it, subject, in the end, to the approval of the Senate, and to dispense with the detail, which the existing law requires, of his having specific evidence upon which he is to act, and with his being obliged to give specific reasons upon which we are to act when he comes to report his action to the next meeting of the Senate. That was a mere matter of detail and discretion; and, inasmuch as, under the adverse circumstances during which and under which this law has prevailed, a construction is claimed to have obtained which, it is said, ties up the hands of the President to specific evidence of a specific and formal character—although that, in my judgment, is far from being the true and fair construction of that law—we were willing to so modify that as to remove all possible objection on the ground of detail.

"Then a majority of the committee, one of which, I am free to say, I was not, have thought it fit that the heads of the Departments should be restored to the will of the President alone, so as to give him, for the future, practically the choice, independent of the will of the Senate, of the heads of Departments who are to administer the laws of the Government; and we have, therefore, proposed to insert, in the first section of the bill, an exception which shall exclude from the operation of the law these heads of Departments. As I have said, that does not meet my approval; but, under the direction of the committee, I have reported it."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, I am in favor of the total repeal of this law. I believe it was a mistake in the beginning. I do not believe that the country or the Republican party ever derived any benefit from it. On the contrary, I believe it has been the means by which, to some extent, thieves have been continued in office, and the responsibility for continuing them in office has been, more or less successfully, laid upon the Republican party.

"The amendment offered by the committee, while it gives to the President the choice of the members of his Cabinet, without the interference of the Senate to aid him in removals, yet leaves the rest of the law in a worse form than it was before. It provides that, as to all other officers, the President cannot remove them at pleasure, but, during the vacation of Congress, he may suspend them, and appoint some other persons to perform their duties. In twenty days after the beginning of the next session, he is to report the suspension, and the name of the person who has been appointed to perform the duties, but he is not required to give any reason for the suspension. If there be reasons for the suspension, the Senate is left to grope in the dark. Under the present law, the President is required to give the reasons

for the suspension, that the Senate may readily pass upon the suspension, whether it is justifiable or not; but, under this amendment, he is required to give no reason at all, and the Senate is, therefore, left in the dark as to the ground of the suspension, and whether it is justifiable or not. Then, Mr. President, if it shall turn out that the Senate refuse to concur in the suspension, the officer who has been suspended, and has been disgraced, and, as the Senate may think, wrongfully, is restored to his place, but with the loss of the emoluments of the office in the mean time. It may turn out, in the opinion of the Senate, that the suspension was entirely wrong, that he is a worthy officer, but he is thus, perhaps for months, suspended between heaven and earth, not knowing what his fate shall be; not, perhaps, at liberty to engage in other kinds of business; and when it shall turn out that he is innocent, and that he has been wrongly suspended, he is to be restored, but with a loss of the salary or emoluments of the office in the mean time. I cannot think of any thing more inequitable or unjust than this, and I know of no reason for such an amendment.

"I believe experience has shown that the tenure-of-office law has done the country no good. I believe it can only be the means of doing harm. I am, therefore, in favor of its total repeal."

Mr. Conkling, of New York, said: "Mr. President, in human action any thing is defended and justified by proving it the best alternative of which the case admits. If this be true of the Tenure-of-office Act, those who supported and voted for it ought perhaps to be spared the summary denunciation with which it has sometimes been visited. The other day a Senator characterized it, being, as it is, the twice-recorded judgment of two-thirds of both Houses of Congress, as 'absurd.' Whether it be absurd or not may be gathered from a single page of history. We need only recur to a brief passage now nearly closed, a passage which crimsons the record because it recounts an attempt, in the interest of slavery and treason, to make bribes of the country's power and places and honors, and to make merchandise of the integrity of the country's citizens—an attempt to employ the purse of the nation to advance and enrich the nation's foes. The case in few words was this: an edict went out to remove men from office because they were Republicans, unless they would deny and betray their political faith. This shameless and oppressive proceeding was adopted by one who had been trusted by Republicans so near the presidency that assassination made him President. He was surrounded by a Cabinet every member of which was pledged to the faith, the measures, and the men of the Republican party, and every member of which, should he assert his manhood or even remonstrate, might be dismissed by the waive of a perfidious hand. That all might, as some did, assert their manhood, was possible, at least if it were made safe to be manly.

"Had this been the whole case, the imperfect revelations of human judgment would have sanctioned the arrest of such abuse by any means authorized by the Constitution and consistent with the general good. In the old republics such a pollution of power to undermine the virtue of the citizen and seduce or coerce him was held a crime punishable with death.

"But this was not the whole case. The wrong went further—it was double-headed. First, those who would forswear their convictions and prostitute their opinions were retained in place, and those who would not were driven out; second, those notoriously unfit, even those notoriously depraved, were put and kept in places of honor and trust. So far had this evil gone before Congress interposed that the Commissioner of Internal Revenue testified before a committee of the House that the injury thus inflicted upon the revenues could be measured only by millions. I heard, the other day, a Senator affirm, and he is one whose duties here turn his studies toward such knowledge, that $100,000,000 would not reimburse the loss to the Treasury arising from the wanton exercise of the appointing power by the present Administration.

"It was to curb this licentiousness that Congress devised the Tenure-of-office Act. I voted for it, believing it an assertion of a half-disused but not doubtful design of the Constitution, and, like the Senator from Wisconsin, I insisted that its shield should cover Cabinet officers as well as lesser placemen. Was it a good law? It could not execute itself. Has man ever made a law which could execute itself? It could only forbid—it could not prevent its own violation or evasion. Can any law do more? It could not operate well when its execution was intrusted to those determined to nullify and frustrate it. Does this condemn it? If it does, all laws before and since the Decalogue deserve to be condemned. We are told that Andrew Johnson has refused to suspend bad men, and has kept them in place, and that, though this is not owing to the law, it is made to appear so, and thus the people hold Congress responsible for that masquerade of fraud and theft and shame nicknamed 'the whiskey ring.' This suggestion would trouble me if I knew nothing of the American people, but the pretence is too flimsy, the subterfuge is too transparent.

"Sir, the American people know as well as you know that not the Tenure-of-office Act, but the malignant spirit, the evil disposition, which has neutralized and paralyzed other acts, and inflicted upon the nation other and irreparable injury, is also at the bottom of the thefts and the frauds which have wasted the public revenue, the thefts and the frauds which have stalked high-headed in the public way, till Justice stands humbled and baffled, if not abashed,

in the presence of criminals too great to be punished.

"Like the Senator from Indiana, I would remove from the path of the incoming administration every obstacle. I wish to leave the President-elect free to the full and useful exercise of the good judgment and good qualities which we all ascribe to him. At the same time I wish, and particularly unless some motive, some practical inducement to the contrary can be presented, to preserve the consistency of the Senate, to preserve the position which the Senate has maintained in the last and most dire exigency known in our jurisprudence, to the end that at once we may observe all the considerations entitled to respect and preservation. The honorable Senator from Indiana thinks that considerations of one nature should yield to considerations wholly of a different nature. If he can show me that this amendment obstructs the way to administrative reform, then I will consider at least whether all the elements to which I have adverted should not be subordinated to the particular object now in view.

"But, if it be true, as I believe it is, that the amendment before us restores to the President or confers upon him all the authority, all the freedom, all the discretion in practice and effect which the Constitution allows, then, as I say, I prefer that the mode of conferring that freedom should be found in some way consistent with and observant of the convictions which great majorities of both Houses have solemnly recorded as to the spirit and the requirements of the Constitution. My reflection upon the subject has convinced me that the modification proposed is sufficient, and at the same time that it does preserve not as a sham, as the Senator said, not as a mere matter of form, but in theory of law and constitutional observance, the spirit of the Constitution in this regard. So believing, I shall vote for it cheerfully, unless in the mean time some Senator is able to point out considerations which have not occurred to me, and which conflict with its usefulness and the freedom it will give."

Mr. Doolittle, of Wisconsin, said: "I wish to call the attention of the Senate to some of the practical operations of the new doctrine that the President has not the power of removal, but that he must appear before the Senate of the United States as a prosecutor and bring the officers of his appointment to trial and judgment before the Senate before the removal can take place; for that is the substance of the bill which passed two years ago, and that in substance is retained in the present bill proposed as a modification.

"Now, sir, what has been our experience? We are the only body in this country that has ever had any experience upon the question. I submit that the judgment of the Senate must unanimously be that the attempt to place the President in the position of a prosecutor before he can remove men from office, to bring these men to trial before the Senate and show cause why they should be removed, to have those alleged causes considered, and to have the judgment of the Senate passed upon them, involving the character of the officer and his right to the office, is a thing almost impracticable to be carried out. What is the effect? A man occupies an office as a collector of revenue, if you please. The President suspends him, and sends in notice of his suspension to the Senate. It would be strange, indeed, if that officer should have no friend in the Congress of the United States. If he has a friend in the House of Representatives, that friend appeals at once to the sympathies, it may be, of the Senator who represents his State. The question comes before the Senate. This man's character is involved. This is a prosecution, it is alleged, to put him out of office for cause not at the pleasure of the President, not for political reasons, not because the President prefers another man to execute the duties of his office, which, if it were allowed to go into effect, would produce no bad result upon the character of the individual, but it is in the nature of a prosecution against the officer to dismiss him for some reason. What is that reason? What are the reasons for which a man should be displaced from office, if you are to go into that subject? Some maladministration, some fraud, some dishonesty, some incapability, some cause which must be alleged and must be proved. The case must go before a committee; the facts must be examined and reported to the Senate; the question must then be discussed in the Senate in executive session; the judgment of this body must be called upon; and, when they pass on the question whether the man ought to be removed for cause, they pass on his character as a man. They bring him to trial, and the case comes to trial and to judgment; and the decision of the Senate on the question of removal is a decision which is to blast the character of the individual forever. The attempt cannot be made to remove him for cause without bringing before the Senate all those considerations which are brought before a court when a man is placed on trial to be subjected to a penalty; to be made substantially incapable of holding an office, in the judgment of the Senate of the United States, for cause alleged against him. If the thing were to be entered upon, and every case of removal were to be tried by the Senate where the person was suspended for alleged cause, it would be practically impossible for the Senate of the United States to pass on all these cases. We know that these discussions take place in executive session. These executive sessions ordinarily occur late in the day, after the regular legislative business is passed. We know that any person, in executive session, who is very much for or against a proposition, by discussing it, may ordinarily postpone the executive session until it comes to an end; and the

case is either not to be considered at all or a hasty judgment is to be rendered, and the man's character it may be destroyed forever by consenting to his removal for cause. The thing is impracticable."

Mr. Dixon, of Connecticut, said: "I was somewhat surprised, Mr. President, when the Senator from New York opened that more than Ciceronian invective against Andrew Johnson. I supposed the day was past for attacks of a political character calculated to produce political influence and effect upon him. I am in the habit of being very much influenced by what that Senator says, and as he went on with his invectives I began almost to believe that it was really true that the President of the United States had for political purposes made all the removals which he stated; that he had deserted his principles and his party; and it was not until the Senator alluded to the fact that he came into his place by assassination that I began to doubt somewhat whether I ought to follow the Senator much longer. This charge is often made. I have heard it made in political meetings with considerable effect. I believe this is the first time it has ever been made in the Senate. Suppose it to be true that the President of the United States did come into his place by the assassination of his predecessor, does the Senator mean to say that he is responsible for that? Is there any more responsibility, any more guilt, upon Andrew Johnson on that account than upon any one of us? The consequences of that assassination were not trammelled up. He is not the only officer of this Government who came into his place by assassination. How came the respected and honored President of this Senate in the seat which he now occupies except by assassination?

"But for the assassination of Abraham Lincoln, you, sir, would have been an honored and respected Senator in your chair in this body instead of acting Vice-President of the United States. Suppose I should say here you came into your place by assassination, and bring it as a charge against you and attempted to excite a prejudice against the occupant of the chair of this body because he came into his place by assassination. I think the honorable Senator must see that intimations of this kind are hardly worthy of his high position and the place in which they were spoken."

Mr. Conkling: "If the Senator will allow me, I made no such observation as he alludes to in the sense or direction which he implies. I was commenting upon the fact that this political persecution and debauchery was carried on against Republicans by a man whom the Republicans had placed so near the Presidency that assassination made him President."

Mr. Dixon: "I accept that explanation with pleasure. I know that my honorable friend did not intend, himself being the sole authority, to make an allusion of this kind with any other intention than that which he has explained. I was stating why I was led to doubt whether his statements and arguments were exactly correct, and whether I ought to be carried away by the torrent of his eloquence. I was checked upon this point. I do not propose to make any party allusions upon this occasion; but I think I ought to allude to some of the remarks which that Senator made when he spoke of the cause and the origin of this bill, it having been forced upon the country by the perfidy and the falsehood of the President. I think the Senator will admit that that certainly was the drift of his argument."

Mr. Robertson, of South Carolina, said: "Mr. President, the practice of the Government from the administration of Washington to the administration of the present Executive was uniform in admitting the President's general power of removal. This practice worked well, and it is, I think, a strong argument for our returning to it. The present tenure-of-office law, which it is now proposed to repeal, was a special law, called for by the peculiar circumstances under which the country was placed from the wide divergence of views upon the subject of reconstruction between President Johnson and Congress. Under the circumstances from which this law arose the Congress were justified in the action they adopted; but President Johnson will no longer be an obstacle to the execution of the congressional policy of reconstruction. I think, therefore, we may with entire propriety go back to the former policy of the Government upon the subject. Under the President's power of removal the Government has been, generally speaking, well administered. I am therefore unwilling to depart from that policy. The present law has been, I think, productive of many inconveniences, and I am unwilling longer to continue it. The practice of this Government for nearly three-quarters of a century has demonstrated the wisdom of leaving in the hands of the President the general power of removal of his subordinates. What time has so fully tested I think we ought to abide by.

"Further, as a question of justice, I think that, as the President is made the executor of the law, and is responsible for the conduct of his subordinates, it is proper that he should have the fullest power of removal of incompetent officers. It is in this way only, I think, that we can enforce against him his full responsibility for a proper administration of the Government. The President as the chief executive officer must be held responsible for the administration of the Government in all its various branches and through its multitude of officers. To assert this responsibility, and yet tie his hands by the 'Tenure-of-office Bill' is, in my opinion, a mockery. If the President is compelled to carry on the Government through the instrumentalities of officers in whom he has no confidence, there will be an end to all efficient responsibility on his part.

A man of just feeling in the executive office would under such circumstances be discouraged, and, unable to effect removals, there would be great danger that peculation and incompetency would run riot in all the departments of the Government. The suspension of officers to await the final action of the Senate would, in effect, be constantly placing the President on trial here. An unfriendly Senate would soon impair the prestige of the President and leave him utterly powerless."

On March 2d, Mr. Morton, of Indiana, offered the following additional section to the Legislative Appropriation Bill:

And be it further enacted, That the act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, passed March 2, 1867, be, and the same is hereby, repealed.

A question of order was raised, during the discussion of which Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, offered the following amendment to the amendment, by striking out all after the enacting clause:

That the first section of the act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, is hereby amended so as to read as follows: That every person holding any civil office, to which he has been appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and every person who shall hereafter be appointed to any such office, and shall become duly qualified to act therein, is and shall be entitled to hold such office until a successor shall have been in like manner appointed and duly qualified, except as herein otherwise provided.

SEC. —. *And be it further enacted*, That the second section of said act is hereby amended so as to read as follows: That it shall be lawful for the President, whenever, during a recess of the Senate, in his opinion, the public good shall require it, to suspend any officer appointed as aforesaid, excepting judges of the United States courts, and to designate some suitable person to perform temporarily the duties of such office until the next meeting of the Senate, and until the matter shall be acted upon by the Senate; and such person so designated shall take the oaths and give the bonds required by law to be taken and given by the person duly appointed to fill such office; and, in case of such suspension, it shall be the duty of the President, within twenty days after the first day of such meeting of the Senate, to report to the Senate such suspension, with the name of the person so designated to perform the duties of such office; and, if the Senate shall concur in such suspension, and advise and consent to the removal of such officer, they shall so certify to the President, who may thereupon remove such officer, and, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint another person to such office; but, if the Senate shall refuse to concur in such suspension, the officer so suspended shall forthwith resume the functions of his office, and the powers of the person so performing its duties in his stead shall cease; and the official salary and emoluments of such officer shall, during such suspension, belong to the person so performing the duties thereof, and not to the officer so suspended: *Provided, however*, That the President may, in his discretion, before reporting such suspension to the Senate as above provided, revoke the same, and reinstate such officer in the performance of the duties of his office.

SEC. —. *And be it further enacted*, That no person shall hold nor shall he receive salary or compensation for performing the duties of more than one office or place of trust or profit under the Constitution or laws of the United States at the same time, whether such office or place be civil, military, or naval; and any person holding any such office or place, who shall accept or hold any other office or place of trust or profit under the Constitution or laws of the United States, shall be deemed to have vacated the office or place which he held at the time of such acceptance.

SEC. —. *And be it further enacted*, That nothing in the foregoing section shall be construed to prevent such designations or appointments of officers to perform temporarily the duties of other officers as are or may be authorized by law, nor to prevent such appointments or designations to office or duty as are required by law to be made from the Army or Navy.

SEC. —. *And be it further enacted*, That the penalties provided in the act to which this is an amendment shall apply to violations of this act.

The amendment of Mr. Sumner was rejected —yeas 17, nays 32:

YEAS—Messrs. Chandler, Conkling, Cragin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ramsey, Sawyer, Sprague, Sumner, Welch, Willey, and Williams—17.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Cameron, Cattell, Cole, Conness, Corbett, Dixon, Drake, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Henderson, McDonald, Morgan, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pomeroy, Pool, Robertson, Ross, Sherman, Spencer, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Wade, Warner, Whyte, and Wilson—32.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Buckalew, Davis, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Hendricks, Kellogg, McCreery, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Rice, Saulsbury, Stewart, and Yates—17.

The amendment of Mr. Morton was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Cole, Conness, Dixon, Drake, Grimes, Henderson, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morton, Osborn, Pomeroy, Pool, Ramsey, Robertson, Ross, Sherman, Thayer, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, and Whyte—22.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Chandler, Corbett, Cragin, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Patterson of New Hampshire, Sawyer, Spencer, Sprague, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Wade, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson.—26.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Cattell, Conkling, Davis, Doolittle, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Hendricks, McCreery, Norton, Nye, Patterson of Tennessee, Rice, Saulsbury, Stewart, and Yates—18.

No further action was taken on the subject at this session.

In the Senate, on February 11th, the bill for the further security of equal rights in the District of Columbia was considered. It proposed to repeal the word "white," wherever it occurs in the laws relating to the District of Columbia, or in the charter or ordinances of the cities of Washington or Georgetown, and operates as a limitation on the right of any elector of the District, or of either of the cities, to hold any office, or to be selected and to serve as a juror, and it is made unlawful for any person or officer to enforce, or attempt to enforce, that limitation, after the passage of the act.

The bill was reported to the Senate without amendment, ordered to be engrossed for a third reading, read the third time, and passed.

On March 2d, the bill was called, read, and passed, without debate, and without a count of the votes. President Johnson retained it unsigned.

In the Senate, on December 14th, Mr. Cattell, of New Jersey, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That the Senate receive with profound regret the proposition of the President in his annual message, to repudiate a portion of the national obligations, and regard this and all forms of repudiation as a national crime. National honor requires the payment of the public debt in the utmost good faith to all creditors at home and abroad, not only according to the letter, but the spirit of the laws under which it was created.

Mr. Cattell: "Mr. President, it seems to me that the extraordinary proposition contained in the President's annual message, favoring the repudiation of the public debt, should not go to the country without a prompt and decided expression by the Senate of their unqualified disapprobation. And it is with this view I offer the resolution just read.

"Lest the full scope and meaning of this passage in the message may have escaped the attention of some Senators, I beg to read it again in your hearing:

It may be assumed that the holders of our securities have already received upon their bonds a larger amount than their original investment, measured by a gold standard. Upon this statement of facts it would seem but just and equitable that the six per cent. interest now paid by the Government should be applied to the reduction of the principal in semi-annual installments, which, in sixteen years and eight months would liquidate the entire national debt. Six per cent. in gold would at present rates be equal to nine per cent. in currency, and equivalent to the payment of the debt one and a half times in a fraction less than seventeen years. This, in connection with all the other advantages derived from their investment, would afford to the public creditors a fair and liberal compensation for the use of their capital, and with this they should be satisfied. The lessons of the past admonish the lender that it is not well to be over-anxious in exacting from the borrower rigid compliance with the letter of the bond.

"Mr. President, here is a simple, plain proposition, emanating from the President of the United States in his message to Congress, and advocated as just and equitable, to pay to the public creditor simply the interest provided for by law and stipulated in the bond for a given number of years, and at the expiration of that period to repudiate the entire principal of the debt. It passes belief that a proposition so monstrous as this, so disgraceful, in my opinion, to the nation, so damaging to its credit at home and abroad, should emanate from the Chief Executive of this Government, whose duty it is to guard the honor and faith of the nation rather than to tarnish the one and to break the other. No man in the United States, so far as my knowledge extends, has been found hitherto bold enough to advocate open, undisguised, and unqualified repudiation. So indefensible a proposition as this has been reserved for Andrew Johnson, as a fitting climax to the wickedness and folly of his administration. I move, sir, that this resolution be referred to the Committee on Finance."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I am entirely in favor of the resolution, except that I should wish it to state a little more specifically, so that there should not be any double construction put upon it, what it means. That resolution is in the substantial, and for aught I know in the literal, language of the Chicago platform; and there are certain good men in the country claiming to be Republicans, claiming to be in favor of national honesty, and probably being so, who have maintained that the letter and the spirit of the obligation merely require us to pay in something else, and not in money. There are a good many such people who maintain that proposition. Therefore, in the face of such a message as we have received, to merely reassert an equivocal proposition would amount to nothing at all. Let us, then, send the resolution to the Committee on Finance, who may report it to-morrow, as I hope, in such language that it will mean, beyond equivocation or misconstruction, that we intend to pay the public funded debt of the United States in real money, in coin, or that we do not—one or the other. Let us get rid of the equivoque which certain adroit persons maintain is found in the Chicago platform."

Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "I understand this proposition is the platform of a political party of last year. I should like to have the opportunity to present, when this is considered, as an amendment to it or substitute for it, the proposition of another political party presented to the people in the last contest. My own opinion is that that platform presents the real doctrine in regard to our public debt more correctly, and presents it as it was claimed by very many persons during the last contest, that this resolution should be so construed as to agree with the New York platform.

"If the Senator from New Jersey wishes to rebuke the President of the United States, it is not becoming that the rebuke shall be contained in equivocal language. If the President be wrong and the Senate intends to state what is the right, it ought to state it. This does not. This assumes that between the letter of the law and the spirit of the law under which the debt was contracted there is a difference. What is that difference? Is the letter of the law that the debt shall be paid in the lawful money of the United States, but is the spirit of the law, according to the judgment of the Senator from New Jersey, according to the judgment of the Senator from Vermont, that it shall be paid in gold? Now, we are not dealing with this question with a view to a political result, I presume; and, if the Senate makes a declaration on this question at all, it ought to be done frankly and fully, especially if it is to be regarded as a rebuke to the Chief Magistrate of the country. He has declared his views upon it, in which I do not concur; but if he is to be rebuked, let him be rebuked plainly. If it is the business of the Senate to pass resolutions intended to be those of censure, let them declare the true doctrine as the doctrine in-

stead of that contained in the President's message."

Mr. Cattell: "The object of this resolution was simply to express the disapprobation of the Senate in regard to that portion of the President's message which I read and commented upon; and in doing so I added to that general form of expression of opinion an expression which has been passed upon by a body higher than the Senate, or the Congress, or the Executive—passed upon by the people of the United States; and I am somewhat surprised to find that so good a Democrat as my friend from Indiana is disposed now, after that high court has passed upon this question, to propose to incorporate upon this resolution a portion of the platform which has been condemned by the people.

Mr. Hendricks: "Did the people decide, in voting upon this resolution, in favor of paying the debt in gold or in the lawful money of the United States?"

Mr. Cattell: "I think they decided that the resolution of the Chicago platform was very much preferable to that issued in New York. I think that was the great decision made on that occasion."

Mr. Edmunds: "Mr. President, I wish to ask my friend from Indiana, if I can have his attention, the same question that he asked the Senator from New Jersey: what he understands the people to have decided on that subject in the last campaign?"

Mr. Hendricks: "If I were to answer the Senator just as I believe, I would say that I think the people really decided nothing upon it. I understand that in the region of the country in which he lives it was claimed that the resolution meant that the spirit of the contract was that the payment should be made in gold, and I presume the people of Vermont decided thus, while I know that in the region of the country in which I live the advocates of the Chicago platform claimed that it meant a payment in lawful money, in very many instances, so that very many persons in our section of the country voted for the candidates standing on the Chicago platform, assuming that that meant that the debt might be paid in lawful money, that that was the spirit of the contract as well as the letter; so I cannot say what was decided."

Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, said: "Mr. President, it strikes me that the whole merit of this question depends upon the speedy and prompt action of the Senate. I doubt whether by referring it to a committee the object can be accomplished; and I question the propriety of bringing up a discussion upon the financial policy of the Government on an abstract resolution of this character. The President's message has gone out to the country. It has its influence, and is at present having its influence at home and abroad on the credit of the country and on the national honor. If we desire to counteract that, we ought to do it by some expression of the Senate immediately had. I suggest, therefore, to the honorable Senator from New Jersey whether the resolution could not be so modified as simply to present to the Senate the question as to its opinion upon what the President has proposed himself, that, and no more; not a resolution in a form that will involve whether we are to pay our debt in gold or in the legal currency, or what the policy of the Government on our financial matters heretofore has been, but simply an expression on the part of the Senate condemning so much of the President's message as relates to the repudiation of our public debt, which is a matter entirely different from the manner in which we should pay it. I will offer this as a substitute for the resolution of the Senator from New Jersey, and ask action on it now."

The Chief Clerk read as follows:

Resolved, That the Senate, properly cherishing and upholding the good faith and honor of the nation, do hereby utterly disapprove of and condemn the sentiments and proposition contained in so much of the late annual message of the President of the United States as reads as follows: "It may be assumed that the holders of our securities have already received upon their bonds a larger amount than their original investments, measured by a gold standard. Upon this statement of facts it would seem but just and equitable that the six per cent. interest now paid by the Government should be applied to the reduction of the principal in semi-annual instalments, which in sixteen years and eight months would liquidate the entire national debt. Six per cent. in gold would at present rates be equal to nine per cent. in currency; and equivalent to the payment of the debt one and a half time in a fraction less than seventeen years. This, in connection with all the other advantages derived from their investment, would afford to the public creditors a fair and liberal compensation for the use of their capital, and with this they should be satisfied. The lessons of the past admonish the lender that it is not well to be over-anxious in exacting from the borrower rigid compliance with the letter of the bond."

Mr. Warner, of Alabama: "I have a resolution to offer to go to the committee with the other resolutions, and I ask that it be read now for information."

The Chief Clerk read as follows:

Resolved by the Senate of the United States, That we regard as dishonest the proposition of the President contained in his message, to appropriate the interest of the public debt to the payment of the principal.

Mr. Saulsbury, of Maryland, said: "Mr. President, I shall vote for none of these propositions in their present shape, and I doubt whether I shall vote for them in any shape in which they may be presented. If the President's message, however, means that which gentlemen seem to conceive it means, repudiation in any form, I condemn the proposition as strongly as anybody. I shall not attempt to give any explanation as to the meaning of the President of the United States in his message. That he meant repudiation of the public indebtedness, that he meant to advocate bad faith toward the public creditors or toward any other class of men, I do not for a moment

believe. While I have been no partisan of his administration, I will do him the justice to say that his whole life has shown him to be a man who does not repudiate honest and honorable obligations either in public or in private life."

All the resolutions were referred to the Committee on Finance, and on the next day the committee reported back the resolution offered by Mr. Willey, of West Virginia, without amendment. On the next day, December 16th, the subject was considered, and Mr. Hendricks, of Indiana, said: "I move to amend the resolution by striking out all after the word 'resolved,' and inserting as a substitute:

That the Senate cordially indorse the sentiment in the President's message that "our national credit should be sacredly observed," and declare that the public debt shall be paid as rapidly as practicable, exactly in accordance with the terms of the contracts under which the several loans were made; and where the obligations of the Government do not expressly state upon their face, or the law under which they were issued does not provide that they shall be paid in coin, they ought in right and justice to be paid in the lawful money of the United States.

"I think, Mr. President, if Congress is now called upon to make any expression of opinion at all, that this is the statement which ought to be made, that the public faith is to be observed, and that it is to be observed according to the contract; that if it be the contract that the bonds shall be paid in gold, they shall be thus paid; but if that be not the contract, then, under the law of 1862, they may be paid in the lawful money of the United States. While we have no right to repudiate the obligation to the bondholder, and perhaps have no desire to do so, we have no right, in my judgment, to increase the obligations of the Government to the bondholder. He is entitled to his contract. When he gets his contract, he cannot say that there is repudiation."

Mr. Edmunds, of Vermont, said: "I agree, I may say now, however, without going into the discussion, to the assertion of the Senator from Indiana, that we are to pay according to the contract; but the great question is, as between us, who are the final arbiters of what that contract is and the people who hold it; what is that contract in the light of the circumstances under which it was made, in the same light that it would be viewed by the gentleman himself if he had made a promise in similar language, and only his own honor could be appealed to to interpret and enforce it?"

Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, said: "I was very much struck with the argument heretofore made by the colleague of the Senator from Indiana, that, assuming that the five-twenty bonds were payable in lawful money of the United States, it would be against good faith that the volume of that currency as issued in former years should be increased. I believe it was the argument of the Senator from Indiana to whom I refer (Mr. Morton) that the greenbacks issued up to 1864, constituting a volume of currency of a certain magnitude, were applicable under the laws to the payment of the principal of the five-twenty bonds. It was his argument that the creditor received his securities in view of the existing state of the currency under the authority given by law to the Secretary of the Treasury to issue that sort of securities, and that it would be a violation, not of express but of implied faith on the part of the Government, by issuing additional currency, to reduce the amount of compensation which the creditor would receive when the bonds came to be paid. Now, sir, at present my impression is that that argument is sound; that we can apply the currency issued under the act of 1862, and one or two subsequent acts, to the payment of the principal of the bonds authorized to be issued by the same class of laws passed *pari passu* with it; but, on the other hand, it would be inequitable and unjust for the Government, by diluting the currency by subsequent issues of paper-money, to depreciate the value those creditors should receive. I do not know in what exact form this amendment is proposed. I am averse to voting for an amendment without any limitation, and which declares a general doctrine upon which I have bestowed no attention."

The amendment of Mr. Hendricks was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Buckalew, Davis, Hendricks, McCreery, Saulsbury, Vickers, and Whyte—7.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Dixon, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harris, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Welch, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—44.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Cameron, Conness, Cragin, Doolittle, Fowler, Harlan, McDonald, Morton, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Sprague, and Tipton—15.

The resolution reported by the committee was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Dixon, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Henderson, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Osborn, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Van Winkle, Wade, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—43.

NAYS—Messrs. Davis, McCreery, Patterson of Tennessee, Saulsbury, Vickers, and Whyte—6.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Conness, Doolittle, Drake, Fowler, Hendricks, McDonald, Morrill of Maine, Morton, Norton, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pool, Sprague, Tipton, Trumbull, and Welch—17.

In the House, on December 14th, Mr. Broomall, of Pennsylvania, offered the following resolution:

Whereas, the President of the United States, in his annual message to the Fortieth Congress at its third session, says: "It may be assumed that the holders of our securities have already received upon their

bonds a larger amount than their original investment, measured by a gold standard. Upon this statement of facts it would seem but just and equitable that the six per cent. interest now paid by the Government should be applied to the reduction of the principal in semi-annual instalments, which in sixteen years and eight months would liquidate the entire national debt. Six per cent. in gold would at present rates be equal to nine per cent. in currency, and equivalent to the payment of the debt one and a half time in a fraction less than seventeen years. This, in connection with all the other advantages derived from their investment, would afford to the public creditors a fair and liberal compensation for the use of their capital, and with this they should be satisfied. The lessons of the past admonish the lender that it is not well to be over-anxious in exacting from the borrower rigid compliance with the letter of the bond;" and, whereas, such sentiments, if permitted to go to the world without immediate protest, may be understood to be the sentiments of the people of the United States and their Representatives in Congress: Therefore,

Resolved, That all forms and degrees of repudiation of national indebtedness are odious to the American people. And that under no circumstances will their Representatives consent to offer the public creditor, as full compensation, a less amount of money than that which the Government contracted to pay him.

The preamble and first clause of the resolution were agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnell, James M. Ashley, Axtell, Bailey, Baker, Baldwin, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Boyer, Broomall, Buckley, Roderick R. Butler, Callis, Cary, Chandler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Coburn, Cook, Corley, Covode, Cullom, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dixon, Donnelly, Driggs, Eckley, Edwards, Eggleston, Ela, Eliot, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, French, Garfield, Getz, Glossbrenner, Goss, Gove, Griswold, Haughey, Hawkins, Higby, Hooper, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Hunter, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Lash, George V. Lawrence, William Lawrence, Lincoln, Loan, Loughridge, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, McCarthy, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Morrissey, Mullins, Myers, Newsham, Norris, O'Neill, Orth, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pettis, Phelps, Pike, Pile, Plants, Poland, Polsley, Price, Prince, Pruyn, Randall, Raum, Robertson, Robinson, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Sitgreaves, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Stevens, Stewart, Stokes, Stover, Sypher, Taber, Taffe, Taylor, Thomas, Tift, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Elihu B. Washburne, Henry D. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, William Williams, James F. Wilson, John T. Wilson, Stephen F. Wilson, Windom, Wood, Woodbridge, and Woodward—155.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Grover, Thomas L. Jones, Mungen, and Lawrence S. Trimble—6.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Anderson, Delos R. Ashley, Barnes, Beck, Blackburn, Blaine, Boles, Bromwell, Brooks, Buckland, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Cake, Clift, Cobb, Cornell, Delano, Dockery, Dodge, Eldridge, Fox, Golladay, Gravely, Haight, Halsey, Hamilton, Harding, Heaton, Hill, Holman, Asahel W. Hubbard, Humphrey, Johnson, Kerr, Knott, Laflin, Logan, Marshall, Maynard, McCormick, McCullough, Newcomb, Niblack, Nicholson, Nunn, Pierce, Pomeroy, Roots, Ross, Sawyer, Selye, Shellabarger, Stone, John Trimble, Van Auken, Robert T. Van Horn, Van Trump, Vidal, Thomas Williams, and Young—60.

The remainder of the resolution was agreed to without a count.

In the House, on February 22d, Mr. Schenck, of Ohio, called up the bill reported back from the Committee of Ways and Means, with a recommendation that it be passed without amendment, as follows:

A bill to strengthen the public credit, and relating to contracts for the payment of coin.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That in order to remove any doubt as to the purpose of the Government to discharge all just obligations to the public creditors, and to settle conflicting questions and interpretations of the laws by virtue of which such obligations have been contracted, it is hereby provided and declared that the faith of the United States is solemnly pledged to the payment in coin or its equivalent of all the interest-bearing obligations of the United States, except in cases where the law authorizing the issue of any such obligation has expressly provided that the same may be paid in lawful money or other currency than gold and silver: *Provided, however*, That, before any of said interest-bearing obligations, not already due, shall mature or be paid before maturity, the obligations not bearing interest, known as United States notes, shall be made convertible into coin at the option of the holder.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any contract hereafter made specifically payable in coin, and the consideration of which may be a loan of coin, or a sale of property, or the rendering of labor or service of any kind, the price of which as carried into the contract may have been adjusted on the basis of the coin value thereof at the time of such sale or of the rendering of such service or labor, shall be legal and valid, and may be enforced according to its terms; and, on the trial of a suit brought for the enforcement of any such contract, proof of the real consideration may be given.

He said: "We have issued certain other bonds under provisions of law which describe the amounts of them as for so many 'dollars.' In those authorizing laws it has not been expressed that the 'dollar' was to mean or stand for any thing else than what a dollar had been held to be always since the beginning of the Government—a hundred cents, or its equivalent in coin. We have had disputes among ourselves as to the true meaning of these statutes, and conflicting interpretations have been given, depending on comparison and construction of their various sections and clauses, until the heads of honest men have been made to ache in the endeavor to hunt a clear meaning through ambiguity. Honest men have remembered, too, that the bonds were taken on the faith of contemporaneous declarations by Congress and the agents of the Government that they were payable in gold. But there, in the law, all the while, has stood out plainly the promise to pay so many dollars to the public creditor. Let us do it. Let us do it, remembering that the most priceless property of a nation is its credit, on the maintenance of which untarnished its very power to preserve its existence may some time depend. Remembering, too, that, while dealings between individuals of the same country may be presumed in the absence of express agreement to be in what is made the lawful currency of that country, a nation, on the contrary, is but as an in-

dividual member of the family of nations; and when it puts forth its obligations it offers them not only to its own citizens, but in the market of the world for the money of the world. And the money of the world, it needs no argument to show, is that universal standard of value and medium of exchange which all governments have concurred in making of the precious metals.

"So much for the first section of the bill.

"The second section is not a provision for the resumption of specie payments, but a preparation for resumption. It leaves to the people by their voluntary transactions to bring about for themselves a change from the use of depreciated paper to the representative of actual values. And, while this is done by giving the power to enforce contracts for coin and coin values, the provision is so carefully guarded in terms as not to be subject to the objection most frequently urged against such an act of legislation. It cannot be made an instrument in the hands of a hard creditor for the oppression of an embarrassed debtor under the specious pretext of renewal of a contract made on a different basis.

"I think there are few intelligent persons now who do not believe that a return to specie payments is desirable. The common judgment of the country is for only such paper substitute, to be used for a circulating medium, as is convertible at pleasure into that which is recognized as a safer and more certain measure of values all the world over.

"Whether, in view of the decision just made by the Supreme Court of the United States, any provision of law for legalizing contracts for the payment of coin be needed, may, perhaps, be a question. But it is a question which had better be resolved by positive enactment. And in any event it is desirable to be moving in the direction of judicial judgment.

"But how, or by what process, are we to come back to the gold standard? That is the problem to be solved.

"Return at once to specie payments is, from the want of coin sufficient for such an occasion, simply impossible. And, if such sudden resumption were possible, it would be most disastrous in its effects by the ruin it would bring upon the debtor class, which controls the productive industry of the country.

"A scheme for resumption to take place at any near certain date in the future, to be fixed by law, would be productive, I believe, of embarrassment and disaster little less serious and immediate. While the Government would be hoarding or purchasing coin to prepare for the given day, thus withdrawing that solid part of our currency from any use as such, and so enhancing its comparative value by an increased demand, brokers and speculators, on the other hand, stimulated and tempted by the percentage of profit to be made by the operation, would be taking the paper-money of the Government out of circulation and laying it up for conversion into gold when the day of coin payments should arrive. Thus the channels of trade would be drained of money in two directions, and the country deprived in a good degree of both kinds of currency. Prices of all property and labor would go down under this double exhaustion of the present supply of a circulating medium until the prescribed period for resumption; and then the hoarders of greenbacks, having converted them into coin, would make accumulated gain by purchasing every thing at the ruinous rates to which market values would be reduced; and a third profit would follow from the subsequent gradual and natural rise of prices to an ordinary specie standard.

"To me it seems that every plan is a mistake which proposes resumption as the direct object of legislation, or which at this time would enforce specie payments at a fixed date. Resumption, in my opinion, to be safe and lasting, must come as a consequence of wise and wholesome legislation, and of an economical and sagacious administration of our financial affairs."

Mr. Pruyn, of New York, said: "What do we mean by this legislation? Do we mean any thing or nothing? Is it a renewed declaration of what former statutes provide, or something else? If the former, it is deceptive, and so I look upon it; but if it is the latter, then the gentleman undertakes by this law to create a new obligation on the part of the Government to its creditors, such as the acts under which the issue of bonds was made did not create.

"Now, sir, this whole question will eventually be solved in one way. If the gentleman is of the opinion that, in 1882, when the bonds of 1862 will have matured, the Government will then have resumed specie payment, the whole question is then solved, for we will then pay coin, of course. The labor, the industry, and the toil of the country must work out this problem; but if, when that time arrives, we cannot pay in coin, if we shall not have reached coin value, then we must pay in new obligations, and the public creditor must wait until the country is able to meet its obligations in coin. We stated to the world that we meant to carry on the war not upon a specie basis, that we were not able to carry on the war with coin, but we intended to draw on posterity and the labor of the future. We promised gold for interest, but that the public creditors must take the result as to the principal; that, if we put down the rebellion, if we succeeded in that work, we should soon resume specie payment, and then, of course, every obligation of the Government would be paid in coin. If we did not reach that point, then it would be impossible for us to pay in coin, and the public creditors must take new obligations and wait until we could reach specie payment. That was the proposition we made in 1862 to the public creditors, and under which they took those bonds.

"Now, sir, what has been the cause of our expenditure since the war closed? We are more indebted now than we were then, notwithstanding a system of taxation more heavy than was ever before imposed upon any people living under a republican form of government. Notwithstanding these drafts upon our resources, our debt has been accumulating, and we are further from specie payment than three years ago; and so it will be until we have a sound system of finance on the part of the Government—a sound system of taxation on one side levied on a few articles, and a wise system of expenditure on the other. Until we do that, we shall have to give the public creditors renewed promises to pay. On the other hand, a wise, sound, and judicious system of finance can bring us to specie payments in a very few years. But Congress can do nothing by legislation of this kind. It is futile, it is useless, it is deceptive. The first section of this bill, so far as I can see, means nothing. If it means more than the former statutes do, then I submit that this is not the way to meet that question. If this Government is to come under increased and enlarged obligations, this whole thing should be fairly and squarely considered in open debate, giving an opportunity to all gentlemen to advance their respective views in regard to it, and we should determine, by conjoint effort, in what way we can best protect the credit and power of the country."

The bill was ordered to be engrossed, read a third time, and passed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Anderson, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Axtell, Baldwin, Banks, Barnum, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Blackburn, Blaine, Blair, Boyden, Boyer, Brooks, Broomall, Buckley, Callis, Chandler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Corley, Cornell, Cullom, Dawes, Delano, Dixon, Dodge, Driggs, Eckley, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Getz, Glossbrenner, Gove, Griswold, Halsey, Harding, Heaton, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Chester D. Hubbard, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Kitchen, Koontz, Laflin, Lash, George V. Lawrence, Lynch, Marvin, Maynard, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newcombe, Newsham, Norris, O'Neill, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pettis, Phelps, Plants, Poland, Pomeroy, Price, Raum, Robertson, Robinson, Roots, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shellabarger, Smith, Spalding, Starkweather, Stewart, Stover, Taber, Taylor, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Van Aernam, Burt Van Horn, Robert T. Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Thomas Williams, James F. Wilson, and Windom—120.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Baker, Beatty, Beck, Bowen, Bromwell, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Covode, Deweese, Donnelly, Eggleston, Ela, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Fox, French, Golladay, Goss, Grover, Haight, Hawkins, Holman, Hopkins, Humphrey, Hunter, Ingersoll, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kelley, Kerr, Knott, William Lawrence, Loughridge, Marshall, McCormick, Mungen, Niblack, Nunn, Orth, Pike, Ross, Shanks, Stevens, Stokes, Stone, Taffe, Thomas, Tift, Van Trump, Henry D. Washburn, William Williams, John T. Wilson, Wood, and Young—60.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Bailey, Barnes, Bingham, Boles, Boutwell, Buckland, Cary, Dickey, Dockery, Edwards, Garfield, Gravely, Hamilton, Haughey, Asahel W. Hubbard, Lincoln, Loan, Logan, Mallory, McCarthy, McCullough, Morrissey, Nicholson, Pierce, Pile, Polsley, Prince, Pruyn, Randall, Selye, Sitgreaves, Sypher, John Trimble, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Auken, Van Wyck, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Stephen F. Wilson, Woodbridge, and Woodward—42.

In the Senate, on February 26th, the bill was reported back from the Committee of Finance to whom it had been referred, with an amendment to strike out in line nine of the first section the words "interest-bearing," and also to strike out the proviso at the end of the first section in the following words:

Provided, however, That, before any of said interest-bearing obligations, not already due, shall mature or be paid before maturity, the obligations not bearing interest, known as United States notes, shall be made convertible into coin at the option of the holder.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, moved to recommit the bill, with instructions to the committee to report a bill embodying the following propositions:

First. That gold and silver coin is the measure and the par established by the world and adopted by the Constitution of the United States for all property, values, debts, and other pecuniary liabilities; and the Government of the United States having, on the sale of the bonds which constitute the bulk of the national debt, received greatly less, when measured by the par of gold and silver coin, than their nominal amount, said bonds should be discharged by the payment in coin of their value by that par at the days they were respectively sold by the Government; and the future interest upon said bonds should be reduced to four and a half per cent. per annum on their value as aforesaid, payable in coin.

Second. That all other debts and pecuniary liabilities created or incurred since the issue of legal-tender notes, and which do not express to be payable in gold or silver coin, were contemplated and intended by the parties to be met and paid in currency; and on the general resumption of specie payments such debts and liabilities should be discharged by the payment in gold or silver coin of their value by that par when they become due and payable.

Third. That the annual expenditures of the Government should be reduced within the following general scale: for the civil service, $45,000,000; pensions and Indians, $30,000,000; Department of War, $25,000,000; Navy Department, $20,000,000; contingencies and miscellanies, $10,000,000; and interest on the public debt, $50,000,000; and the whole surplus of the revenue should be faithfully applied to the extinguishment of the public debt.

Fourth. The taxes, which are now so grievous a burden upon the people of the United States, should be reduced at least $100,000,000 annually, of their aggregate amount; and a day, within three years, should be named for the general resumption of specie payments.

The motion of Mr. Davis was not agreed to. The question was then taken on the amendment of the committee, and it was agreed to.

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, moved to strike out the second section, which was lost by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Chandler, Cole, Davis, Doolittle, Fowler, Howe, and Wade—7.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Dixon,

Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Pomeroy, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Trumbull, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—36.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Grimes, Harris, Henderson, Hendricks, Howard, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Rice, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sawyer, Spencer, Sprague, Tipton, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, Whyte, and Yates—23.

Mr. Henderson, of Missouri, moved to amend the second section so as to read as follows:

And be it further enacted, That any contract hereafter made specifically payable in coin shall be legal and valid, and may be enforced according to its terms.

The motion was lost by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Dixon, Fessenden, Henderson, Pomeroy, Ross, Stewart, and Trumbull—10.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conness, Cragin, Davis, Doolittle, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Frelinghuysen, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, McDonald, Morgan, Morrill of Vermont, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ramsey, Rice, Sawyer, Sherman, Sumner, Thayer, Wade, Welch, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—34.

ABSENT—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Fowler, Grimes, Harris, Hendricks, Howard, McCreery, Morrill of Maine, Norton, Patterson of Tennessee, Pool, Robertson, Saulsbury, Spencer, Sprague, Tipton, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, Whyte, and Yates—22.

The bill, as amended by the Finance Committee, was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Cattell, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Dixon, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Grimes, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Robertson, Sawyer, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—30.

NAYS—Messrs. Cole, Davis, Doolittle, Fowler, Henderson, Hendricks, McCreery, McDonald, Morton, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Pomeroy, Ross, Spencer, Wade, and Welch—16.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Buckalew, Cameron, Chandler, Drake, Howe, Kellogg, Norton, Pool, Ramsey, Rice, Saulsbury, Sprague, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Vickers, Warner, Whyte, and Yates—20.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "I move to amend the title so as to read, 'An act relating to the public debt.'"

The motion was agreed to.

On March 2d the House refused to concur in the amendments of the Senate, and appointed a committee of conference.

On the same day the Senate insisted on its amendments, and appointed a committee of conference.

This joint committee, on March 3d, reported to each House the following bill:

An Act to strengthen the public credit, and relating to contracts for the payment of coin.

SECTION 1. *Be it enacted, etc.*, That, in order to remove any doubt as to the purpose of the Government to discharge all just obligations to the public creditors, and to settle conflicting questions and interpretations of the laws, by virtue of which obligations have been contracted, it is hereby provided and declared that the faith of the United States is solemnly pledged to the payment in coin, or its equivalent, of all obligations of the United States not bearing interest, known as United States notes, and of all the interest-bearing obligations of the United States, except in cases where the law authorizing the issue of any such obligation has expressly provided that the same may be paid in lawful money, or other currency than gold and silver. But none of said interest-bearing obligations not already due shall be redeemed or paid before maturity, unless at such time United States notes shall be convertible into coin, at the option of the holder, or unless at such time bonds of the United States, bearing a lower rate of interest than the bonds to be redeemed, can be sold at par in coin. And the United States also solemnly pledges its faith to make provision, at the earliest practicable period, for the redemption of the United States notes in coin.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That any contract hereafter made specifically payable in coin, and the consideration of which may be a loan of coin, or a sale of property, or the rendering of labor or service of any kind, the price of which, as carried into the contract, may have been adjusted on the basis of the coin value thereof at the time of such sale, or the rendering of such service or labor, shall be legal and valid, and may be enforced according to its terms; and, on the trial of a suit brought for the enforcement of any such contract, proof of the real consideration may be given.

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, said: "If the Secretary will send the report and the bill to me, I will explain, in a very few words, the result of the conference. The Senate made four amendments to this short bill. The first amendment was designed to extend the pledge of the first section to the United States notes as well as the bonds. In the House bill, the obligations were described as 'all interest-bearing obligations,' but there was no pledge to pay in coin United States notes. The Senate, by striking out the words 'interest-bearing,' intended to extend the pledge to all obligations of the United States; but the House conferees feared that this would include obligations not intended to be embraced by this claim. In order to avoid all ambiguity, we now say that the pledge shall extend to the payment of all United States notes in coin, and all interest-bearing obligations, except those where other provision was made, so as to prevent including other obligations not intended to be reached by this measure; and, in that respect, I think the report of the conferees is decidedly an improvement, because it is more specific.

"The second amendment of the Senate was to strike out the proviso to the first section. The objections made in the Senate to the proviso were these: That it tied up the power of the Government to pay the debt, or do any thing toward reducing the rate of interest, until after the return of specie payments. This provision is stricken out, and, instead of it, we have inserted a provision that we will not attempt to pay the principal of this debt until either we resume specie payments or we can sell a bond bearing a lower rate of interest than the bonds, to be redeemed at par in coin. Then we are at liberty to proceed to pay off the outstanding bonds, even if specie payments have not been resumed.

"I think that this is a great improvement. The United States postpones payment of this debt until we can pay it at par in coin, either by the sale of bonds or by the resumption of specie payments, and we also announce to the country that we will take steps, as early as practicable, to specie payment of the notes.

"I will state, in regard to the third amendment, that I did not agree to the conclusion in regard to it. The third amendment of the Senate was made on motion of the honorable Senator from New Jersey (Mr. Frelinghuysen), to strike out the last clause of the second section. That clause allowed, by implication at least, the consideration of a negotiable note to be inquired into between others than the original parties. In order to avoid that construction, the Senate struck out that last clause, leaving the question of inquiring into the consideration to depend upon the general and local law in each State. That is the way it ought to be; but the House conferees were not willing to agree to this report unless this provision was retained. I myself was not disposed to yield that, but a majority of the Senate conferees thought it was better to yield in order to secure the passage of the bill. The words which are retained and which the Senate struck out are these:

And, on the trial of a suit brought for the enforcement of any such contract, proof of the real consideration may be given.

"That would seem to imply that this proof could be given in a suit brought by a *bona fide* holder on a note where there was usury between the original parties; but, as this clause does not state the effect of the evidence on the real consideration, we thought it better, or at least a majority of the conferees, against my opinion, thought it best, to leave that clause in, rather than endanger the passage of the bill."

Mr. Sprague, of Rhode Island, said: "Mr. President, I desire in one word, in behalf of the industries, so far as I know them, of this country, to enter my solemn protest against the passage of this act, a measure calculated, in my judgment, more to repudiate the national debt than any measure that has yet been enacted, and as certain to result in that direction if the people are true to themselves. It seems, sir, that the industries of this country, crushed to the very earth in the past three years, are not crushed sufficiently, but they must have this staggering, this most outrageous blow dealt upon them. If there is any measure calculated to prostrate whatever there is in the present profitable occupation of this country, this is it. I affirm to this Senate and to this country, and I shall be borne out in it, that there is no industry, commencing three years ago, that is at all in a profitable condition except that which is receiving to-day the pap of Government appropriations. Why tamper with this most sacred and most delicate instrument? Sir, I have not words to express the feeling of outrage that is in me at this constant manipulation of the finances, first of the Government and then of the people, for what purpose? You have contracted your currency nearly four hundred million dollars in three years for the purpose of enhancing its value. What has been the result of it? Have you enhanced the value of the nation's credit? Not one cent. You have prostrated every interest and every industry in consequence of that most suicidal and most damnable policy. I protest, therefore, in the name of the industries of this country and in their behalf, representing them as I do, and as I know they at present exist, against the additional load that will be put on them by this most unholy and most inconsiderate legislation."

Mr. Hendricks: "Mr. President, I do not intend again to discuss this question, but to ask of the Senate whether this body is now prepared to change the contract between the Government and its creditors, as is proposed by this report? In my judgment the measure has not been improved by the action of the committee of conference. By this proposition we now undertake to waive permanently the right to redeem the five-twenty bonds during the period of twenty years allowed by the original law to the discretion of the Government, and to provide that the Government shall not redeem at all unless Treasury notes are equal with gold in value.

"This, sir, is now the distinct proposition; and, as far as we can, in the absence of a new consideration, we undertake to bind the Government to a material modification of the contract, to the benefit of the creditor and to the prejudice of the people. After the contract has been made by the law and by the language of the bonds, and before the maturity of the bonds, why shall we undertake to change the nature and extent of that contract? Why not leave it as it stood at the time the Government made the contract? There were some merits in the funding bill urged by the Senator from Ohio last year and urged by the Committee on Finance in its elaborate report of December, 1867. There was some compensation in that measure. In that bill it was proposed as a compensation to the tax-payers that there should be a reduction of the interest, that the six per cent. bonds should fall to four and four and a half per cent., making a large saving annually to the people in interest and a very great relief to the burdened interests of the country; but, as I thought, not sufficient to justify then a change of the contract.

"But now, Mr. President, abandoning the idea of compensation, it is proposed, without consideration, as far as we now can do it, to change the contract and to make obligations which may be redeemed within a specified period, in the legal-tender notes of the Government, gold obligations. Where is the return? The present proposed policy is in strange contrast with the policy that was adopted at the

time this debt was contracted. As I read to the Senate the other evening from the report of the Committee on Finance, the policy of Congress in 1862 and 1863 was, to reduce the value of the paper currency issued by the Government so as that there should be an inducement on the part of the persons holding that currency to invest it in the bonds. Depreciation was then the policy of the Government—a depreciated currency made necessary, in the language of the committee, by the fact that the bonds would not sell under the act of February 25, 1862. The depreciated currency was the consideration the Government received for its bonds, and that depreciation was brought about upon a purpose and a policy. To secure a sale of bonds then, the currency was purposely depreciated; but when the Government comes to assume and to provide for its payment, then the opposite policy is to be adopted and the currency is to be by special legislation appreciated, or if it cannot be appreciated, then that the bonds shall not be paid until the Government can pay in gold. Why this reversal of policy? If it was right that the Government should be paid for these bonds in a currency purposely depreciated, why is there an obligation that we shall provide for an appreciation of the currency when the Government comes to redeem the bonds? I desire that there shall be an appreciation of the currency; but, as I said the other evening, I look to that only through a restored prosperity in the business of the country."

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, said: "Mr. President, I was a member of the committee of conference, but I could not sign this report for the reason that it would commit me to a construction of the law and the contract in regard to the five-twenty bonds from which I have always dissented. I believe that under the law the Government had as much right to pay those bonds in legal-tender notes as it has to pay any other debt, and that this declaration is substantially a change of the contract, and it is committing the Government to a payment in coin which is not required by the original contract. Therefore I cannot and will not vote for it.

"But, Mr. President, this report contains one important statement which I would be very glad to vote for if I could do so without voting for the rest of it. It is, 'and the United States also solemnly pledges its faith to make provision at the earliest practicable period for the redemption of the United States notes in coin.' This I regard as a very important statement upon the part of the conference committee. It prescribes the way by which the Government shall return to specie payments, and the Government solemnly pledges its faith that it will make provision at the earliest practicable period for the redemption of the greenback currency in coin. The Senator from Vermont a little while ago asked a question of the chairman of the committee, whether this would interfere with the funding of these notes. I say unquestionably it will. If these notes can be funded and disposed of in that way after the passage of this bill, it would be a direct violation of the solemn pledge that is here given. What is the pledge that is given? It is a pledge given to the whole country that the Government will make provision at the earliest practicable moment not to fund these notes, not to return to the old policy of contraction, which has been condemned most solemnly by Congress, but that it will make provision to redeem these notes in coin. If this pledge is treated as a nullity before it has even been passed, we need not place much importance upon it hereafter."

Mr. Williams, of Oregon, said: "Now, the simple question is, as to this part of the bill, did the people of the country expect when these bonds were issued, did those who supported the Government during the rebellion and the men who gave their money to the Government and took these bonds—did they expect that they would be paid in depreciated paper? Was it the general expectation of the country that these bonds would be cancelled by promises of the Government depreciated in value, or was it the general understanding that they would be paid in gold or its equivalent? Suppose you admit, for the sake of the argument, that they are payable in Treasury notes, then the other conclusion necessarily follows that these notes, when payment was to be made, were to be worth their face in gold. That was the general opinion on the subject at the time the bonds were issued, and it is for the purpose of carrying out that understanding in good faith that this bill is enacted, and I do not understand that in any respect it changes the nature or even the form of the contract. It is simply a pledge on the part of the Government that these bonds when they are paid shall be paid in gold or its equivalent, and that pledge is accompanied by another that the Treasury notes shall also be paid in gold; so that all the obligations of the Government, without any distinction, shall be so paid. No preference is given to the bondholders by this bill, none given to those who hold Treasury notes of the Government; but here is a solemn pledge of this nation made at this time, to be noticed by the whole world, that the Government of the United States will redeem all its promises, without distinction, in the money that is recognized as such by the world. This is the promise that is made, and this is all there is of it."

"Now, sir, as to the second section, it is not precisely in the form that I should desire to have it, but it was impossible to agree unless this second section was incorporated in the report as it was adopted by the House; and, as it is a piece of legislation which contains no pledge or promise whatever to anybody, it may, if it is found to be bad in operation, be changed, by subsequent legislation. If this

provision as to gold contracts is not satisfactory to the people, if it is found to be defective in any way, the section does not estop Congress at its next session, or at any future time, from passing a law that will change it, and make it conform to the necessities and circumstances of the country."

Mr. Norton, of Minnesota, said: "My objection to this proposition is, that it looks to and inevitably brings about a permanency of the public debt. What is the interest of the Government in regard to the public debt? It is that it should be in the control of the Government. The Government, acting for and representing the people, should have the debt in their control, and when they were able to pay it they should be permitted to do it. The interest of the bondholders is, that it should be in their control, and that the Government should not pay any of it until they are willing to receive it, and in the mean time the people bear the burdens in the shape of taxation.

"Then this proposition brings to an actual issue, as I think, the interest of the people who pay the taxes, and the interest of the men who hold the public debt and pay comparatively none of the taxes; and because I see in it a question between the men who hold the debt and the people who pay the taxes, and because I believe that Congress should look to the interests of the people quite as much as to the interests of the bondholders, I believe the residue of this session of Congress cannot be more profitably spent than in discussing this very measure. It would be far better for the interests of the country that all the appropriation bills should fail than that this proposition should pass. The Senator from Oregon talked about this Congress pledging the faith of the nation, and that nothing of repudiation should be heard of. Sir, when this Congress pledges the faith of the nation to pay the five-twenties in coin, they repudiate the interests of the people, and impose upon them burdens that they ought not to be required to bear."

The result was announced, as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Conness, Corbett, Cragin, Dixon, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Fessenden, Frelinghuysen, Harris, Howard, Morgan, Morrill of Maine, Morrill of Vermont, Nye, Patterson of New Hampshire, Ramsey, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Trumbull, Van Winkle, Warner, Willey, and Williams—31.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Buckalew, Cole, Davis, Doolittle, Fowler, Hendricks, Kellogg, McCreery, McDonald, Morton, Norton, Osborn, Patterson of Tennessee, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Spencer, Sprague, Thayer, Tipton, Vickers, Wade, and Whyte —24.

ABSENT—Messrs. Grimes, Harlan, Henderson, Howe, Pomeroy, Pool, Rice, Saulsbury, Welch, Wilson, and Yates—11.

So the report was concurred in.

In the House the report was concurred in by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ames, Arnell, Delos R. Ashley, James M. Ashley, Axtell, Bailey, Barnes, Barnum, Beaman, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Boutwell, Bowen, Boyden, Brooks, Broomall, Buckley, Cake, Callis, Chanler, Churchill, Reader W. Clarke, Sidney Clarke, Clift, Corley, Cornell, Cullom, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dodge, Eckley, Thomas D. Eliot, James T. Elliott, Ferriss, Ferry, Fields, Garfield, Gove, Griswold, Halsey, Haughey, Heaton, Higby, Hill, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Richard D. Hubbard, Hulburd, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Laflin, Lash, George V. Lawrence, Lincoln, Logan, Lynch, Mallory, Marvin, Maynard, McCarthy, McKee, Mercur, Miller, Moore, Moorhead, Morrell, Mullins, Myers, Newsham, Norris, O'Neill, Paine, Perham, Peters, Pierce, Pile, Plants, Poland, Price, Prince, Raum, Robertson, Robinson, Roots, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shellabarger, Smith, Starkweather, Stevens, Stewart, Stover, Sypher, Taber, Taylor, Trowbridge, Twichell, Upson, Burt Van Horn, Van Wyck, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, James F. Wilson, Woodbridge, and the Speaker—118.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Baker, Beatty, Beck, Boyer, Bromwell, Burr, Roderick R. Butler, Cary, Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Deweese, Dockery, Donnelly, Eldridge, Farnsworth, Getz, Golladay, Goss, Haight, Harding, Hawkins, Holman, Hopkins, Hunter, Ingersoll, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, William Lawrence, Marshall McCormick, McCullough, Mungen, Niblack, Orth, Pruyn, Randall, Ross, Shanks, Sitgreaves, Stone, Thomas, Tift, Lawrence S. Trimble, Van Aernam, Van Auken, Van Trump, Henry D. Washburn, William Williams, Stephen F. Wilson, Wood, Woodward, and Young —57.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Anderson, Baldwin, Banks, Blackburn, Blaine, Boles, Buckland, Benjamin F. Butler, Colfax, Covode, Delano, Driggs, Edwards, Eggleston, Ela, Fox, French, Glossbrenner, Gravely, Grover, Hamilton, Asahel W. Hubbard, Chester D. Hubbard, Humphrey, Kelley, Kitchen, Koontz, Loan, Loughridge, Morrissey, Newcomb, Nicholson, Nunn, Pettis, Phelps, Pike, Polsley, Selye, Spalding, Stokes, Taffe, John Trimble, Robert T. Van Horn, Vidal, Elihu B. Washburne, Thomas Williams, John T. Wilson, and Windom—48.

On March 3d, the Speaker resigned his seat, and Theodore M. Pomeroy, of New York, was elected to fill the vacancy as Speaker.

The following joint resolution was also passed by both Houses, and sent to the President on February 6th, and became of force without his signature:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the persons now holding civil offices in the provisional governments of Virginia and Texas, who cannot take and subscribe the oath prescribed by the act entitled "An act to prescribe an oath of office, and for other purposes," approved July 2, 1862, shall, on the passage of this resolution, be removed therefrom; and it shall be the duty of the district commanders to fill the vacancies so created by the appointment of persons who can take said oath: *Provided*, That the provisions of this resolution shall not apply to persons who, by reason of the removal of their disabilities as provided in the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, shall have qualified for any office in pursuance of the act entitled "An act prescribing an oath of office by persons from whom legal disabilities shall have been removed," approved July 11, 1868: *And provided further*, That this resolution shall not take effect until thirty days from and after its passage: *And it is further provided*, That this resolution shall be, and is hereby, extended to and made applicable to the State of Mississippi.

The session closed at noon on March 4th.

The first session of the Forty-first Congress* commenced at 12 M., March 4th. In the Senate, Schuyler Colfax was qualified as Vice-President of the United States, and took the chair.

In the House, James G. Blaine was chosen Speaker, he having received 135 votes, and Michael C. Kerr, of Indiana, 57 votes.

In the Senate, on March 6th, the following communication was received from President Grant:

To the Senate of the United States:

Since the nomination and confirmation of Alexander T. Stewart to the office of Secretary of the Treasury, I find that by the eighth section of the act of Congress, approved September 2, 1789, it is provided as follows, to wit:

"*And be it further enacted*, That no person appointed to any office instituted by this act shall directly or indirectly be concerned or interested in carrying on the business of trade or commerce, or be owner in whole or in part of any sea-vessel, or purchase, by himself or another in trust for him, any

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* The following is a list of the members of Congress:

SENATE.

Alabama—Willard Warner, George E. Spencer.
Arkansas—Alexander McDonald, Benjamin F. Rice.
California—Cornelius Cole, Eugene Casserly.
Connecticut—William A. Buckingham, Orrin S. Ferry.
Delaware—Thomas F. Bayard, Willard Saulsbury.
Florida—Abijah Gilbert, Thomas W. Osborn.
Georgia—Not admitted.
Illinois—Lyman Trumbull, Richard Yates.
Indiana—Oliver P. Morton, Daniel D. Pratt.
Iowa—James W. Grimes, James Harlan.
Kansas—Samuel C. Pomeroy, Edmund G. Ross.
Kentucky—Garret Davis, Thomas C. McCreery.
Louisiana—John S. Harris, William P. Kellogg.
Maine—Hannibal Hamlin, William Pitt Fessenden.
Maryland—William T. Hamilton, George Vickers.
Massachusetts—Charles Sumner, Henry Wilson.
Michigan—Zachariah Chandler, Jacob M. Howard.
Minnesota—Alexander Ramsey, Daniel S. Norton.
Missouri—Charles D. Drake, Carl Schurz.
Nebraska—John M. Thayer, Thomas W. Tipton.
Nevada—William M. Stewart, James W. Nye.
New Hampshire—James W. Patterson, Aaron H. Cragin.
New Jersey—Alexander G. Cattell, John P. Stockton.
New York—Roscoe Conkling, Reuben E. Fenton.
North Carolina—Joseph C. Abbott, John Pool.
Ohio—John Sherman, Allen G. Thurman.
Oregon—Henry W. Corbett, George H. Williams.
Pennsylvania—Simeon Cameron, John Scott.
Rhode Island—William Sprague, Henry B. Anthony.
South Carolina—Thomas J. Robertson, Frederick A. Sawyer.
Tennessee—William G. Brownlow, J. S. Fowler.
Vermont—Justin S. Morrill, George F. Edmunds.
West Virginia—Arthur J. Boreman, Waitman T. Willey.
Wisconsin—Timothy O. Howe, Matthew H. Carpenter.

Not admitted at this session.

Mississippi,
Virginia,
Texas.

HOUSE.

Arkansas—Logan H. Roots, Anthony A. C. Rogers, Thomas Boles.
Alabama—Entitled to six members, but not yet elected.
California—Samuel B. Axtell, Aaron A. Sargent, James A. Johnson.
Connecticut—Julius Strong, Stephen W. Kellogg, H. H. Starkweather, William H. Barnum.
Delaware—Benjamin T. Biggs.
Florida—Charles M. Hamilton.
Georgia—Entitled to seven members, but no election yet been held.
Illinois—John A. Logan, Norman B. Judd, John F. Farnsworth, Elihu B. Washburne,* John B. Hawley, Egbert C. Ingersoll, Burton C. Cook, Jesse H. Moore, Shelby M. Cullom, T. W. McNeely, Albert G. Burr, Samuel S. Marshall, John B. Hay, John M. Crebs.
Indiana—William E. Niblack, Michael C. Kerr, William S. Holman, George W. Julian, John Coburn, Daniel W. Voorhees, Godlove S. Orth, James M. Tyner, John P. C. Shanks, William Williams, Jasper Packard.
Iowa—George W. McCrary, William Smyth, William B. Allison, William Loughridge, Francis W. Palmer, Charles Pomeroy.
Kansas—Sidney Clarke.
Kentucky—Lawrence S. Trimble, William M. Sweeny, Jacob S. Golladay, J. Proctor Knott, Boyd Winchester, Thomas L. Jones, James B. Beck, George M. Adams, John M. Rice.
Louisiana—1 (vacancy), Lewis A. Sheldon, 3 (vacancy), 4 (vacancy), 5 (vacancy).
Maine—John Lynch, Samuel P. Morrill, James G. Blaine, John A. Peters, Eugene Hale.
Maryland—Samuel Hambleton, Stevenson Archer, Thomas Swann, Patrick Hamill, Frederick Stone.
Massachusetts—James Buffinton, Oakes Ames, Ginery Twichell, Samuel Hooper, Benjamin F. Butler, Nathaniel P. Banks, George S. Boutwell,* George F. Hoar, William B. Washburn, Henry L. Dawes.
Michigan—Fernando C. Beaman, William L. Stoughton, Austin Blair, Thomas W. Ferry, Omar D. Conger, Randolph Strickland.
Minnesota—Morton S. Wilkinson, Eugene M. Wilson.
Mississippi—Entitled to five members, but no election.
Missouri—Erastus Wells, Gustavus A. Finkelburg, James R. McCormick, S. H. Boyd, Samuel S. Burdett, Robert T. Van Horn, Joel F. Asper, John F. Benjamin, David P. Dyer.
Nebraska—John Taffe.
Nevada—Thomas Fitch.
New Hampshire—Jacob H. Ela, Aaron F. Stevens, Jacob Benton.
New Jersey—William Moore, Charles Haight, John T. Bird, John Hill, Orestes Cleveland.
New York—Henry A. Reeves, John G. Schumaker, Henry W. Slocum, John Fox, John Morrissey, Samuel S. Cox, Hervey C. Calkin, James Brooks, Fernando Wood, Clarkson N. Potter, George W. Greene, John H. Ketcham, John A. Griswold, Stephen L. Mayham, Adolphus H. Tanner, Orange Ferris, William A. Wheeler, Stephen Sandford, Charles S. Knapp, Addison H. Laflin, Alexander H. Bailey, John C. Churchill, Dennis McCarthy, George W. Cowles, William H. Kelsey, Giles W. Hotchkiss, Hamilton Ward, Noah Davis, John Fisher, David S. Bennett, Porter Sheldon.
North Carolina—Clinton L. Cobb, David Heaton, Oliver H. Dockery, John T. Deweese, Israel G. Lash, Francis E. Shober, Alexander H. Jones.†
Ohio—Peter W. Strader, Job E. Stevenson, Robert C. Schenck, William Lawrence, William Mungen, John A. Smith, James J. Winans, John Beatty, Edward F. Dickinson, Truman H. Hoag, John T. Wilson, Philip Van Trump, George W. Morgan, Martin Welker, Eliakim H. Moore, John A. Bingham, Jacob A. Ambler, William H. Upson, James A. Garfield.
Oregon—Joseph S. Smith.
Pennsylvania—Samuel J. Randall, Charles O'Neill, Leonard Myers,‡ William D. Kelley, John R. Reading, John Stiles, Washington Townsend, J. Lawrence Getz, Oliver J. Dickey, Henry L. Cake, Daniel M. Van Auken, George W. Woodward, Ulysses Mercur, John B. Packer, Richard J. Haldeman, John Cessna, Daniel J. Morrell, William H. Armstrong, Glenni W. Scofield, Calvin W. Gilfillan, 21 (vacancy), James S. Negley, Darwin Phelps, Joseph B. Donley.
Rhode Island—Thomas A. Jenckes, Nathan F. Dixon.
South Carolina—Benjamin F. Whittemore, C. C. Bowen, S. D. Hoge, 4 (vacancy).
Tennessee—Roderick R. Butler, Horace Maynard, William B. Stokes, Lewis Tillman, William F. Prosser, Samuel M. Arnell, Isaac R. Hawkins, W. J. Smith.
Vermont—Charles W. Willard, Luke P. Poland, Worthington C. Smith.
West Virginia—Isaac H. Duvall, James C. McGrew, John S. Witcher.
Wisconsin—Halbert E. Paine, Benjamin F. Hopkins, Amasa Cobb, Charles A. Eldridge, Philetus Sawyer, Cadwalader C. Washburn.

Not admitted at this session.

Mississippi,
Texas,
Virginia.

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* Resigned, March 6th.

* Resigned, March 12th.
† Did not qualify.
‡ In place of John Moffat, unseated.

public lands or other public property, or be concerned in the purchase or disposal of any public securities of any State or of the United States, or take or apply to his own use any emolument or gain for negotiating any business in the said Department other than what shall be allowed by law; and if any person shall offend against any of the prohibitions of this act he shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanor and forfeit to the United States the penalty of $3,000, and shall upon conviction be removed from office and forever thereafter incapable of holding any office under the United States: *Provided*, That if any other person than a public prosecutor shall give information of any such offence upon which a prosecution and conviction shall be had, one-half the aforesaid penalty of $3,000, when recovered, shall be for the use of the person giving such information."

In view of these provisions, and the fact that Mr. Stewart has been unanimously confirmed by the Senate, I would ask that he be exempted by joint resolution of the two Houses of Congress from the operations of the same. U. S. GRANT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 6, 1869.

On March 9th, and before any action had been taken on the preceding message, the following was received from the President:

To the Senate of the United States:

I have the honor to request to be permitted to withdraw from the Senate of the United States my message of the 6th instant, requesting the passage of a joint resolution of the two Houses of Congress to relieve the Secretary of the Treasury from the disabilities imposed by section eight of the act of Congress approved September 2, 1789.

U. S. GRANT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 9, 1869.

The request was granted.

In the Senate, on March 8th, the bill for the further protection of equal rights in the District of Columbia, which was passed at the previous session, but failed to receive the signature of the President, was, on motion of Mr. Sumner, taken up and passed (see page —). On March 15th the same bill passed the House.

In the House, on March 10th, Mr. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That there be appointed for the Forty-first Congress a select Committee on Reconstruction, to consist of thirteen members, under the same rules and regulations as governed the proceedings of the Reconstruction Committee in the last Congress, and that all the documents and resolutions before the Committee on Reconstruction of the last Congress yet undisposed of be referred to them.

It was adopted by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Arnell, Asper, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Boutwell, Bowen, Buffinton, Burdett, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cessna, Churchill, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Donley, Duvall, Dyer, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelburg, Fisher, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hawley, Heaton, Hill, Hoar, Hooper, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Maynard, McCrary, McGrew, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sandford, Sargent, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Sheldon, John A. Smith, William Smyth, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—109.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Axtell, Biggs, Bird, Burr, Cleveland, Dickinson, Eldridge, Golladay, Griswold, Hamill, Holman, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Moffet, Mungen, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Schumaker, Slocum, Stiles, Strader, Swann, Sweeney, Trimble, Van Auken, Van Trump, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—43.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Armstrong, Beatty, Beck, Bennett, Boyd, Brooks, Benjamin F. Butler, Calkin, Clarke, Clinton L. Cobb, Crebs, Deweese, Dixon, Dockery, Fitch, Fox, Getz, Greene, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamilton, Hawkins, Hay, Hoag, Ingersoll, Johnson, Lynch, McCarthy, Mercur, Morgan, Morrissey, Peters, Rogers, Schenck, Joseph S. Smith, William J. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stone, Strickland, and Van Horn—42.

On the same day Mr. Butler, of Massachuchetts, introduced a bill to repeal an act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices, which was read and passed—yeas 138, nays 16, not voting 40.

In the Senate, on the same day, this House bill was taken up and referred to the Judiciary Committee. On March 16th the committee proposed to strike out the word "repealed," and to insert "suspended until the next session of Congress."

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "While the Committee on the Judiciary believed that it was proper that the present Administration should not be embarrassed or obstructed in its efforts to introduce reform into the public service, and to have able and efficient officers to discharge public duties, they were unwilling, after Congress had with such great unanimity adopted this law within the last two years, and adopted it upon the principle that some law of this kind was proper to regulate the civil service, to recommend its absolute repeal; and believing that every thing could be accomplished that is desired by any one by removing this law out of the way for the present and affording an opportunity, after the public service shall have been reformed in this matter of office, to consider the bill disconnected with any pressure for office, they thought it better to recommend the suspension of the act until the next session of Congress, and then Congress can either repeal it or adopt some civil service bill, which, in its judgment, shall be thought to be for the best and permanent interests of the country. It was with this view that the Committee on the Judiciary recommended that, instead of an absolute repeal, the law should be suspended until the next session of Congress."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "It is not my purpose to go into an argument of the constitutional question where the power of removal is vested. That question has been argued until I imagine no new light is likely to be shed upon it. I shall not, therefore, go into that discussion, further than to notice the different opinions that have prevailed with respect to it.

"Until lately I supposed there were but two interpretations thought of; one an interpretation that gives to the President the unqualified power of removal, the other an interpretation that requires the concurrence of the Senate in the exercise of the power of removal. Of late I understand that a third interpretation has been suggested, and that is that the President may exercise the power of removal, but subject to such regulations as Congress in its wisdom may prescribe. To my apprehension, sir, this third view of the Constitution is totally inadmissible. Either the power is vested in the President by the Constitution without limit or qualification, or the concurrence of the Senate is made necessary to the exercise of that power. If the Constitution vests the power absolutely in the President, then it is not competent for Congress to restrict, restrain, or limit it. So, if the Constitution vests the power in the President with the concurrence of the Senate, it is equally inadmissible for Congress to restrain or limit or restrict a power thus vested in the President and Senate.

"I do not, therefore, with great deference to those who think differently, suppose that this is a subject for legislation. I suppose that Congress may well enough prescribe a term of office; but I do not suppose that that touches the question where the power of removal resides. Congress may prescribe a term of office; but, if the Constitution vests either in the President alone, or in the President and this body, the right to remove, that power can be exercised notwithstanding it may abridge the incumbency of any individual.

"I say, then, Mr. President, that we are brought simply back to the original question, is the power of removal vested in the President alone, or is the concurrence of the Senate necessary to that power? It is not, in my humble judgment, a question for legislation; it is a question of constitutional interpretation. This being the case, it seems to me that there is but one of two modes to adopt. If, in the opinion of this Senate, the power of removal is vested in the President alone, then the civil Tenure-of-office Act ought to be repealed. If, in the opinion of the Senate, he does not possess that unqualified power, but the assent of the Senate is necessary to a removal, then I submit that the Tenure-of-office Act or some similar law should stand as the law of the land.

"Why, Mr. President, what is it now proposed to do? To take neither one of these interpretations. I understand it to be very truly stated by the Senator from Illinois that a majority of this body believe that the true interpretation of the Constitution requires the concurrence of the Senate in the removal of an officer. If so, I submit to honorable Senators how can they vote to suspend this law? There is one theory upon which they can vote for it very well, one theory upon which they could vote for the repeal of the Tenure-of-office Act, and that is that the President of the United States will obey the Constitution as they understand it; that without any law on the statute-book he will, in every instance, submit to the Senate the question of removal from office. Do Senators expect that? Do they expect that the President will interpret the Constitution as they interpret it, and act upon it as they think it requires? Do they expect that every removal from office will be submitted to this body if the Tenure-of-office Act should be repealed? If they do not expect that, what, then, do they propose to do? Do they propose to suffer the President of the United States to violate the Constitution, according to their interpretation of that instrument; or what will they do should he so violate it? Should he so violate it, and should he be impeached for that violation, what will be their votes on the impeachment? Will they find him guilty or not guilty of an infraction of the Constitution? If they believe that he has no unqualified power of removal, if they believe that the concurrence of this body is necessary in every instance of removal, how can they say that he will be guiltless of a violation of the Constitution if he remove an officer without submitting the question to the Senate? And yet is not that the object of this bill, to suspend this act? Suspend it, why? Suspend it for what? Suspend it that the President of the United States may exercise that absolute and unqualified power of removal that was exercised before the passage of the Tenure-of-office Act.

"Now, sir, it does seem to me that it will be regarded throughout the country, if this bill be passed, that the Senate of the United States interprets the Constitution to mean one thing when one man is President, and interprets it to mean another thing when another man is President; and I do most respectfully submit to this body that it is hardly consistent with its dignity, that it is hardly consistent with the dignity of the Congress of the United States, to pass a law like the Tenure-of-office Act after great and solemn consideration, and the moment that another President is elected and installed into office to suspend that law and make it a dead letter. Let this precedent be set, and what will be the value of the claim of the Senate to a concurrence in the power of removal from office?"

A debate ensued which continued several days and embraced the views advanced on the passage of the original bill (see ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, 1867). It closed with a vote to recommit the report.

On March 24th the committee again reported back the bill, with an amendment, which was to strike out all of the bill after the enacting clause, and to insert the following:

That the first and second sections of an act entitled "An act regulating the tenure of certain civil offices," passed March 2, 1867, be, and the same are hereby,

repealed, and, in lieu of said repealed sections, the following are hereby enacted:

That every person holding any civil office, to which he has been or hereafter may be appointed, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, and who shall have become duly qualified to act therein, shall be entitled to hold such office during the term for which he shall have been appointed, unless sooner removed, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, or by the appointment, with the like advice and consent, of a successor in his place, except as herein otherwise provided.

And be it further enacted, That, during any recess of the Senate, the President is hereby empowered, in his discretion, to suspend any civil officer appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, except judges of the United States courts, until the end of the next session of the Senate, and to designate some suitable person, subject to be removed, in his discretion, by the designation of another to perform the duties of such suspended officer in the mean time; and such person so designated shall take the oaths and give the bonds required by law to be taken and given by the suspended officer; and shall, during the time he performs his duties, be entitled to the salary and emoluments of such office, no part of which shall belong to the officer suspended; and it shall be the duty of the President, within thirty days after the commencement of each session of the Senate (except for any office which, in his opinion, ought not to be filled), to nominate persons to fill all vacancies in office which existed at the meeting of the Senate, whether temporarily filled or not, and also in the place of all officers suspended; and if the Senate, during such session, shall refuse to advise and consent to an appointment in the place of any suspended officer, and shall also refuse by vote to assent to his suspension, then, and not otherwise, such officer, at the end of the session, shall be entitled to resume the possession of the office from which he was suspended, and afterward to discharge its duties and receive its emoluments, as though no such suspension had taken place.

The motion to amend was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, Morrill, Osborn, Patterson, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—37.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, McCreery, McDonald, Norton, Ross, Sprague, Stockton, Thurman, Vickers, and Warner—16.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cole, Corbett, Fenton, Howe, Morton, Nye, Pomeroy, Pool, Robertson, Saulsbury, Sherman, and Thayer—16.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "The bill was intended, by the committee who reported it, to remove out of the way of the Executive any embarrassments which it was supposed that the tenure-of-office law interposed to the carrying out of the policy indicated by him of a reform in the civil service of the country, to leave him at liberty to select competent and efficient officers to discharge the duties imposed upon them by law, and, at the same time, to preserve the principle underlying this law, and which is believed, by many Senators, to be a constitutional principle. The bill, as it is reported to the Senate, strikes out from the original tenure-of-office law all those features which prescribed the causes for which persons in office could be suspended, and required the President to communicate to the Senate, at its next meeting after the suspension of the officer, the name of the officer suspended, together with the evidence upon which he was suspended, and the reasons for the suspension. This feature of the Tenure-of-office Act was admitted on all hands to be difficult of execution. It was objected to strongly in the Senate, as putting the President in the position of a prosecutor, requiring him to make out a case against an officer before he could be displaced.

"The bill, as reported, authorizes the President to suspend, in his discretion, any civil officer, during the recess of the Senate, and to substitute in his place some person to perform the duties, who will receive the emoluments for the time being, until the end of the next session of the Senate. In the mean time it is made the duty of the President, within thirty days after the reassembling of the Senate, to communicate to that body a nomination of some person to fill the office from which the officer has been suspended. If the Senate advise and consent to that nomination, that is the end of the matter, and another officer is substituted in lieu of the one who has been suspended. If the person nominated is not satisfactory to the Senate, and it refuses to give its advice and consent to the first person nominated, the President may nominate some other person, and may continue to make nominations during the whole session of the Senate: but, if none of the nominations sent in by the President are confirmed by the Senate, and if the Senate, in addition, shall by vote declare that they disagree to the suspension of the officer, then the bill provides that the suspended officer, at the end of the session, shall resume his office, and afterward receive the emoluments and perform the duties.

"It was said by the Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton) that there was nothing to prevent the President again suspending the restored officer after the close of the session. It is true that the bill does not provide that the President shall not do this; but has not the Senator from Indiana sufficient confidence in the President to believe that he will carry out the spirit and intention of the law? And would it not be trifling with the legislation of the country, trifling with that oath which the President takes to see that the laws are faithfully executed, if, the moment that, by the execution of the law, an officer was restored to his former position, he should again suspend him? This would be trifling with the statute; and I have altogether too much confidence in the President of the United States to think, for a moment, that he would do, or attempt to do, any such thing. That is not a fair interpretation to be put upon the bill. The presumption is that, when the Senate had distinctly refused to confirm an officer appointed in lieu of a suspended officer, and had also, by its vote, declared that that officer ought not to have been

suspended, no President would think, the moment the Senate had adjourned, in defiance of its action, of again suspending the officer who was by law restored to his former position, unless it was for some cause subsequently arising.

"The bill, then, preserves, as we have reported it, the principle which has been contended for, and which lies at the foundation of the Tenure-of-office Act, and, at the same time, it removes out of the way every obstacle to the President's filling the offices of the country with competent and efficient men; for, if this law were repealed totally, as some insist it ought to be, the President could not fill these offices, except temporarily, but by the consent of the Senate. If we had no tenure-of-office law, all the President could do would be to put into office an individual to occupy the position until the end of the next session of the Senate; it would be but a temporary appointment; but, under the bill as we have reported it, he may designate a person, who will continue to discharge the duties for the same length of time. Therefore, by this bill, there will be no obstacle in the way of the President's selecting such officers as he desires to administer the Government which is not interposed by the Constitution itself, which make the advice and consent of the Senate necessary to these appointments."

The bill was then passed.

In the House, on March 25th, on motion of Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, the bill and amendments were referred to the Judiciary Committee, yeas 94, nays 79.

On the 26th, this vote was reconsidered without a division, and the House refused to concur, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Ames, Armstrong, Asper, Bailey, Beaman, Beatty, Benton, Bingham, Boles, Burdett, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cowles, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duvall, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Finkelburg, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hawley, Hill, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Ladin, Lash, Lawrence, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, William Moore, Packer, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sandford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Stevens, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tillman, Twichell, Ward, Welker, Wheeler, John T. Wilson, and Winans—70.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Archer, Axtell, Banks, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Blair, Boyd, Brooks, Buffinton, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Calkin, Clarke, Cleveland, Amasa Cobb, Cook, Conger, Crebe, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dickinson, Dyer, Eldridge, Ferry, Fisher, Fox, Getz, Golladay, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hawkins, Hay, Heaton, Hoag, Hoar, Holman, Hopkins, Johnson, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Julian, Kerr, Knott, Logan, Loughridge, Marshall, Mayham, McCrary, McNeely, Moffet, Jesse H. Moore, Morgan, Mungen, Niblack, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Rogers, Schumaker, Sheldon, Slocum, John A. Smith, Joseph S. Smith, Stevenson, Swan, Sweeney, Tanner, Townsend, Trimble, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Van Trump, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Wells, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Williams, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Witcher, Wood, and Woodward—99.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Arnell, Benjamin, Bennett, Bowen, Cake, Fitch, Greene, Hale, Hamill, Hamilton, Judd, McCormick, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Negley, Peters, Potter, Worthington C. Smith, Stiles, Stokes, Stone, Strader, Van Auken, Voorhees, and Willard—48.

On March 29th, the Senate refused to recede, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Cole, Davis, Fenton, Fessenden, Fowler, Grimes, McCreery, McDonald, Morton, Pool, Robertson, Ross, Sprague, Stockton, Thayer, Thurman, Vickers, and Warner—20.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Cameron, Carpenter, Cattell, Conkling, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Ferry, Gilbert, Hamlin, Harlan, Harris, Howard, Howe, Kellogg, Morrill, Nye, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Spencer, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—37.

ABSENT—Messrs. Chandler, Corbett, Hamilton, Norton, Osborn, Saulsbury, Sherman, Stewart, and Yates—9.

A committee of conference, consisting of Messrs. Trumbull, Edmunds, and Grimes, was appointed on the part of the Senate, and Messrs. Butler, C. C. Washburn, and Bingham, on the part of the House, who recommended the following amendments to the bill.

On March 31st, the committee agreed to report to each House as follows:

That the House of Representatives recede from its disagreement to the Senate amendment, and agree to the same, with the following amendments:

Strike out all after the word "officer" in line twenty-seven of the second section of the Senate amendment to the end of the section, and insert in lieu thereof the following: "Then, and not otherwise, the President shall nominate another person as soon as practicable to said session of the Senate for said office."

Amend section three of the act to which this is an amendment, by inserting after the word "resignation" in line three of said section the words following: "or expiration of term of office."

In the Senate, Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "As the bill passed the Senate, it will be recollected it provided that if no nomination was confirmed by the Senate in place of a suspended officer during the session, and the Senate by a vote refused to concur in the suspension, then, at the end of the session, the suspended officer should be restored to the office and discharge its duties and receive its emoluments. All this is stricken out by the conference committee, and in lieu of it is inserted that the President shall, as soon as practicable, make another nomination to the Senate. This leaves the law in this shape: the first section of the act provides that all persons appointed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, except judges, shall hold their offices during the term for which they were appointed, unless sooner removed by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, except as is provided in the next section.

"The second section authorizes the President of the United States, during a recess of the Senate, to suspend from office any officer appointed by and with the advice and consent

of the Senate, until the end of the next session of the Senate, and requires him within thirty days after the meeting of the Senate to make nominations in place of all suspended officers; and now there is added to that a provision that, if such a nomination is not approved, he shall, as soon as practicable, make another nomination, and, as a matter of course, if none of the nominations are approved, his authority to suspend under the law expires with the session, and the old officer takes possession of the office. The only change made is this: as the bill passed the Senate it required a positive affirmative vote on the part of the Senate disagreeing to the suspension before the old officer could go back. As the committee of conference report it, the officer would go back at the end of the session unless somebody else was confirmed in his place. The authority of the President to suspend extends to the end of the session, and no further, and, of course, the old officer then takes possession of the office."

The report was concurred in by the Senate, yeas 42, nays 8; by the House, yeas 108, nays 67.

In the Senate, on March 11th, the Senate bill to strengthen the public credit was taken up. This was the bill passed at the previous session, and which had not been signed by President Johnson.

Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, moved to strike out the second section. He said: "Since the action of the Senate at the last session I have had occasion to consider the operation of this section in the light of the recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, and I have been led to doubt seriously its practical value. As I understand the recent decision of the Supreme Court, contracts in gold are legal, and you have the authority of the highest judicial tribunal of the land to that effect. What more, then, do you require? Another decision? No. An act of Congress? Why? For myself, sir, I can see no reason why Congress should now intervene in order to give any additional sanction to contracts in gold. On the contrary, I see difficulties. For instance, this section which undertakes to legalize these contracts is an essentially different proposition from that which has the sanction of the Supreme Court. How will you reconcile the two? Do you not, if you pass this section, create a new brood of lawsuits which must ultimately come before the Supreme Court for adjudication? It seems to me that you do."

Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, replied: "The reason now given for this motion, by the Senator from Massachusetts, is, that the Supreme Court have, by a decision, rendered unnecessary the second section. I have examined that decision. The point decided was simply that a contract payable in coin, made before the passage of the Legal-tender Act, could be enforced. It is true the Supreme Court state that two kinds of currency are legalized by Congress, one a currency called lawful money, and the other a currency called coin, and that contracts made in both, or either, are valid. But the real point decided in that case was only that a contract made payable in coin before the passage of the Legal-tender Act, was valid. The reasoning of the decision extends to all contracts made either in coin or in currency. The actual case only raised the first question. The general principle decided seemed to settle the other question; but we know, and the Senator from Massachusetts knows, that a decision made on a question not necessarily involved in the case has not the same weight of authority that a decision of the identical point raised, and necessarily to be decided, has. He has complained very often of the attempt of the Supreme Court to extend the latitude of its decision, in the Dred Scott case, to questions not necessarily involved in that case; and yet now he gives an effect to the decision of the Supreme Court, which I think ought not fairly to be given to any decision of any court. They decided the case before them, and the principle of that decision undoubtedly would make legal and valid all contracts in coin. I think, therefore, it is important, in order to legalize gold contracts and remove all doubts about it, to pass this section."

Mr. Howard, of Michigan, moved to insert the word "written" before the word "contract," which was agreed to. Mr. Pratt, of Indiana, offered the following amendment, which was rejected:

And provided further, That such contracts shall not be valid until the Government shall redeem its United States notes in coin.

The motion of Mr. Sumner, to strike out the second section, was agreed to by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Carpenter, Casserly, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Ferry, Fessenden, Gilbert, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Norton, Nye, Pratt, Robertson, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sprague, Stewart, Stockton, Sumner, Thurman, Trumbull, Vickers, and Wilson—28.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Brownlow, Drake, Grimes, Hamlin, Morrill, Morton, Osborne, Patterson, Ramsey, Ross, Sherman, Warner, and Williams—15.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Davis, Edmunds, Fenton, Fowler, Harlan, Howard, Howe, McCreery, Pomeroy, Pool, Rice, Saulsbury, Spencer, Thayer, Tipton, Willey, and Yates—22.

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, offered the following amendment:

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall apply to the obligations commonly called five-twenty bonds.

It was rejected by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Bayard, Boreman, Casserly, Morton, Norton, Osborn, Pratt, Ross, Sprague, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—12.

NAYS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Brownlow, Carpenter, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Fenton, Ferry, Gilbert, Grimes, Hamlin, Harris, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill, Nye, Patterson, Ramsey, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Williams, and Wilson—31.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckingham, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Davis, Edmunds, Fessenden, Fowler, Harlan, Howard, Howe, McCreery, Pomeroy, Pool, Rice, Robertson, Saulsbury, Spencer, Thayer, Willey, and Yates—22.

Mr. Morton, of Indiana, moved to strike out the words "authorizing the issue of any such obligation," which was rejected—yeas 14, nays 32.

In the House, on March 12th, the original bill was taken up, and the second section struck out, and the bill passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Armstrong, Arnell, Asper, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Benjamin, Bennett, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Boyd, Buffinton, Burdett, Cessna, Churchill, Clinton L. Cobb, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Cullom, Dawes, Donley, Duvall, Dyer, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hawley, Heaton, Hoar, Hooper, Hotchkiss, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Lynch, Maynard, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Samuel P. Morrill, Negley, O'Neill, Packard, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sandford, Sargent, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Sheldon, John A. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Tanner, Tillman, Twichell, Upson, Van Horn, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, and Winans—98.

NAYS—Messrs. Archer, Beatty, Beck, Biggs, Bird, Burr, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Amasa Cobb, Coburn, Crebs, Deweese, Dickinson, Eldridge, Getz, Golladay, Hawkins, Holman, Hopkins, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McNeely, Moffett, Mungen, Niblack, Orth, Reading Reeves, Rice, Shanks, Joseph S. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Sweeney, Taffe, Trimble, Tyner, Van Trump, John T. Wilson, Winchester, and Woodward—47.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Boutwell, Bowen, Brooks, Cake, Calkin, Clarke, Cleveland, Davis, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Fox, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hamilton, Hay, Hill, Hoag, Ingersoll, Kelley, Logan, Loughridge, McCarthy, Eliakim H. Moore, Morgan, Daniel J. Morrell, Morrissey, Packer, Peters, Potter, Randall, Rogers, Roots, Schumaker, Slocum, William J. Smith, Stevenson, Swann, Townsend, Van Auken, Voorhees, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Witcher, and Wood—49.

On motion of Mr. Schenck, of Ohio, the title was amended so as to read, "An act to strengthen the public credit of the United States."

On March 15th, the above-mentioned bill was taken up in the Senate, and substituted for the Senate bill.

Mr. Davis, of Kentucky, offered the following amendment, which was, to strike out all after the enacting clause of the bill, and to insert:

That the just and equitable measure of the obligation of the United States upon their outstanding bonds, which were issued and sold as a means of borrowing money, is the value at the time in gold and silver coin of the paper currency advanced and paid to the Government on those bonds.

It was rejected.

Mr. Vickers, of Maryland, offered the following proviso:

Provided, That nothing herein contained shall be considered as binding the Government to purchase coin to pay the bonds of the Government not expressly provided by law to be paid in coin, if there shall not be coin or its equivalent in the Treasury with which to discharge the said obligations.

It was rejected.

The bill was then passed, without amendment, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Anthony, Boreman, Brownlow, Cameron, Cattell, Chandler, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Fessenden, Gilbert, Grimes, Harris, Howard, Kellogg, McDonald, Morrill, Nye, Patterson, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Robertson, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—42.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Carpenter, Casserly, Cole, Davis, Morton, Osborn, Rice, Ross, Spencer, Stockton, Thurman, and Vickers—13.

ABSENT—Messrs. Buckingham, Fowler, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, McCreery, Norton, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, and Sprague—10.

In the House, on March 22d, Mr. Johnson, of California, asked the unanimous consent of the House to offer the following resolution:

Resolved, That in passing the resolution for the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States this House never intended that Chinese or Mongolians should become voters.

He then moved to suspend the rules, and demanded the yeas and nays, which were as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Archer, Axtell, Bird, Brooks, Burr, Calkin, Crebs, Dickinson, Eldridge, Fitch, Golladay, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hawkins, Holman, Johnson, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, Mayham, McNeely, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Sargent, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, William J. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Van Auken, Van Trump, Wells, Eugene M. Wilson, Winchester, Wood, and Woodward—42.

NAYS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Arnell, Asper, Bailey, Beaman, Beatty, Benjamin, Benton, Bingham, Blair, Bowen, Boyd, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Cook, Conger, Cowles, Davis, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dockery, Duvall, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelburg, Garfield, Gilfillan, Greene, Hawley, Hay, Hoar, Hooper, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McCrary, McGrew, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Peters, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Rogers, Roots, Sandford, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Sheldon, John A. Smith, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Twichell, Tyner, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, and Winans—106.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Adams, Ames, Armstrong, Banks, Beck, Bennett, Biggs, Boles, Roderick R. Butler, Cake, Cleveland, Coburn, Cullom, Deweese, Donley, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Fisher, Fox, Getz, Griswold, Hale, Hamilton, Heaton, Hill, Hoag, Judd, Ketcham, Logan, Marshall, McCormick, Moffet, Morgan, Morrissey, Mungen, Niblack, Rice, Schumaker, Worthington C. Smith, William Smyth, Sweeney, Trimble, Upson, Van Horn, Voorhees, Wheeler, and Witcher—48.

So the House refused to suspend the rules.

In the House, on April 7th, the following message was received from President Grant:

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

While I am aware that the time in which Congress proposes now to remain in session is very brief, and that it is its desire, as far as is consistent with the public interest, to avoid entering upon the general business of legislation, there is one subject which concerns so deeply the welfare of the country that I deem it my duty to bring it before you.

I have no doubt that you will concur with me in the opinion that it is desirable to restore the States which were engaged in the rebellion to their proper relations to the Government and the country at as early a period as the people of those States shall be found willing to become peaceful and orderly communities, and to adopt and maintain such constitutions and laws as will effectually secure the civil and political rights of all persons within their borders. The authority of the United States, which has been vindicated and established by its military power, must, undoubtedly, be asserted for the absolute protection of all its citizens in the full enjoyment of the freedom and security which is the object of a republican government. But, whenever the people of a rebellious State are ready to enter, in good faith, upon the accomplishment of this object, in entire conformity with the constitutional authority of Congress, it is certainly desirable that all causes of irritation should be removed as promptly as possible, that a more perfect union may be established, and the country be restored to peace and prosperity.

The convention of the people of Virginia, which met in Richmond on Tuesday, December 3, 1867, framed a constitution for that State, which was adopted by the convention on the 17th of April, 1868, and I desire respectfully to call the attention of Congress to the propriety of providing by law for the holding of an election in that State at some time during the months of May and June next, under the direction of the military commander of that district, at which the question of the adoption of that constitution shall be submitted to the citizens of the State; and if this should seem desirable, I would recommend that a separate vote be taken upon such parts as may be thought expedient, and that, at the same time and under the same authority, there shall be an election for the officers provided under such constitution, and that the constitution, or such parts thereof as shall have been adopted by the people, be submitted to Congress on the first Monday of December next for its consideration, so that, if the same is then approved the necessary steps will have been taken for the restoration of the State of Virginia to its proper relations to the Union. I am led to make this recommendation from the confident hope and belief that the people of that State are now ready to cooperate with the national Government in bringing it again into such relations to the Union as it ought as soon as possible to establish and maintain, and to give to all its people those equal rights under the law which were asserted in the Declaration of Independence in the words of one of the most illustrious of its sons.

I desire also to ask the consideration of Congress to the question whether there is not just ground for believing that the constitution framed by a convention of the people of Mississippi for that State and once rejected, might not be again submitted to the people of that State in like manner, and with the probability of the same result. U. S. GRANT.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *April* 7, 1869.

On April 8th, Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, from the Committee on Reconstruction, reported the following bill:

A bill authorizing the submission of the constitutions of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, to a vote of the people, and authorizing the election of State officers provided by the said constitution, and members of Congress.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the President of the United States, at such time as he may deem best for the public interest, may submit the constitution which was framed by the convention which met in Richmond, Virginia, on Tuesday, the 3d day of December, 1867, to the registered voters of said State, for ratification or rejection; and may also submit to a separate vote such provisions of said constitution as he may deem best.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That at the same election the voters of said State may vote for and elect members of the General Assembly of said State, and all the officers of said State provided for by the said constitution, and for members of Congress; and the officer commanding the district of Virginia shall cause the lists of registered voters of said State to be revised and corrected prior to such election, and for that purpose may appoint such registrars as he may deem necessary. And said elections shall be held and returns thereof made in the manner provided by the election ordinance adopted by the convention which framed said constitution.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That the President of the United States may in like manner submit the constitution of Texas to the voters of said State at such time and in such manner as he may direct, either the entire constitution or separate provisions of the same, to a separate vote, and at the same election the voters may vote for and elect the members of the Legislature and all the State officers provided for in said constitution, and members of Congress: *Provided also*, That no election shall be held in said State of Texas for any purpose till the President so directs.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the President of the United States may in like manner resubmit the constitution of Mississippi to the voters of said State, at such time and in such manner as he may direct, either the entire constitution or separate provisions of the same to a separate vote, and at the same election the voters may vote for and elect the members of the Legislature and all the State officers provided for in said constitution, and members of Congress.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if either of said constitutions shall be ratified at such election the Legislature of the State so ratifying, elected as provided for in this bill, shall assemble at the capital of said States respectively on the fourth Tuesday after the official promulgation of such ratification by the military officer commanding in said State.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That in either of said States the commanding general, subject to the approval of the President of the United States, may suspend, until the action of the Legislatures elected under their constitutions respectively, all laws that he may deem unjust and oppressive to the people.

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, said: "The first section provides that the President of the United States may, at such time and in such manner as he may deem best for the public service, submit to the people of Virginia the constitution framed by the convention of that State, and may submit any separate clause of that constitution to a like vote.

"The second section provides that the voters of Virginia may at the same time elect State officers and members of Congress; that the registration may be corrected for that purpose, and that the commanding general may appoint registrars and judges of election as may be necessary.

"The third section provides that the President may in like manner submit the constitution of the State of Mississippi to the voters of that State with like effect and under like circumstances.

"The fourth section provides that the President may submit the constitution of the State of Texas, at such time as he may deem fit for the public service, to a vote of the registered voters, who at the same time may vote for State officers and members of Congress.

"The sixth section provides that in the mean time the military commander, with the approval of the President, may suspend any obnoxious, oppressive, and unjust laws. This last provision is principally levelled against the unjust poll-tax in Mississippi, and two or three laws kindred thereto as to the collection of debts. I myself am of opinion that the district commander under the reconstruction act may have that power now; but as there has been doubt raised with regard to it, and as the district commanders have expressed their doubts, the committee have reported this provision.

"That, in a word, is all the bill. It allows the President in these States, when he deems it best for the public service, to submit the constitutions which have been heretofore prepared to a vote of the people, but it provides that there shall be no vote in any of the States except when he so directs; and when he submits the constitution they vote in all these States for State officers and members of Congress, and all unjust and oppressive laws may be suspended, until the Legislatures can act upon them."

Mr. Garfield, of Ohio, moved to amend the bill, by adding at the end of the first section the following:

Such vote to be taken either upon each of said provisions alone or in connection with the other provisions of said Constitution, as the President may direct—

which was agreed to.

Mr. Butler, of Massachusetts, moved to amend section three by inserting after the words "provisions of the same" the words "as provided in the first section of this act," which was agreed to.

The bill was then passed, by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Armstrong, Arnell, Axtell, Bailey, Banks, Beaman, Beatty, Beck, Bingham, Blair, Boles, Bowen, Brooks, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Calkin, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Cook, Conger, Crebs, Cullom, Davis, Dawes, Deweese, Dickey, Dickinson, Dixon, Dockery, Donley, Duvall, Ela, Farnsworth, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelburg, Fisher, Fitch, Garfield, Gilfillan, Hale, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Hill, Hoar, Hoge, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knapp, Laflin, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, McCarthy, McCormick, McCrary, McGrew, William Moore, Morgan, Daniel J. Morrell, Samuel P. Morrill, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Packer, Paine, Palmer, Phelps, Poland, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sandford, Sawyer, Schenck, Scofield, Shanks, Sheldon, Slocum, John A. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Stevens, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Strickland, Tanner, Tillman, Townsend, Tyner, Upson, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, William B. Washburn, Welker, Wheeler, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Willard, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, Witcher, and Woodward—125.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Archer, Biggs, Bird, Burr, Cleveland, Eldridge, Getz, Golladay, Haldeman, Hamill, Holman, Thomas L. Jones, Kerr, Knott, McNeely, Moffet, Niblack, Potter, Randall, Reeves, Sweeney, Trimble, Wells, and Winchester—25.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Ames, Asper, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Boyd, Cake, Cowles, Dyer, Fox, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Hambleton, Hamilton, Hawkins, Hoag, Hooper, Johnson, Marshall, Mayham, Maynard, Mercur, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, Morrissey, Mungen, Peters, Reading, Rice, Rogers, Sargent, Schumaker, Joseph S. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Swann, Taffe, Twichell, Van Auken, Van Horn, Van Trump, Voorhees, Eugene M. Wilson, and Wood—47.

In the Senate, on April 9th, Mr. Morton, of Indiana, offered the following amendment to the preceding bill:

And be it further enacted, That, before the States of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, shall be admitted to representation in Congress, their several Legislatures which may be hereafter lawfully organized shall ratify the fifteenth article which has been proposed by Congress to the several States as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

Mr. Morton said: "So far as I am concerned, I would rather see this bill fail than to pass without this amendment attached to it. I would rather see the whole matter go over until the next session of Congress. I will speak frankly here on the subject. I know what the expectation of the opposing party is. They know the prejudice that has existed in the Western States in regard to negro suffrage, and I know that the Democratic party desire to keep this question open as an element of political success in the elections of 1870 and of 1872. Look at what has taken place in the State of Indiana. The Democratic party in the State of Indiana, for the purpose of preventing the Legislature, which has a large majority of Republicans in both Houses, from ratifying the amendment, and to keep it as an open question, broke up the Legislature by every man of them resigning. That Legislature was called together again yesterday, and I am advised that, the very moment the amendment is presented, the Democratic members will again resign. They have made the calculation that without the votes of Virginia, of Texas, and of Mississippi, the amendment cannot be ratified unless it receives the vote of Indiana. Indiana they regard, therefore, as the pivotal State upon which the ratification of the amendment is to turn; but if it shall be ratified by these three unreconstructed States, it will then become a part of the Constitution without the vote of Indiana, and the revolutionary measure that has been adopted in the State of Indiana will not be successful after all.

"Now, sir, if we shall make the ratification of the fifteenth article a condition of the reconstruction of these States just as we did the ratification of the fourteenth article, these States will accept it at once, they will ratify it without a moment's delay, and then it will become

a part of the Constitution; the question will be taken out of our politics forever, and the Democratic revolution in Indiana will have failed; otherwise this question will be kept open during the elections of 1870 and 1872. Therefore, I repeat, I would rather see this bill fail, and the whole matter go over until the next session of Congress, than to have it pass without this amendment. Sir, it is right in itself. There is no breach of faith involved. It is of vast importance to the country, and it is of vast importance to the party to which I claim to belong. If the people of the Southern States, in coming in, are not willing to put this amendment into the Constitution of the United States, it will be proof that they are not accepting their State constitutions in good faith, and that they are relying upon subsequently amending their State constitutions so as to strike colored suffrage from them.

"In every point of view this amendment is right, proper, and necessary; and I trust that no member of the Senate who is a friend to the fifteenth article will refuse to vote to put it on this bill."

Mr. Thurman, of Ohio, said: "Mr. President, this is not a question that concerns Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, alone; it is a question that concerns every State in the Union whether the proposed fifteenth amendment shall be a part of the Constitution of the United States. Now, what is proposed to be done? The power given to Congress is simply a power to propose amendments, and when Congress has executed that power it is *functus officio*, as the lawyers say; it has no right whatsoever to coerce the States into action on them. The States are entitled to their free and unbiassed judgment upon the proposition that Congress is authorized to submit. The power of Congress is at an end when it has made the proposition. But now the Senator from Indiana proposes that Congress shall not only propose an amendment to the Constitution, but that Congress shall coerce three States into the adoption of that amendment, not for themselves alone, but for every State in this Union; that they shall force that constitutional amendment, not simply upon Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, but upon Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois as well, whatever may be the opinion of the three last-named States.

"When you coerce Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, to put this article in the Constitution of the United States, to vote for it as a part of the Constitution of the United States, you do not coerce them alone. You coerce Ohio, you coerce Indiana, you coerce Illinois, you coerce every State whose people are unwilling to adopt the amendment."

The yeas and nays were ordered, and, being taken, resulted as follows:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Chandler, Cole, Drake, Harris, Howard, McDonald, Morrill, Morton, Nye, Osborn, Pool, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Schurz, Sherman, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Warner, Williams, Wilson, and Yates—30.

NAYS—Messrs. Anthony, Bayard, Boreman, Casserly, Conkling, Davis, Edmunds, Fenton, Ferry, Fessenden, Fowler, McCreery, Norton, Patterson, Sawyer, Sprague, Stockton, Thurman, Trumbull, and Willey—20.

ABSENT—Messrs. Cameron, Cattell, Corbett, Cragin, Gilbert, Grimes, Hamilton, Hamlin, Harlan, Howe, Kellogg, Pomeroy, Saulsbury, Scott, Spencer, and Vickers—16.

So the amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Trumbull, of Illinois, said: "I move, in line seven of section one, to insert the word 'then' before 'registered,' so that the constitution shall be submitted at a time to be designated by the President to 'the then registered voters.'"

The President *pro tempore:* "That amendment will be made if there be no objection. It is a verbal amendment."

Mr. Trumbull: "I move, in section two, line seven, after the word 'revised' to insert the word 'enlarged.'"

The President *pro tempore:* "That amendment will be considered as adopted if there be no objection."

Mr. Trumbull: "Then I move, after the word 'election' in the same line, to insert the words 'according to law.' The reconstruction acts already provide how this is to be done."

The President *pro tempore:* "That amendment will be considered as adopted if there be no objection."

Mr. Trumbull: "I move to strike out in lines ten and eleven of the second section the words 'election ordinance adopted by the convention which framed said constitution,' and to insert the words 'acts of Congress commonly called the reconstruction acts;' so that the clause will read:

> And said election shall be held and returns thereof made in the manner provided by the acts of Congress commonly called the reconstruction acts."

The amendment was agreed to.

Mr. Trumbull: "There is another slight amendment that I wish to offer. In line four of section five the word 'States' should be 'State,' and the word 'respectively' ought to be stricken out."

The President *pro tempore:* "Those amendments will be made, being verbal."

Mr. Trumbull: "In section six, lines four and five, the word 'respectively' should be stricken out."

The President *pro tempore:* "That amendment will be made."

The bill was then further amended by striking out the sixth section. On motion of Mr. Edmunds, the following additional section was adopted:

> *And be it further enacted*, That the proceedings in any of said States shall not be deemed final or operate as a complete restoration thereof until their action respectively shall be approved by Congress.

The first section was further amended by striking out the words "registered voters of

said State," and inserting "voters of said State registered at the date of said submission."

Mr. Stockton, of New Jersey, said: "Under what principle, I ask, can you deprive a sovereign State of representation when you admit that it is sovereign? You have defended yourselves heretofore by saying that these States were not in the Union, that they needed reconstruction; but now, remember, you reconstruct them first, and then you do not say that they are not reconstructed; you do not say that they are not legal States; you do not say in your amendment that they are not a part of the Union, that their State governments cannot work regularly, but simply that they shall not be entitled to representation. How are they to be entitled to representation? Has General Longstreet entitled himself to office and to have his disabilities removed? Are they to bathe in Jordan? Is that the only way? Abana and Pharpar are rivers of Damascus; but they are not the river Jordan. They must bathe in the pool of your party politics before they can be cleansed. They are to join with you in assisting to strike out the word 'white' from the constitutions of the Northern States. They are to be forced to do this under the amending clause of the Constitution which requires a ratification by sovereign States. Do you suppose that your fifteenth amendment will ever become a part of the Constitution of this country under this bill? Never. The ratification thus forced is unconstitutional. The means of altering the compact made by sovereign States is provided in the instrument itself, and that is a ratification; and that ratification requires that every State shall have a free choice and a free vote; and when you say to your slaves, when you say to the Southern States, 'We have conquered you; you are conquered provinces; we have entered upon and possessed your land; you are slaves of our sword and our spear; you can only be admitted to the position of freemen again by ratifying this constitutional amendment,' do you allow them a free vote? No, sir; they are powerless. They cannot ratify it. Can they assist you in striking the word 'white' out of the constitution of my State without a free choice at all, without being States themselves even on your own theory? No, Mr. President."

Mr. Bayard, of Delaware, said: "The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution is plainly, to my mind, the most dangerous claim of power, the most destructive to the system of our Government, that ever was or could be devised. If I know aught of the Government under which we live, it is the elective franchise, it is the process of carrying on Government by the elective system that marks it from its first organization to its last act. It is a power that must be, in the very nature of things, the controlling power, because the election is your test of power, of law in every shape, and at every stage of your country's Government. That power you propose to take from the States and deposit with the Federal Government, to consolidate the power of all powers, that which underlies and creates all other powers; and that you propose to place in the hands of Congress! There never was a graver question, there never was an act which will affect the whole structure and genius of our Government to the extent that this must, should it succeed in obtaining the consent of the people of this country.

"It has been demonstrated before this Senate, in a manner that could not be and has not been replied to, by my honorable friend, the Senator from Ohio (Mr. Thurman), that by the amendment of the honorable Senator from Indiana (Mr. Morton) you do coerce the choice not only of the Southern States, which is a barefaced act of simple power, but you coerce the sentiment of every Northern State under your pretended power of governing the Southern States. Talk of the free choice of Indiana or Ohio or New York! What is it when Congress can by law insist that the votes of certain States shall be cast in opposition to it? All freedom is gone. Sir, when Congress adopts such a measure as this, it is doing nothing less than playing with cogged dice. It is the intention, therefore, by a measure like this to destroy, first, all shadow of freedom in the exercise of their opinions by the people of these three States, and next, having destroyed that, to make their votes the instrument whereby you crush out the sentiment of the Northern States. *Per fas aut nefas* seems to me to be the rule by which this amendment is to be forced upon the American people; and the question will yet come up—it cannot be long kept down—how any law, how any amendment obtained by means like this, can be held binding upon the conscience of a people who have neither the sense nor the manhood to remain free."

The bill, as amended, was passed by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Abbott, Boreman, Brownlow, Buckingham, Carpenter, Cattell, Chandler, Cole, Conkling, Corbett, Cragin, Drake, Fenton, Ferry, Fessenden, Hamlin, Harris, Howard, Howe, McDonald, Morrill, Morton, Nye, Patterson, Pomeroy, Pratt, Ramsey, Rice, Robertson, Ross, Sawyer, Schurz, Scott, Sherman, Spencer, Stewart, Sumner, Thayer, Tipton, Trumbull, Warner, Willey, Williams, and Wilson—44.

NAYS—Messrs. Bayard, Casserly, Davis, Fowler, McCreery, Norton, Sprague, Stockton, and Thurman—9.

ABSENT—Messrs. Anthony, Cameron, Edmunds, Gilbert, Grimes, Hamilton, Harlan, Kellogg, Osborn, Pool, Saulsbury, Vickers, and Yates—13.

The House concurred in the amendments of the Senate.

In the House, on April 9th, Mr. Banks, of Massachusetts, offered the following resolution:

Resolved by the House of Representatives, That the people of the United States sympathize with the people of Cuba in their patriotic efforts to secure their independence and establish a republican form of gov-

ernment, guaranteeing the personal liberty and the equal political rights of all the people; and the House of Representatives will give its constitutional support to the President of the United States whenever, in his opinion, a republican government shall have been in fact established, and he may deem it expedient to recognize the independence and sovereignty of such republican government.

The rules were suspended by the following vote:

YEAS—Messrs. Allison, Ambler, Ames, Archer, Armstrong, Asper, Axtell, Banks, Beatty, Bingham, Blair, Boyd, Brooks, Buffinton, Burdett, Benjamin F. Butler, Roderick R. Butler, Cessna, Churchill, Clarke, Amasa Cobb, Clinton L. Cobb, Coburn, Conger, Deweese, Dickinson, Dockery, Donley, Duval, Ferriss, Ferry, Finkelburg, Garfield, Getz, Gilfillan, Hawley, Hay, Heaton, Hill, Hoge, Holman, Hopkins, Hotchkiss, Ingersoll, Jenckes, Alexander H. Jones, Thomas L. Jones, Judd, Julian, Kelley, Knapp, Lash, Lawrence, Logan, Loughridge, Lynch, Maynard, McCarthy, McGrew, Mercur, Daniel J. Morrill, Myers, Negley, O'Neill, Orth, Packard, Phelps, Pomeroy, Prosser, Roots, Sawyer, Scofield, Shanks, Lionel A. Sheldon, Porter Sheldon, John A. Smith, Worthington C. Smith, Stevenson, Stokes, Stoughton, Taffe, Tanner, Tillman, Trimble, Twichell, Tyner, Upson, Van Horn, Voorhees, Ward, Cadwalader C. Washburn, Welker, Whittemore, Wilkinson, Williams, John T. Wilson, Winans, and Witcher—98.

NAYS—Messrs. Adams, Beaman, Biggs, Burr, Cleveland, Davis, Eldridge, Golladay, Hale, Hawkins, Kerr, Niblack, Packer, Paine, Poland, Rogers, Sargent, Stevens, Sweeney, Townsend, Van Trump, Wells, Willard, Eugene M. Wilson, and Winchester—25.

NOT VOTING—Messrs. Arnell, Bailey, Beck, Benjamin, Bennett, Benton, Bird, Boles, Bowen, Cake, Calkin, Cook, Cowles, Crebs, Cullom, Dawes, Dickey, Dixon, Dyer, Ela, Farnsworth, Fisher, Fitch, Fox, Greene, Griswold, Haight, Haldeman, Hambleton, Hamill, Hamilton, Hosg, Hoar, Hooper, Johnson, Kellogg, Kelsey, Ketcham, Knott, Laflin, Marshall, Mayham, McCormick, McCrary, McNeely, Eliakim H. Moore, Jesse H. Moore, William Moore, Morgan, Samuel P. Morrill, Morrissey, Mungen, Palmer, Peters, Potter, Randall, Reading, Reeves, Rice, Sanford, Schenck, Schumaker, Slocum, Joseph S. Smith, William J. Smith, William Smyth, Starkweather, Stiles, Stone, Strader, Strickland, Strong, Swann, Van Auken, William B. Washburn, Wheeler, Wood, and Woodward—78.

The resolution was then agreed to.

In the Senate, on the withdrawal of the Vice-President, Mr. Anthony, of Rhode Island, was chosen President *pro tem.*

This session of Congress closed on April 10th.

CONNECTICUT. The public affairs of this State during the year have pursued their regular course, with a marked tendency to improvement in several departments.

The condition of the finances appears to be satisfactory. The State funded debt was, last year, reduced by $349,244.61, the whole amount of her liabilities over the assets on April 1, 1869, being $6,974,992.10. The value of taxable property for 1869 had also increased by nearly eight millions over that assessed for 1868.

The entire receipts of the State during the last year were $2,380,790.42; of which $757,286.10 came from the two and one-half mill tax, $432,199.64 from savings-banks, $228,308.94 from railroad corporations, $126,400.81 from mutual insurance companies, $287,000 from sale of bank stocks, $204,386.28 from bank dividends, and the balance from miscellaneous sources.

The total expenditures for the year were $2,526,045.81. Of this $799,900 were for the redemption of bonds, $492,628 were for interest on the public debt, $201,250 for public buildings and institutions, and $117,154.65 for the maintenance of soldiers' children.

Claims of the State against the General Government, amounting to more than $200,000, have been so far disallowed. Under the new views held in the Treasury Department, however, it is anticipated that, if properly presented, they will be recognized and paid.

The number of men available for military duty in the State is 83,185; but its actually organized military force is composed of 3,691 men, commanded by 169 officers. The cost of this military establishment, last year, was $113,097; but the actual expenditure of the State on that account was only $52,463.94, the remaining $60,634 of that sum having been made up and paid from commutation taxes.

Public schools are well provided for in Connecticut. Their condition and cost to the State are shown by the detailed report of the Secretary of the Board of Education for 1868, which states that "there are 1,572 districts, a decrease of 18 from last year. There are 1,640 public schools, a decrease of five. The number of children in 1868 was 123,650, and in 1869, 124,082, an increase of 432. Average number in each district between the ages of 4 and 16 years of age, January, 1869, 79. Whole number of scholars registered in winter, 82,140; in summer, 75,177. Number of teachers in summer, 2,207; in winter, 2,225, of whom 651 never taught before. Average wages of male teachers $56.64 per month, including board; of females, $26.93. Twenty-nine new schoolhouses were erected during the year; whole number of graded schools, 203; number of school-houses in good condition, 877; in fair condition, 458; in poor condition, 304. Capital of the school fund, $2,046,108.87; revenue of same in 1868, $136,015; in 1869, $124,082. The first year there was a dividend of $1.10 per child; last year, $1.00. Capital of town deposit fund, $763,661.83; revenue from same, $43,985.75. Amount raised for school by town tax, $160,347.35; increase for the year, $10,666.36. Amount raised by district tax, $467,804.77; increase, $872.87. Total amount received for public schools from all sources, $1,043,086.71; increase, $59,280.39."

The better to provide the common schools with competent teachers, purposely trained to the performance of their duties, the Governor, in his message to the General Assembly, warmly recommended the reëstablishment of the State Normal School, which had been for some years discontinued; representing such a meas-

ure as both needed for the advancement of the general interests of the State, and wished for by all those who are at all conversant with the subject. He suggested also "the expediency of adding to the Normal School, or to the Scientific School at New Haven, or of aiding in the establishment elsewhere, if opportunity presents, a Polytechnic Institute, which shall give theoretical and practical instruction to those wishing to engage in mechanical pursuits, fitting young men to be machinists, artisans, civil engineers, draughtsmen, etc., and young women for the many practical arts in which they may become skilled."

Of the Sheffield Scientific School of Yale College, on which the State has bestowed the congressional appropriation of $130,000, and in which thirty-one persons hold State scholarships for gratuitous tuition, the Governor speaks in terms of high commendation. After stating that it "continued to afford free instruction in the various branches of science, in their application to the useful arts," and that the whole number of scholars at the beginning of the collegiate year was 132, he says: "The usefulness of this institution is not measured by the number of students who attend upon its course of instruction. It is shown in its scientific collections, lectures, and publications, and the general diffusion of practical knowledge upon agricultural pursuits."

The banks of discount and deposit in Connecticut are numerous, and nearly all under the control of the laws which regulate the system now prevailing throughout the whole country. Five of the old State banks still remain, however, with an aggregate capital of $1,610,000, making exceptions to this rule, though some of them seem to be on the point of closing their business within a short time.

The number of savings-banks in the State is fifty-five, and they appear to enjoy the confidence of the people. Their deposits, taken together, amount to little less than $42,000,000; above one-half of which sum is securely invested in bond and mortgage loans on real estate. The deposits intrusted to them, in 1868, exceeded those made in the previous year by $5,520,220.64.

The insurance business in this State seems to be very active and extensive. Besides those that are local, fifty-eight fire and thirty-two life insurance companies, incorporated by charter in other States, were transacting business in Connecticut during the year 1868. The amount of the operations carried on by the fifty-eight fire-insurance companies within that period was apparently large, though not perhaps with quite satisfactory results. The Commissioner of Insurance, in his annual report, states that "the gross capitals of these companies amount to $21,586,070, and their receipts for the year 1868 were $25,245,850; their losses, paid, $13,229,330; and their expenses were $7,289,044, leaving but $4,797,476 for dividends and unearned premiums for the current year."

With regard to charitable institutions, for the relief of the suffering and unfortunate, the main building of the General Hospital for the Insane, at Middletown, erected on a most desirable and healthy location, had recently been finished. The Governor declared it to be "very complete in all its appointments, sanitary and domestic, and its general arrangements second to no other institution in the country." The main building is now in full operation, and wholly occupied by some 225 patients; whereupon the Governor adds: "No more can be taken, although there are large numbers yet in the State uncared for."

This establishment has received from the State $380,000 already; but the Governor avers that "at no distant day it will undoubtedly be the true economy of the State to complete the wings, which will more than double its capacity at less than half the cost." Meantime, he recommended an appropriation to pay off $18,000 of which the hospital is now in debt, "and, perhaps, to construct outbuildings and fences, in which the establishment is sadly deficient."

In the Retreat for the Insane, there were, early in the year, twenty-one patients receiving aid from the State. While praising the management of this institution in a high degree, the Governor thought that the appropriation for it might properly be reduced, "as the General Hospital for the Insane is now taking most of the patients."

The Connecticut School for Imbeciles has twenty pupils partially supported by the State, and the mental progress made by them is spoken of as most gratifying.

In respect to persons held in restraint as lunatics, whether in public asylums or elsewhere, there exists a necessity for some further legislation calculated effectually to protect such persons from the effect of conspiracies and frauds; experience showing that plans are not unfrequently contrived and acted upon by interested parties to restrain individuals as lunatics who are far from laboring under such calamity.

The Hartford Hospital was performing its good work. It has a permanent fund amounting to $92,000, the income received from which is devoted to meeting its current expenses. Of the $105,000 which it has already cost, $10,000 have been contributed by the State, the rest by individuals. It is now in debt $27,000, expended in the construction of a new wing, and the trustees applied to the Legislature of 1869 for an appropriation of $20,000 to complete the building.

The American Asylum for the education of the Deaf and Dumb is reported as being managed with the greatest ability, and the endeavors of its managers crowned with an equally great success. The pupils under instruction in it last year were 279, of which

number forty-eight were State beneficiaries. Their cost to the institution amounted to $260 each, the State having contributed $175 of that sum.

Concerning the blind, the State causes them to be taken care of in the well-known Perkins Institution at Boston, appropriating annually $3,000 to assist in their education. This sum is not all expended for that purpose; the persons who now receive State aid in that institution being only nine, as Connecticut sends thither fewer pupils in proportion to its population than any other New-England State. These facts should be more generally known, as it is probable that there are others who would take advantage of the State aid, if they understood it.

The children of those who fought and died in the late civil war are provided for in the Connecticut Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Mansfield, and in the Fitch's Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Darien. Both establishments are accomplishing the purpose intended; the appropriations made for them from the State money are very moderate, but have been faithfully and economically expended.

As to the soldiers from the State who survived the war and to whom the Federal Government owed money for bounties, or on other accounts, a good work has been done by the Bureau of Claims in the Adjutant-General's office; since its organization it has collected $711,698.46 for soldiers, at no cost whatever to the claimants.

The Connecticut Industrial School for Girls is making good progress toward attaining the end of its establishment, and is enjoying, in no small measure, the sympathy and favor of the benevolent people of the State. A valuable farm had recently been donated to it, the active operations of which were expected to commence with the beginning of the year 1870.

With regard to the State Reform School, the number of boys committed to it since its establishment, in 1854, is 1,390. Those discharged in 1868 were 144, there remaining yet in the school 244 boys. Their earnings in the course of that year amounted to $12,000, which was sufficient for the current expenses of the establishment. The trustees, who had unsuccessfully applied to the two previous Legislatures for an appropriation of $50,000, to be expended in the erection of an additional building, made the same application to the General Assembly of 1869.

The State Prison's management and discipline, as well as its internal arrangements, are highly commended. The number of convicts in confinement in 1868 was 183, which is eight less than in 1867. By their labor during last year they earned $23,040.50, which sum had covered all the expenses of the establishment and left a net surplus on hand of above $2,000.

As to other criminals, the whole number of commitments to the different jails of the State in 1868 was 1,821, being 128 more than the previous year. The number in confinement in all the jails of Connecticut on April 1, 1869, was 244, being 17 more than one year previous.

The Governor, in his message to the Legislature, called their attention to the fact that intemperance is widely spreading and setting deep roots in Connecticut; he said: "In many parts of our State existing laws are so far a dead letter that, not only intoxicating liquors, but adulterations thereof, containing the vilest and most poisonous ingredients, are openly and freely sold during the whole seven days of the week." In order to check the growth of so great an evil, which, if tolerated, cannot but have the most lamentable results upon the people's health and the domestic peace of families, he avers that "further legislation is needed."

He recommended also a revision and modification of the State law concerning divorce, pointing to the fact that "discontented people come to Connecticut from other States to take advantage of what is called her liberal legislation, to obtain divorces which would be denied them at home." He regarded the causes of divorces set down in the existing laws to be "too numerous and not sufficiently defined, and too wide a discretion given to the courts." He suggested, among other things, "that the law provide that no decree of divorce shall take effect till one year after it is granted." The number of marriages contracted within the State in 1868 was 4,734; and the number of divorces granted, 476. The births in the State during the year were 12,469, the deaths, 7,549. This excess of births over deaths was the largest ever shown in Connecticut.

The condition of married women, in reference to their property, held before or acquired after marriage, has been considered to have been so far not sufficiently provided for, and the General Assembly was urged to such further amendment of the State laws as would secure to a married woman all her property, with the full control of it during her married life, and free from liability for any debts, except those contracted by herself, or for which she had voluntarily made herself responsible, with the same right on the part of the husband to an interest in her property, on his surviving her, that she now had, or that it may be best to give her, in his.

In order to prevent a too great accumulation of cases before the existing Courts, and the consequent delay in their decisions, to the injury of the parties concerned, and of the community in general, it was considered to be necessary to provide for the proper dispatch of judicial business, and the appointment of two criminal courts, "with a single judge in each, and frequent sessions, for the counties of Hartford and New Haven."

A large portion of the people in Connecticut being devoted to agricultural pursuits, it became a vital interest of the State to take

effectual measures for guarding the cattle and other useful animals from contagious diseases.

The General Assembly were urged to consider the necessity of a legislative enactment, advancing the rate of interest on money to seven per cent., as the existing law, which limits it to six, forced the capital of the State to seek a more remunerative return abroad, besides, that borrowers experienced great difficulty in obtaining loans in their need, and, when they succeeded in obtaining them, it was by paying higher rates than the legal.

Following the example of his immediate predecessor in office, the Governor recommended to the Legislature a change in the State constitution for the purpose of changing the elections from annual to biennial; and said, that "the election should be held in the fall, and that the Legislature should assemble in winter, is, I think, the almost unanimous sentiment in the State."

He appealed to the General Assembly to provide a means to secure the purity of the ballot-box, and said: "Any attempt, on the part of any person or party, to control the votes of the ignorant or vicious, by money, misrepresentation, or fraud, ought to be particularly guarded against; and, to the end that our elections may be fairly and properly conducted, I would suggest that more voting districts may be established in some of our larger towns and cities, and that the police departments be managed and regulated by non-partisan boards of commissioners."

The May session of the Connecticut Legislature in 1869 was twenty-six days shorter than that of the preceding year, and adjourned *sine die* on July 10th. They transacted, however, no small amount of business, though most of it was of personal or local interest. Among the chief matters of a public character which the General Assembly discussed and passed in this session, besides making appropriations in favor of some public institutions, they reduced the State-tax from three to two and a half mills on the dollar, reëstablished the State Normal School at New Britain, created two new Courts of Common Pleas for the counties of Hartford and New Haven, and passed the proposed amendment to the State constitution making one capital, and that the city of Hartford.

Upon the repeal of the usury law, so far as to increase the legal rate of interest from six to seven per cent., and the modification of the laws concerning divorce, to the end of rendering the dissolution of marriage less easily obtainable, the Legislature came to no decision.

The bill for a temperance law was defeated; but an act was passed to punish, by a $100 fine, the adulteration of liquor, and appointed a State chemist who should make the analysis to ascertain its quality.

One of the most important matters argued and acted upon by the Legislature was the application "for an act of incorporation authorizing the construction of a railroad from the town of Derby, in New Haven County, to the State line in the town of Greenwich, in Fairfield County." The proposed new line of railway is commonly named the "Parallel road," it being intended to run parallel with that of the New York and New Haven Railroad, which the citizens of Connecticut are now compelled to make use of in all the business they may have with New York for travel and transportation of merchandise. After an animated discussion in both Houses, the bill was finally defeated, though by small majorities, the vote having been 10 to 11 in the Senate, and 104 to 117 in the House of Assembly.

As to the action of the Legislature in political matters, the Fifteenth Amendment to the United States constitution was promptly ratified by both branches, and an amendment to the State Constitution, striking out the word "white," was passed. This amendment has twice before, in 1847 and 1865, been passed by the Legislature and submitted to the people. In 1847 the whole vote upon it was 25,106, out of which a majority against its passage of 13,874 was given. In 1865, at a special election in October, the whole vote upon the amendment was 60,706, of which 27,217 were in favor of its adoption, and 33,489 were against it.

The Democratic State Convention assembled at Hartford on January 27, 1869, and nominated candidates for the State offices, and adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the issue of the late presidential election was in no sense an indorsement by the people of the United States of the repeated violations of the Constitution by the radical party, but was the result of a system of proscription and corruption unparalleled in the history of the country.

Resolved, That we shall continue to adhere to every constitutional principle heretofore avowed and supported by the Democratic party, under which party the country has prospered, and taken the front rank among the nations of the earth.

Resolved, That while we opposed with our best efforts the election of General Grant to the presidency, we nevertheless have no desire or design to embarrass his Administration by any captious opposition to his recommendations, but are disposed to sustain him in every just and constitutional measure which he may propose.

Resolved, That the attempt of the leaders of the radical party in Congress to deprive the States of the Union of their right to prescribe the terms and conditions of the suffrage of their own citizens is designed as a fatal blow at the most essential reserved right of the States; that it is an assumption of superiority by the creature over the creator—an audacious usurpation by our servants in Congress over their masters, the people; and we will resist, by all lawful means, this contemplated outrage upon the principle of self-government.

Resolved, That the spirit of hatred and revenge so pertinaciously encouraged by the radical leaders toward the people of the South is disgraceful to our common humanity, places our Union in constant peril, and threatens to alienate forever those feelings of fraternity and patriotism upon which depend the very existence of republican institutions.

Resolved, That the charge of intending to repudiate any portion of the national debt, so persistently made against us by our political opponents, is a slander, without excuse or provocation, as our pur-

pose of economy in the public expenditures is the best and most certain means of extinguishing the public debt, and leading to a general and safe resumption of specie payments; and to this end we demand of our representatives in Congress and in the Legislature the sternest opposition to all appropriations, that are not absolutely required for the support of the Government, until every creditor of the same is paid his honest dues to the uttermost farthing.

Resolved, That we view with increasing alarm the progress of the radical policy in the Congress of the United States, by which the division lines between the State and the Federal Government, and the several departments of the same Government, are nearly obliterated; by which the great interests of the country, its revenue laws, its lands, its incorporations, its contracts, are made subservient to the interests of unscrupulous politicians, which policy is a continued blight upon our national character, is destructive of the commercial, agricultural, and manufacturing interests of the country, and falls with crushing effect upon hard-handed labor, which is the source of all our wealth, while it is the least able to bear the heavy burdens thrown upon it by such reckless and tyrannical legislation.

Resolved, That we heartily invite all Conservative men, regardless of their former party associations, to unite with us in our present efforts to save the State from the malign influences of radicalism, they having a common interest with us in the preservation of the Constitution, and the prosperity of our common country.

Resolved, That we point with pride and satisfaction to the successful administration of the executive affairs of our State by his Excellency Governor James E. English, and with equal pride and pleasure to the man whose pure character, honest and patriotic purposes, unerring judgment, marked ability and benevolent heart, will make him in the future, as he has been in the past, our invincible standard-bearer, under whom we will once more rally, confident of a triumphant victory.

Resolved, That to the whole State ticket as nominated by us this day we pledge our warmest support, confident that their merits and the interests of our great cause will command for them the success which is due to their character, ability, and devotion to the best welfare of the State and nation.

The Republicans, on their part, held their State Convention at New Haven on February 3, 1869, for the purpose of nominating the Governor and other State officers. Before adjourning, they adopted the platform reported by their committee on resolutions, as follows:

Resolved, That, having evinced our devotion to the cause of our common country during the war, we now declare our entire sympathy with the administration of our national Government by the Republican party, as we believe it will be administered by the incoming Chief Magistrate and his associates, and hereby pledge the Republicans of Connecticut to a hearty coöperation with the national party of the Constitution and the Union.

Resolved, That we heartily rejoice over the success of the Union Republican party in the presidential election, and its already beneficial effect upon peace and order. We look with the highest hopes to the coming Administration of General Grant, the able, patriotic, honest, and inflexible soldier and statesman, believing that our country's honor, at home and abroad, will be safe in his keeping, and we pledge him our enthusiastic support in protecting the equal rights of the people and enforcing the severest supervision of the revenues and expenditures. And we heartily approve in all respects the declarations of the Republican national platform adopted at Chicago.

Resolved. That full freedom and equal citizenship of all citizens, native or adopted, having been established by constitutional amendment, honor and justice, as well as the preservation of our full representation in Congress, require that conditions of suffrage should apply impartially to all men, so that this may be truly a government "deriving its just powers from the consent of the governed."

Resolved, That we demand that loyal men throughout the republic shall be protected in the right to speak, print, assemble, vote, and petition, and in their rights of person and property.

Resolved, That we recognize the vast importance of the pending issues concerning debt, currency, and taxation. "The best policy to diminish the burden of debt is to so improve our credit that capitalists will seek to lend us money at lower rates than we now pay." We unreservedly denounce the wickedness and meanness of repudiation in all its forms and disguises, and believe it to be the duty of Congress to—

1. Formally affirm that when the national debt is paid it must be paid in gold, except where it is otherwise distinctly provided for in the original contract.
2. Introduce the strictest economy into every branch of the Government.
3. Refuse all subsidies and appropriations to railroad and other enterprises outside of the indispensable machinery of the Government.
4. See to it that the taxes are impartially levied and energetically and honestly collected, and surplus revenues applied to the reduction of the debt.
5. Make it a constant aim to resume specie payment, and give the people a uniform and steady currency as soon as may be without a violent disturbance of business; and
6. To remove taxation from labor and necessaries of life, and to impose it as far as possible upon articles of luxury.

Resolved, That we denounce as enemies of the people, and robbers, to be indignantly visited with the full penalties of public opinion and statute law, all officials, State or national, who commit or permit dishonesty, partiality, or negligence, in the collection or disbursement of the treasure of a greatly-burdened people, and make thieving sport of the taxes that patriotic labor cheerfully pays. No rebels were ever so dangerous to the country we love.

Resolved, That we point proudly to the fact that under Republican legislation the credit of the State has been fully maintained, taxes reduced yearly since the close of the war, State charities liberally conducted, and large payments made annually upon the principal of the State debt. We call for short and industrious sessions of the General Assembly, no expenditures for mileage or other allowances save in the strictest obedience to law and the necessities of the public service, and economy as rigid as the true interests and honor of the State will permit.

Resolved, We renew our thanks to the soldiers and sailors of the Union engaged in the late civil war, and hereby express our sincere sympathy with those who have suffered bereavement and loss in the cause of the country.

Resolved, That, in a government of the majority, the absolute purity of the ballot-box is indispensable to the perpetuity of republican institutions.

Resolved, That we place in nomination to-day capable, faithful, and patriotic citizens, worthy of honor and trust, and, reaffirming our determination to keep the Republican party worthy to lead the destinies of a free nation, we appeal to our fellow-citizens to repeat in April the great triumph of last November.

The returns of the election were as follows: For Governor, Marshall Jewell received 45,498 votes; and James E. English 45,082; Jewell's majority 411.

COTTON. The cotton crop of the season ending September 1, 1869, shows a falling-off from the amount of that important product

raised the preceding year. The main difficulty seems to arise from the transitory state of the labor system in the Southern States. It has been found impossible to employ successfully associated labor to the extent necessary to carry on large plantations, and the "squad system" which has succeeded that method has proved to be much less productive, on account of a lack of concert of action and systematic division and distribution of labor. The consequence is, that large plantations have been abandoned or broken up into small farms, and a much larger portion of the land than formerly devoted to the production of grain and vegetables. There has also been a great lack of working force which could be applied in any form to the cultivation of cotton. The freedman shows a disinclination to be employed in any extended system of labor, and prefers to have a little home of his own, where he can raise grain and provisions for his own support, and give little attention to this great staple of the South. The whole number of negroes engaged in cultivating cotton during the past year has been 600,000, while 200,000 white men have been engaged in the same occupation. Steps have been taken in several of the Southern States for the encouragement of immigration, with a view to building up this and the other material interests of that section of the country. Improved lands in the cotton-growing States can now be purchased at prices ranging from $5 to $25 per acre. The aversion which the proprietors formerly had to a division of their plantations is rapidly giving way to the demands of the altered times, and lots of any desired extent can be easily obtained. Whether the cultivation of cotton upon large plantations is to be entirely superseded by its production on small farms like the grain crops of the North, is one of the problems which the immediate future is likely to solve. The use of fertilizers on the cotton-fields has been already introduced with favorable results.

The consumption of cotton in the United States during the last year amounted to 968,000 bales, which shows a falling off of 14,000 bales from the amount used during the preceding year. A somewhat larger proportion of the manufacturing of the country has been done in the South and West than heretofore, but the change is not significant. The following table exhibits with approximate accuracy the state of the cotton manufactures for the year ending October 1, 1869:

STATES.	Mills.	Spindles.	Yarn.	Cotton spun.	Average per Spindle.	Otherwise used.
Maine	19	490,424	23¾	25,090,047	51.20	.....
New Hampshire	43	745,930	26	39,394,541	52.81	680,431
Vermont	11	22,163	30½	1,071,867	48.73	112,534
Massachusetts	143	2,366,025	28½	124,298,128	52.54	168,674
Rhode Island	89	906,681	33¾	36,593,689	40.39	375,000
Connecticut	73	514,549	30	25,559,591	49.67	267,820
New York	43	439,911	32½	18,791,162	42.71	749,500
New Jersey	17	136,002	36½	5,328,718	39.18	.....
Pennsylvania	50	271,946	19	18,725,056	68.85	457,909
Delaware	7	35,108	20½	1,986,886	56.60	.....
Maryland	8	33,802	12½	4,994,237	147.75	.....
Ohio	3	13,270	10½	1,648,608	124.24	100,000
Indiana	1	10,800	14	1,447,908	134.07	.....
Illinois	2	460	27	27,882	60.61	126,500
Missouri	3	12,064	11½	1,793,644	148.68	.....
Total, Northern States	512	5,999,140	28½	306,751,964	51.13	3,038,368
Virginia	7	27,148	14½	2,263,168	83.80	.....
North Carolina	15	20,743	12½	2,486,741	120.13	.....
South Carolina	5	29,084	12½	3,582,595	123.54	.....
Georgia	26	73,556	12½	9,009,947	133.92	.....
Alabama	8	27,364	15½	2,460,738	89.94	.....
Mississippi	3	3,332	8½	242,000	72.63	.....
Texas	2	1,716	9½	209,300	121.97	.....
Arkansas	1	516	10	95,363	184.81	.....
Tennessee	7	9,800	11½	735,071	75.	.....
Kentucky	2	4,500	9	788,795	175.29	.....
Total, Southern States	76	197,759	12½	22,773,718	115.02	.....
RECAPITULATION.						
North	512	5,999,140	28½	306,751,964	51.13	3,038,368
South	76	197,759	12½	22,773,718	115.02	.....
Total	588	6,196,899	28	329,525,682	53.17	3,038,368

The total crop of cotton in the United States for the year 1868–'69 amounted to 2,439,039 bales, against 2,593,993 bales for the preceding year, the average weight of a bale being about 465 pounds. The following statement gives in parallel columns the product of the two years in the different cotton-growing States:

STATES.	1868-'69.	1867-'68.
	Bales.	Bales.
Louisiana	794,205	584,240
Alabama	230,621	366,193
Texas	147,817	114,666
Florida	14,392	58,593
Georgia	357,253	495,959
South Carolina	199,072	240,431
North Carolina	35,906	38,643
Virginia	160,971	166,587
Tennessee, etc	439,800	466,681
Total	2,379,039	2,531,992

This includes the shipments from the different ports, but not the amount consumed in the Southern States, which was about 60,000 bales. The following fignres will serve for the purposes of a general comparison of the resources of the country derived from this one product at different periods: Total crop in 1821–2, 455,000 bales; in 1830–1, 1,038,848; in 1841–2, 1,683,574; in 1850–1, 2,355,257; in 1857–8, 3,113,962; in 1859–60, 4,669,770; in 1865–6, 2,193,987; in 1866–7, 2,019,774; in 1867–8, 2,593,993; in 1868–9, 2,439,039.

The crop of Sea Island cotton for the past year has been as follows: In Florida, 6,748 bales; Georgia, 6,480; South Carolina, 5,454: Total, 18,682. This is the smallest amount recorded for many years.

The average weekly consumption of cotton in Great Britain for the year 1868–'69 was about 3,000 bales less than in 1867–'68, while the Continent of Europe and the United States together consumed about 3,000 less per week. The supply on hand at the beginning of the new year (September 1st) was about 330,000 less than it was one year before.

The exportation of cotton from various ports of this country during the past year, as compared with the preceding year and with 1860, is exhibited in the following table:

FROM	1860.	1868.	1869.
New Orleans....bales	2,005,662	581,477	619,534
Mobile	659,481	236,511	163,154
South Carolina	386,770	105,818	56,809
Georgia	337,755	259,604	167,537
Texas	111,967	68,595	88,376
Florida	59,108	....	810
North Carolina	....	....	....
Virginia	2,259	8,288	6,253
New York	208,028	374,734	327,838
Boston	9,694	1,441	1,491
Philadelphia	292	1,440	99
Baltimore	257	16,309	19,212
Portland, Maine	....	2,807	1,907
San Francisco	....	1	....
Total from the U. S.	3,774,178	1,657,015	1,448,020

Of this amount, 976,986 bales were received at Liverpool; 224,101 at Havre; 110,822 at Bremen; 84,011 at Barcelona; 31,841 at Hamburg; and 70,259 at other ports.

The prices of cotton during the year ending August 30, 1869, have been as follows, at Liverpool and New York:

1868-'69.	Price per Pound.	
	New York.	Liverpool.
	Cents.	Pence.
Beginning of year, Sept. 4 ('68)..	29¼	10¾
Minimum price, Nov. 13, "	24¼	(Sept. 25) 9⅞
Maximum price, Aug. 20 ('69)...	35	13¾
End of the year, Aug. 27, "	34¼	13¾

In 1867–'68 the maximum price was 42 cents at New York, and 15¾ pence at Liverpool; the minimum 25 cents at New York, and 10½ pence at Liverpool.

The growth of cotton in other countries has been somewhat less than during the preceding year. In India the season was unfavorable, and the product did not exceed 1,500,000 bales of 394 pounds each. About 230,000 bales were produced in Egypt; 12,500 in Turkey, the Levant, etc.; and 707,500 in Brazil, Peru, and the West Indies. The entire production of cotton in the world in the year 1869 has been estimated at 5,000,000 bales, while the consumption amounted to about 6,000,000, leaving an apparent deficit in the supply for the coming year of 1,000,000 bales.

CUBA. The most important island of the Western Hemisphere. It has always from the time of its discovery been a dependency of Spain. Several attempts have been made to establish its independence, but failed. The most important movement of this kind is the revolution which broke out in 1868,* and which, at the close of the year 1869, was not entirely subdued. The area of the island is 48,489 square miles, it being nearly equal to the area of Belgium, Holland, Denmark, and Switzerland, taken together. The population is increasing with great rapidity; it had, according to official returns, 170,370 inhabitants in 1775; 551,998 in 1817; 704,487 in 1827 (311,051 white, 106,494 free colored, 286,942 slaves); in 1846, 898,752 (425,767 white, 149,226 free colored, 323,759 slaves); in 1862, 1,359,238 (864,754 white, 225,938 free colored, 368,550 slaves). The island is divided into three provinces. The government is vested in a Captain-General, who is the military commander of the whole island, and the civil governor of one of the three provinces. The chief towns of Cuba are Havana, Santiago, Matanzas, Santa Clara, Santa Maria, and Trinidad. According to the new Spanish Constitution, Cuba is to be represented hereafter in the Spanish Cortes, but no representatives were elected in the course of the year 1869.

The commencement of the insurrection of 1868 was the issue of a document by the "Junta of the Laborers," which, after enumerating the wrongs and insults inflicted upon the Cubans by Spain, thus states the principles on which their revolution is based:

The laborers, animated by the love for their native

* *See* the article SPAIN in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

land, aspire to the hope of seeing Cuba happy and prosperous by virtue of its own power, and demand the inviolability of individuals, their homes, their families, and the fruits of their labor, which it will have guaranteed by the liberty of conscience, of speech, of the press, by peaceful meetings; in fact, they demand a government of the country for and by the country, free from an army of parasites and soldiers that only serves to consume it and oppress it. And, as nothing of that kind can be obtained from Spain, they intend to fight it with all available means, and drive and uproot its dominion on the face of Cuba. Respecting above all and before all the dignity of man, the association declares that it will not accept slavery as a forced inheritance of the past; however, instead of abolishing it as an arm by which to sink the island into barbarity, as threatened by the Government of Spain, they view abolition as a means of improving the moral and material condition of the working-man, and thereby to place property and wealth in a more just and safe position.

Sons of their times, baptized in the vivid stream of civilization, and, therefore, above preoccupation of nationality, the laborers will respect the neutrality of Spaniards, but among Cubans will distinguish only friends and foes, those that are with them or against them. To the former they offer peace, fraternity, and concord; to the latter, hostility and war—war and hostility that will be more implacable to the traitors to Cuba, where they first saw the day, who turn their arms against them, or offer any asylum or refuge to their tyrants. We, the laborers, ignore the value of nationality, but at the present moment consider it of secondary moment. Before nationality stands liberty, the indisputable condition of existence. We must be a people before becoming a nation. When the Cubans constitute a free people they will receive the nationality that becomes them. Now they have none.

In January, 1869, a proclamation was issued by the Spanish Captain-General, to appease the Cubans. He said:

I will brave every danger, accept every responsibility for your welfare. The revolution has swept away the Bourbon dynasty, tearing up the roots, a plant so poisonous that it putrefied the air we breathe. To the citizen shall be returned his rights, to man his dignity. You will receive all the reforms which you require. Cubans and Spaniards are all brothers. From this day Cuba will be considered as a province of Spain. Freedom of the press, the right of meeting in public, and representation in the national Cortes, the three fundamental principles of true liberty, are granted you.

Cubans and Spaniards! Speaking in the name of our mother, Spain, I adjure you to forget the past, hope for the future, and establish union and fraternity.

The proclamation remained without any effect upon the leaders, of whom at this time the Marquis of Santa Lucia and General Castillo were in the neighborhood of Puerto Principe, while other forces were besieging Gibara, and 2,000 men were holding Colonel Lono in check at Tunas, and General Cespedes, the Provisional President, was near St. Jago de Cuba.

The first reënforcement, in 1869, from Spain, consisted of about 1,500 troops. The Spanish General Valmaseda succeeded in joining Colonel Lono at Tunas, and marched on Bayamo. Meanwhile the Cuban forces, 6,000 strong, under General Quesada, advanced on Puerto Principe, which was defended by Colonel Mena with a garrison of 3,000 men.

Another reënforcement of 1,000 men arrived on February 15th. A decree was issued abolishing the freedom of the press and establishing trials by military commissions. The citizens of Havana were called upon to raise twenty-five millions for the Government. The volunteers continued to create disturbances. This body, originally organized by Lersundi, while energetic in support of the revolution which relieved Spain from Isabella, showed themselves as ready to support the Spanish rule in Cuba. Their seven battalions numbered at this time about 5,000 men. Their demeanor was insolent and overbearing.

In February, 5,000 insurgents, divided into three bodies, between Villa Clara and Cienfuegos, were destroying the railway and cutting the telegraph wires. An engagement took place at San Cristoval, twenty-two leagues west from Havana, with a body of insurgents under Prieto, in which the troops were defeated and obliged to retreat. Another action took place at Quanajay, eleven leagues from Havana, on the north coast, in which twenty Spaniards were wounded. The arrival of reënforcements from Count Valmaseda prevented the Cubans from taking Santiago. The insurgents still held Tunas. Havana was practically in a state of siege, and General Dulce was urged to declare it officially, but was not inclined to do so, and even released Cubans producing American naturalization papers. The Cubans destroyed the telegraph and stopped the mails at Trinidad. Banditti pillaged the plantations in the vicinity of Nuevitas. A body of troops, sent on February 7th to San Miguel, burned the town, but the insurgents held their ground in the vicinity. They also continued to surround Puerto Principe, the inhabitants of which city were suffering for want of provisions. A force of Spanish troops under Quiros advanced to Jiguani, near Bayamo, from Santiago de Cuba, fighting severely all along the route with the insurgents under General Cespedes, in order to join Count Valmaseda, who was at Jiguani with the main body of his forces. The insurgent chiefs were constantly moving from one point to another, thus baffling pursuit and wearying their enemies by long and profitless marches. To deprive the Spaniards of the power of moving, they also continued burning estates and railroad bridges, and destroying roads. On the 14th of February, Colonel Lono's column of Spanish troops arrived at Manzanilla from Bayamo, with about 1,000 refugees. This column was harassed by the insurgents all the way. The latter captured the port of La Guanaja, a small town a few leagues west of Nuevitas, and fortified it with brass guns, manned by Americans. In the middle of February 1,000 chasseurs arrived from Spain, and went, under General Puello, to Cienfuegos. The amnesty proclamation was officially declared to have expired, but the Captain-General proclaimed the benefit of pardon to all insurgents that would surrender themselves, with or without arms, excluding the chiefs of the insurrection, assassins, incen-

diaries, and robbers. To prevent further collusion with American citizens, General Dulce applied to the United States consul for the names of all American residents in Cuba. At La Lujas, five leagues from Cienfuegos, 1,500 insurgents burned, on February 20th, the archives of the police and the uniforms of the civil guards, and took their arms and horses.

The naval expedition from Havana against the insurgents at La Guanaja was successful. The fortifications erected there by the insurgents were first bombarded by the fleet. Troops were then landed, and the works were carried by assault. The rebels withdrew and retreated into the country. A permanent garrison of regulars was left in the town.

Two battalions of troops marched from La Guanaja to the relief of Puerto Principe, on the 23d of February. Captain-General Dulce addressed the sergeants and corporals of the volunteer forces, exhorting them to maintain order and obedience, and discountenance all dangerous agitation.

In several encounters between the Spanish troops and the insurgents near Santa Cruz, in February, the latter were defeated and forced to fly to the mountains. Meanwhile General Lesca, strongly reënforced, was pushing his way into the interior from La Guanaja, and General Puello arrived with his reënforcements at Cienfuegos. An engagement took place at Colonia de St. Domingo, in the province of Sagua la Grande, in which many were killed on both sides. In this gloomy state of affairs the emigration of Cubans increased greatly. There was no prospect of any decision for some time. It was evident that additional reenforcements of troops were needed from Spain to occupy the whole island and drive out the insurgents. The troops actually did no more than hold their own. The people in the country suffered great distress, and thousands left their homes to seek refuge in the cities. Another reënforcement of 1,000 men arrived on March 8d from Spain, and were sent to the interior. General Dulce recruited new battalions of volunteers. To assist the Government by money, the clergy offered it one-sixth of their income. General Letona commenced a vigorous campaign in the district of Cienfuegos, while General Puello divided his command at Santo Espiritu into three flying columns, to scour the country. In the Eastern Department bands were roaming between Holguin and Gibara, and committed great depredations and outrages; they carried the flag of the insurgents, but were disowned by the latter and denounced as bandits. General Lesca advanced from La Guanaja to Puerto Principe. On this march the heaviest engagement since the beginning of the rebellion was fought. General Lesca found the enemy, to the number of 4,000, strongly intrenched on the Sierra de Cubitas. Artillery was brought up and commenced a vigorous fire upon the works. Covered by the batteries, a column of regular troops, 1,500 strong, attacked the enemy's fortifications with the bayonet. Both sides fought with determination. General Lesca reports his loss at thirty-one killed and eighty wounded; other accounts say the Spaniards lost about two hundred men. The loss of the rebels was estimated by the Spaniards at 1,000 killed and wounded.

About this time—March, 1869—the entire available strength of the rebel forces under Quesada was 7,000 men. It was somewhat strengthened by the landing of an expedition under the command of Cisneros on the north side of Cuba, near Mayari, where General Cespedes was waiting for war material by a steamer. This vessel brought about 100 Cubans, all well armed with rifles, revolvers, and swords, several pieces of field artillery, and a number of expert artillerists. In addition to these there were landed 5,000,000 of ball-cartridges and a large assortment of other war material.

General Cespedes was at Mayari with a large force ill supplied with munitions, but very enthusiastic and confident in the success of the cause—free Cuba. He continued the Fabian policy in his war with the Spanish troops until his forces should become better armed, and the disparity in this respect between the two armies should be reduced. Meanwhile irregular bands of insurgents were burning plantations and scattering general destruction in the vicinity of Manzanillo and Santa Cruz.

The insurgent Assembly of Representatives for the Central Department decreed, in March, the absolute abolition of slavery. The patriots were to be indemnified for the loss of their slaves, and the freedmen to become soldiers or to remain cultivators of the soil.

In order to strengthen their cause, the leaders of the Cuban insurrection turned their eyes to the United States, where much sympathy and some help in men and arms had already encouraged them. On the occasion of General Grant's accession to the presidency, the following address was sent to him:

To His Excellency the President of the United States:

SIR: The people of Cuba, by their Grand Supreme Civil Junta and through their General-in-Chief, Señor Cespedes, desire to submit to your Excellency the following, among other reasons, why your Excellency, as President of the United States, should accord to them belligerent rights and a recognition of their independence:

Because from the hearts of nineteen-twentieths of the inhabitants of the island of Cuba go up prayers for the success of the armies of the republic; and from the sole and only want of arms and ammunition these patient people are kept under the tyrannical yoke of Spain. The unanimity of the masses of the people for the republic is ominous.

Because the republic have armies numbering over 70,000 men actually in the field and doing duty. These men are organized and governed on the principles of civilized warfare. The prisoners whom they take—and so far they have taken three times as many as their enemies have from them—are treated in every respect as the prisoners of war are used and treated by the most civilized nations of the earth. In the hope of recognition by the United States, they

have never yet in a single instance retaliated death for death, even in cases of the most provoking nature.

Because the Spanish authorities have almost invariably brutually murdered the soldiers of the armies of the republic who have surrendered to them, and have recently issued an official order requiring their military forces hereafter instantly to kill and murder every prisoner of the republic who surrenders. This is done, the order cheerfully tells us, "to save trouble and vexation to the Spanish civil authorities." This is an outrage the civilized nations of the earth ought not to allow.

Because the United States is the nearest civilized nation to Cuba, whose political institutions strike a responsive chord in the hearts of all Cubans. The commercial and financial interests of the two peoples being largely identical and reciprocal in their natures, Cuba earnestly appeals for the unquestionable right of recognition.

Because the arms and authority of the Republic of Cuba now extend over two-thirds of the entire geographical area of the island, embracing a very great majority of the population in every part of the island.

Because she has a navy in course of construction which will excel in point of numbers and efficiency that heretofore maintained by the Spanish authorities in these waters.

Because these facts plainly show to the world that this is not a movement of a few discontents, but the grand and sublime uprising of a people thirsting for liberty, and determined with this last effort to secure to themselves and their posterity those unquestioned rights—liberty of conscience and freedom of the individual.

Finally, because she is following but in the footsteps of Spain herself in endeavoring to banish tryannical rulers, and in their stead place rulers of her own choice, the people of Cuba having a tenfold more absolute and potent right than Spain had, because Cuba's rulers are sent without her voice or consent by a foreign country, accompanied by and with swarms of officials to fill the various offices created only for their individual comfort, drawing their sustenance and support from the hard earnings of the natives of the soil.

Allow us to add, with the greatest diffidence and sensitiveness, that the difference between the rebellion in the United States and the present revolution in Cuba is simply that in the former a small minority rebelled against laws which they had a voice in making and the privilege of repealing; while in the case of Cuba we are resisting a foreign power in crushing us to the earth, as they have done for centuries, with no appeal but that of arms open to us, and appointing, without our knowledge, voice, advice, or consent, tyrannical citizens of their own country to rule us and eat out our substance.

"Patria y libertad!"

Approved by the Supreme Junta and ordered promulgated by SEÑOR GENERAL CESPEDES,
Commander-in-Chief Republican Forces of Cuba.
HEADQUARTERS IN THE FIELD, *March* 1, 1869.

On March 7th the Spaniards attacked the insurgents intrenched at Macaca and succeeded in dislodging and routing them. General Velosca's column marched toward Mayari against General Cespedes, and to operate in conjunction with Lopez, who entered Mayari after a desperate struggle. The insurgents made an attack on Jiguani, Count Valmaseda's position, but were repulsed and retired to the mountains.

On March 12th, 1,200 additional troops arrived from Spain, who, with the remainder of the Spanish troops, advanced against the rebels in every direction. The rebels who were defeated at Mayari moved toward Holguin.

In the middle of March, Captain-General Dulce issued a proclamation making important changes in taxation. The direct taxes on plantations, cattle, and country real estate, and the war-tax recently imposed on merchants and tradesmen, were reduced fifty per cent., and no government contribution payable within the last quarter of the fiscal year of 1868–'69 was to be collected. To compensate the Treasury for the loss of revenue incurred by these reductions, the following new duties were imposed: On muscovado sugar shipped under the Spanish flag, sixteen cents, and, under a foreign flag, twenty cents per 100 pounds; on every box of sugar under the Spanish flag, seventy-five cents; under foreign flag, eighty-seven cents; on every hogshead of sugar under Spanish flag, one dollar; under foreign flag, one dollar and seventy-five cents: on molasses, fifty cents per hogshead; on rum, one dollar per hogshead.

Meanwhile the insurgents carried out their plan of burning and devastating plantations everywhere. They brought off the slaves and made them soldiers. An engagement took place near Alvarez, on March 18th; the insurgents were routed and divided, one force fleeing toward Macagua and the other toward Jocuri Grande. In another engagement, at Guaracabuya, 186 insurgents were killed (according to official accounts). The number of insurgents in the Sagua and Remedios districts, at this time, was estimated at from 7,000 to 9,000 men, mainly engaged in burning plantations and destroying railroads and telegraphs.

On March 20th a fleet of transports, with about 300 state prisoners on board, sailed for Fernando Po, convoyed by the Spanish frigate Lealtad. An artillery column, under Morales de los Rios, with a squadron of cavalry, came up with 2,000 rebels of Villa Clara, at Potrerillo, under Generals Morales, Villamil, and others, and completely routed them, killing 205, wounding 300, and capturing twenty-one prisoners, some horses, arms, etc. Thirty Spanish were also retaken. The troops lost one lieutenant and one man. According to official accounts, General Letona arrived at Villa Clara on March 14th, after a number of encounters with the rebels, in all of which he is said to have punished them severely. The Government directed the concentration of all its forces in the Villa Clara district, including those under Letona, Pelaz, and Puello, with the artillery column of Colonel Morales de los Rios and a considerable force of cavalry, estimated to number in all 10,000 men. The insurgents, in despite of their inefficiency and the disadvantage of want of organization, arms, and artillery, were fighting with great bravery and desperation.

As yet no regular civil government existed in the districts held by the insurgents, and no formal attempt was made to organize one. In the Central Department General Quesada's authority was respected, while in the East General Cespedes was looked upon as the

leader. There was little communication between the several departments, and no concert of action. The only aim seemed to be war with the Spaniard. The insurgents in the Villa Clara district held their organization distinct from those of Cespedes and Quesada.

On March 20th an engagement took place between 300 troops, some mobilized sharpshooters and other volunteers, and 3,000 rebels, intrenched at Placetas, provided with cannon and a large number of cavalry. An advanced force of 200 rebels was met at Nagareno and driven into their camp. As the troops approached, the rebels opened a heavy fire, which lasted three hours, including artillery, not badly directed. The troops replied with ammunition, and finally charged with the bayonet, dislodging the enemy and capturing their three mountain-pieces. The enemy had 136 killed and many wounded. The troops captured an immense quantity of arms, horses, flags, etc. They lost but one wounded.

In April, representatives from all parts of the island met at Guaimaro, a small town of the Central Department, about twenty leagues east of Puerto Principe. On April 10th General Cespedes resigned his provisional authority as General-in-Chief and Chief of the Government by an address, in which he says:

Now that the House of Representatives, gathered from all parts of the island, has been happily inaugurated in Guaimaro, it becomes from the moment of its organization the supreme and only authority for all Cubans, because it constitutes the depository of the people's will, sovereign of the present and controller of the future. All temporary power and authority ceases to have a rightful voice in Cuba from the very moment in which the wise democratic system, laying its solid foundations beneath the gigantic shadow of the tree of liberty, has come to endow us—after suffering the most iniquitous rule—with the most beautiful and magnificent of human institutions—a republican government.

Unfeigned gratitude I owe to the destiny which afforded me the glory of being the first in Yara to raise the standard of independence, and the still greater, though less merited satisfaction, to see crowded around me my fellow-citizens in demand of liberty, thus sustaining my weak arm and stimulating my poor efforts by their confidence. But another glory was reserved for me, far more grateful to my sentiments and democratic convictions—that of also being the first to render homage to the popular sovereignty.

This duty fulfilled, having given an account to the fatherland in its most genuine representation, of the work which, with the assistance of its own heroic sons, I had the good fortune to have commenced, it still behooves me, fellow-citizens, to fulfil another, not less imperious to my heart, of addressing my gratitude to you—to you, without whom my humble, isolated efforts would not have produced other fruit than that of adding one patriot more to the number of preceding martyrs for independence—to you who, recognizing in me the principle rather than the man, came to stimulate me by your recognition of myself as chief of the provisional government and the liberating army.

Fellow-Citizens of the Eastern Department: Your efforts as initiators of the struggle against tyranny, your constancy, your sufferings, your heroic sacrifices of all descriptions, your privations, the combat without quarter which you have sustained and continue to sustain against an enemy far superior in armament and discipline, and who displays, for want of the valor which a good cause inspires, all the ferocity which is the attribute of tyranny, have been witnessed by myself, and so will remain eternally present to my heart. Ye are the vanguard of the soldiers of our liberties. I commend you to the admiration and to the gratitude of the Cubans. Continue your abnegation of self, your discipline, your valor, and your enthusiasm, which well entitle you to that gratitude and that admiration.

Fellow-Citizens of the Western Department: If it has not been your good fortune to be the first in grasping arms, neither were you among the last in listening to the voice of the fatherland that cried for revolution. Your moral aid and assistance responded from the very onset to the call of your brethren of the Eastern and Central Departments. Many of you hastened to the scene of revolution to share our labors. At this moment, despite the activity displayed by the Spanish Government in your districts, where its resources and the number of their hosts render more difficult the current of the revolution, that same Government trembles before your determined attitude, from the Cinco Villas to Havana, and from Havana to the western boundary, and your first deeds of arms were the presage to you and the brave and worthy sons of the Eastern and Central Departments of new and decisive triumphs.

Fellow-Citizens of all the Island: The blood of the patriots who have fallen during the first onset of the struggle has consecrated our aspirations with a glorious baptism. At this moment, when destiny has been pleased to close the mission of him who was your first leader, swear with him by that generous blood, that in order to render fruitful that great sacrifice you will shed your own, to the very last drop, in furtherance of the consummation of our independence, proclaimed in Yara. Swear with me to give up our lives a thousand times over in sustaining the republic proclaimed in Guaimaro.

Fellow-Citizens: Long live our independence! Long live the popular sovereignty! Long live the Cuban republic! *Patria* and liberty.

CARLOS MANUEL DE CESPEDES.

GUAIMARO, *April* 10, 1869.

The Congress with great unanimity proclaimed "the Republic of Cuba," elected Carlos M. de Cespedes President of the Republic, and General M. Quesada Commander-in-Chief of the Forces. General Cespedes, on assuming the presidency, issued the following proclamation:

TO THE PEOPLE OF CUBA:

Compatriots: The establishment of a free government in Cuba, on the basis of democratic principles, was the most fervent wish of my heart. The effective realization of this wish was, therefore, enough to satisfy my aspirations and amply repay the services which, jointly with you, I may have been able to devote to the cause of Cuban independence. But the will of my compatriots has gone far beyond this, by investing me with the most honored of all duties—the supreme magistracy of the republic.

I am not blind to the great labors required in the exercise of the high functions which you have placed in my charge in these critical moments, notwithstanding the aid that may be derived from other powers of the state. I am not ignorant of the grave responsibility which I assume in accepting the presidency of our new-born republic. I know that my weak powers would be far from being equal to the demand if left to themselves alone.

But this will not occur, and that conviction fills me with faith in the future.

In the act of beginning the struggle with the oppressors, Cuba has assumed the solemn duty to consummate her independence or perish in the attempt; and in giving herself a democratic government she obligates herself to become republican.

This double obligation, contracted in the presence of free America, before the liberal world, and, what is more, before our own conscience, signifies our determination to be heroic and to be virtuous.

Cubans! On your heroism I rely for the consummation of our independence, and on your virtue I count to consolidate the republic.

You may count on my abnegation of self.

CARLOS MANUEL DE CESPEDES.

GRANMARO, *April* 11, 1869.

Two days afterward appeared the following proclamation of General Quesada:

Citizen Chiefs, Officers, and Soldiers of the Liberating Army of Cuba: When I returned to my country to place my sword at its service, fulfilling the most sacred of duties, realizing the most intense aspiration of my life, the vote of the Camagueyans, to my surprise, honored me by conferring on me the command of their army. Notwithstanding my poor merits and capacity, I accepted the post, because I expected to find, and did find, in the Camagueyans civic virtues well established, and this has rendered supportable the charge of the responsibility which I assumed.

Now the legislative power of the republic has filled me with greater surprise, promoting me to the command-in-chief of the liberating army of Cuba. The want of confidence in my own resources naturally moves me anew upon stronger grounds, although it also strengthens the conviction that the patriotism of my brethren will supply the insufficiency of my capacity.

Camagueyans! You have given me undoubted proofs of your virtues. You are models of subordination and enthusiasm. Preserve and extend your discipline.

Soldiers of the East! Initiators of our sacred revolution! Veterans of Cuba! I salute you with sincere affection, counting on your gallant chiefs, in order that they may aid me in realizing the eminent work which we have undertaken, and I hope that union will strengthen our forces.

Soldiers of the villas! You have already struggled with the despot. I felicitate you for the efforts made, and invite you to continue them. You are patriots. You will be victors.

Soldiers of the West! I know your heroic exploits, and venerate them. I am well aware of the disadvantage of the situation in which you find yourselves, in contrast with our oppressors, and it is our purpose to remedy this.

Accept the homage of my admiration and the succor of my arms.

Citizen chiefs, officers, and soldiers of the Cuban army! Union, discipline, and perseverance.

The rapid increase which the glorious revolution of Cuba has taken frightens our oppressors, who now are suffering the pangs of desperation, and carrying on a war of vengeance, not of principles.

The tyrant Valmaseda rambles with the incendiary's torch and the homicidal knife over the fields of Cuba. He has never done otherwise, but now he adds to his crime the still greater one of publishing it by a proclamation, which we can only describe by pronouncing it to be a proclamation worthy of the Spanish Government. Thereby our property is menaced by fire and pillage. This is nothing. It threatens us with death, and this is nothing. But even our mothers, wives, daughters, and sisters, are menaced with resort to violence. * * *

Ferocity is the valor of cowards.

I implore you, sons of Cuba, to recollect at all hours the proclamation of Valmaseda. That document will shorten the time necessary for the triumph of our cause. That document is an additional proof of the character of our enemies. Those beings appear deprived even of those gifts which Nature has conceded to the irrationals—the instinct of foresight and of warning. We have to struggle with tyrants, always such—the very same ones of the Inquisition, of the Conquest, and of Spanish domination in America. In birth and in death they live and succeed the Torquemadas, the Pizarros, the Boves, the Morillos, the Tacons, the Conchas, and the Valmasedas. We have to combat with the assassins of the old women and of children, with the mutilators of the dead, with the idolaters of gold!

Cubans! If you would save your honor and that of your families; if you would conquer forever your liberty—be soldiers. War leads you to peace and to happiness. Inertia precipitates you to misfortune and to dishonor.

Viva Cuba! Viva the President of the Republic! Viva the Liberating Army! Patria and liberty!

MANUEL QUESADA.

GUIAMARO, *April* 13, 1869.

The proclamation of Valmaseda, spoken of so severely in the foregoing address, was issued by him at Bayamo on the 4th of April, and reads as follows:

INHABITANTS OF THE COUNTRY:

The forces which I expected have arrived. With them I will afford protection to the good, and summarily punish all those who still rebel against the government of the metropolis.

Know ye that I have pardoned those who have fought against us, armed; know ye that your wives, mothers, and sisters, have in me found the protection they admired and which you rejected; know, also, that many of the pardoned have turned against me. After all these excesses, after so much ingratitude, and so much villany, it is impossible for me to be the man I was heretofore. Deceptive neutrality is no longer possible. "He that is not with me is against me," and, in order that my soldiers may know how to distinguish you, hearken to the orders given them:

Every man from the age of fifteen upward, found beyond his farm, will be shot, unless a justification for his absence be proven.

Every hut that is found uninhabited will be burned by the troops.

Every hamlet, where a white cloth, in the shape of a flag, is not hoisted in token that its inhabitants desire peace, will be reduced to ashes.

The women who are not found in their respective dwellings, or in those of their relatives, will return to the towns of Jiguani or Bayamo, where they will be duly provided for. Those who fail to do so will be taken by compulsion. These orders will be in force on and after the 14th inst.

COUNT VALMASEDA.

BAYAMO, *April* 4, 1869.

In April the Government concentrated troops to the north and south of Puerto Principe. General Dulce decreed an augmentation of 1,000 "guardian civil," for the better protection of Cardenas, Colon, Sagua, Cienfuegos, Santa Clara, and Remedios. The insurgents, on the other hand, closely besieged Trinidad, and cut off all communication with the town on the land side. They continued burning plantations around Sagua la Grande, Remedios, and Santiago de Cuba. The Government officials continued active in confiscating the property of absentees. To prevent further destruction, detachments of ten men were detailed for each estate. The powerless condition of the Government, as opposed to the volunteers, began to excite grave apprehensions among the more intelligent and wealthy Spaniards. Many sales of establishments were made for half their value. The officers of the regular army, unaccustomed to being ruled by their men,

were much disgusted with the constant insubordination displayed by the volunteers. The mobilized negroes in Nuevitas also refused to serve, as the advanced guard, in attacks upon the insurgents. The area of the rebellion extended to the Western Department. On the 17th of April, 1,800 troops, commanded by Generals Letona and Escalante, arrived at Nuevitas from Villa Clara; they were joined the next day by General Lesca, with 1,200 men, from Puerto Principe. An engagement took place between the Spanish troops, under the command of General Lesca, and the Cuban insurgents, at Altagracia. The report says the rebels offered a more determined resistance than in any previous battle, and acknowledges that the Spaniards lost a colonel and captain and six privates killed and thirty wounded. According to later accounts the Cuban loss was 200, and the Spanish 180 in killed and wounded.

It was the first serious battle in the Cuban revolution, but nothing definite resulted from it. On the 3d of May another battle was fought at Las Minas. According to rebel sources, the Spaniards numbered 1,200 men, under the command of General Lesca. The revolutionary force was commanded by General Quesada. One report says, before the fighting commenced, Quesada posted the native Cubans in front, protected by intrenchments, and placed a force of 400 Dominican and American volunteers in their rear, with orders to fire upon them if they ran. Thus placed between two fires, the Cubans fought with desperation. The Spaniards attacked the intrenchments three times with the bayonet. The first two assaults were repulsed by the Cubans; the third was very determined and severe, and the Cubans began to waver, when Quesada ordered the rear-guard to the front. They advanced, driving the Cubans into the front ranks of the enemy. A hand-to-hand combat ensued, in which the butchery was horrible. The Spaniards finally gave way and retreated, but in good order. Their loss is estimated at 160 killed and 300 wounded; that of the Cubans at 200 killed and a proportionate number wounded. The forces of Quesada after the fight marched to San Miguel and burned the town in sight of the retreating Spaniards.

The proportions of this fight seem, however, to have been exaggerated. With the advance of the hot season both the Spanish and rebel troops suffered from fever. The rebels burned the town of Manicaragua.

An expedition, fitted out in the United States under General Thomas Jordan, landed at Mayari, in May. It brought about 4,000 long-range rifles, 300 Remington rifles, 500 six-barrelled revolvers, twelve splendid pieces of artillery, twelve twenty-four and thirty-two pounders, and a number of cartridges. Moreover, he brought 1,000 lances, 1,000 pairs of shoes, an equal quantity of clothing, two printing presses complete, medicine-chests, plenty of rice, biscuits, salt meat, salt, and flour—in fact, full stores for fitting out 6,000 men. The expedition numbered 300 men. On marching into the interior they were attacked by the Spaniards and an obstinate engagement ensued, during which it is reported that the forces of the Government captured two pieces of artillery. The Spanish loss is stated at 32, and that of the insurgents at 80 men killed and wounded.

Severe fighting took place around Trinidad and Cienfuegos, with heavy losses to both sides. Small bands of both parties raided over the country and robbed the inhabitants.

On the 16th of May a severe engagement took place four miles from Puerto Padre, a small seaport town on the north coast of Cuba in the Eastern Department. The insurgents attacked a force of 1,000 Spaniards conveying provisions to Tunas. The battle took place along the margin of the river, and lasted for several hours, and every attempt of the Spaniards to cross was repulsed with severe loss. They were shot down in the river, dyeing the water with their blood. Finally the Spaniards were driven back with great loss, and compelled to abandon the design of provisioning Tunas. They acknowledged a loss of 34 killed and 100 wounded, but the insurgents claimed that their loss was much heavier.

The Captain-General of Cuba, General Dulce, both on account of ill health and the discouraging state of affairs, in Cuba and in Spain, which rendered him daily more powerless, determined to leave Cuba, but, before he could carry out his design, a mob of volunteers virtually deposed him (June 4th), and installed Espinar in his place. Some of the leaders of the volunteers were supposed to meditate the organization of a Colonial Government; their action, however, was limited to instituting a court of inquiry into the conduct of General Dulce.

The brigade of Brigadier Ferrer, which left Nuevitas on the 25th of May to reënforce the troops at Puerto Padre, had returned in a pitiable condition, the cholera having broken out among them. They secured their object, the convoying of a train from Puerto Padre to Las Tunas, in the interior. They were harassed and finally attacked at La Brenosa. The rebels were repulsed with a loss of 80 men. The Spanish loss was 76 in killed and wounded. The insurgents received credit for bravery and for retiring in good order.

The Home Government, to the great delight of the volunteers, appointed, as successor of General Dulce, General Caballero de Rodas, who, by his dealings with the republican insurgents in Cadiz, had received from the Spanish republicans the surname of "the butcher of Cadiz." The new Captain-General entered vigorously upon the task intrusted to him. In order to prevent further assistance from other countries, he published, on July 7th, the following decree:

The custody and guardianship of the coasts of this island, of the keys adjacent, and the waters appertaining to the territory, being of the greatest importance, in order to suppress the insurgent bands that have hitherto maintained themselves by outside assistance; and determined, as I am, to give a vigorous impulse to the pursuit of them, and with a view of settling the doubts entertained by our cruisers as to the proper interpretation of the decrees promulgated by this superior political government under date of November 9, 1868, February 18th and 26th, and March 24th last, I have decided to amplify and unite the aforesaid orders and substitute for them the following, which, by virtue of the authority vested in me by the nation, I decree:

ARTICLE 1. All ports situated between Cayo Bahia de Cadiz and Point Maysi, on the north side, with the exception of Sagua la Grande, Caibarien, Nuevitas, Gibara, Baracoa, Guantanamo, Santiago de Cuba, Manzanillo, Santa Cruz, Zaza, Trinidad, and Cienfuegos, where there are custom-houses, will continue closed to the import and export trade both by foreign and coasting vessels. Those who may attempt the entry of any closed ports, or to open communication with their coasts, will be pursued, and, on being captured, are to be tried as violators of the law.

ART. 2. Vessels carrying gunpowder, arms, and warlike stores, will likewise be judged in accordance with the law.

ART. 3. The transportation of individuals in the service of the insurrection is by far more serious than that of contraband of war, and will be deemed an act of decided hostility, and the vessel and crew regarded as enemies to the state.

ART. 4. Should the individuals referred to in the foregoing article come armed, this will be regarded *de facto* as proof of their intentions, and they will be regarded as pirates, as will also be the case with the crew of the vessel.

ART. 5. In accordance with the law, vessels captured under an unknown flag, whether armed or unarmed, will also be regarded as pirates.

ART. 6. In free seas adjacent to those of this island the cruisers will limit themselves in their treatment of denounced vessels, or those who render themselves suspicious, to the rights given in the treaties between Spain and the United States in 1795, Great Britain in 1835, and with other nations subsequently; and if, in the exercise of these rights, they should encounter any vessels recognized as enemies of the integrity of the territory, they will carry them into port for legal investigation and judgment accordingly.

CABALLERO DE RODAS.

He announced a vigorous policy by the following decree, which proves that he would not concede that the Cuban forces were made up of thousands of well-armed men, under bold and experienced leaders:

SUPERIOR POLITICAL GOVERNMENT OF THE PROVINCE OF CUBA,
HAVANA, *July* 6, 1869.

The insurrection, in its impotency, being reduced to detached bands, perverted to the watchword of desolation, and daily perpetrating crimes that have no precedent in civilized countries, personal security and the rights of justice, the foremost guarantees of person and property, imperiously demand that said insurrection be hastened to its end, and without consideration toward those who have placed themselves beyond the pale of the law. The culprit will not be deprived of the guarantees of just impartiality in the evidence of his crimes, but without the delay admissible in normal periods, which would procrastinate or paralyze the verdict of the law and its inexorable fulfilment.

As the guardian of the national integrity, the protector of the upright and pacific citizen, fulfilling the duties of my office, and in virtue of the authority conceded to me by the Government of the nation, I hereby decree:

ARTICLE 1. The decrees promulgated by this superior political government, under date of 12th and 18th February last, shall be carried out with vigor.

ART. 2. The crimes of premeditated incendiarism, assassination, and robbery, by armed force and contraband, shall be tried by a council of war.

ART. 3. The courts of justice will continue in the exercise of their attributes, without prejudice, however, of being submitted to me such cases as special circumstances may require.

CABALLERO DE RODAS.

A proclamation followed, addressed to the "Inhabitants of the Island of Cuba," the volunteers, soldiers, and mariners.

In July, General Puello, at the head of 300 Spanish marines, was attacked by a force of patriots near Baga, a small town situated on the same bay as Nuevitas, and not far from that city. The marines were forced to fall back upon Nuevitas, with a loss of 80.

During July the Spanish troops in the insurrectionary districts were reënforced by all the disposable forces of the island. In the Cinco Villas district there were several contests, in which small parties were engaged. It is reported that in these engagements the Spanish loss in killed, wounded, and prisoners, amounted to nearly 400. These reënforcements were sent principally to the district commanded by General Jordan, but, on account of the setting in of the rainy season, both parties were compelled to suspend operations. The Cubans continued to be reënforced by volunteers from the United States. Two hundred and twenty-five, recruited in Indiana, Ohio, and Kentucky, succeeded in landing on the 28th of July, and joining General Quesada's forces. They carried with them arms and ammunition, and a large supply of camp-equipage.

In October the volunteers continued to control the affairs of the island, and the Captain-General seemed powerless to prevent them. A general feeling of insecurity and alarm prevailed, and no foreigner or native felt safe.

The decree of the Constituent Cortes, establishing unrestricted liberty of religion in the colonies of Cuba and Porto Rico, was, on October 25th, promulgated in Cuba, and has gone into effect as the law of the land. The document declares that Spain cannot remain removed from the general movement of Europe and the world, and adds that this consideration is the more powerful for the Antilles, because they lie near a continent where liberty of religion is recognized by law. One clause of the decree provides that no person shall be prevented from holding office under the Government by reason of his religious belief. The decree was received with general satisfaction by the populace.

During the prevalence of cholera in October, which carried off great numbers of Valmaseda's forces, Quesada's 8,000 well-armed and thoroughly-organized men spent their time in going through target-drill. There were, in October (according to Cuban accounts), about

15,000 insurgents in the Cinco Villas district, in addition to about 8,000 under General Ruloff, a Pole. Much depression was felt on account of the failure of most of the expeditions from the United States, as more arms were greatly needed. The most important expedition that reached Cuba was that organized by General Goicuria. The steamship Lillian, which had been lying at New Orleans, went to Cedar Keys, off the Florida coast, where about 600 men and several cannon and a large number of rifles with appropriate ammunition were embarked. The expedition safely arrived, about the 20th of October. Returning, the Lillian put into the harbor of Nassau, where she was seized by the British authorities, but was released after a short detention.

In November the burning of sugar-plantations became quite general. There were over one hundred and sixty large sugar-plantations belonging to Cubans who had fled, which were confiscated by the Spaniards, with the view of getting money out of the crops. To prevent this, the Cubans set fire to the cane on all these plantations. On November 20th the Spanish arms suffered a reverse at Mogote, where an attack upon a fortified position of the insurgents was repulsed with loss. The troops were commanded by Colonel Camara, and the attack commenced by throwing a shell, which was followed by a bayonet-charge. The Cubans stood firm, and after a desperate fight the Spaniards were repulsed. No details of the losses are known, but they were heavy on both sides.

In November, the Cuban Junta in New York City was reorganized. It consisted thenceforth of six members, besides the newly-elected President, Señor Miguel Aldama, of whom three had previously been prominent members of the Havana bar. The others had gained equal distinction in eminent business positions.

The American general, Jordan, who, in the meanwhile, had been appointed Adjutant-General of the Army of Cuba, stated in a letter that the Cuban army numbered 26,800 men, supplied with arms; that it was followed by 40,000 liberated slaves, armed with *machetes*, and that, if the Cubans had 75,000 stands of arms, the war could be ended in 90 days.

In the beginning of the month of December, General Cespedes issued a proclamation calling on all faithful Cubans to destroy their sugar and tobacco crops, in order to deprive the Spaniards of this source of revenue. The operations of the Cubans during the month accordingly were chiefly directed to the burning of crops.

The insurrection, at the end of 1869, had not yet died out; and a report, published in December by the Havana papers, that the Cuban Junta in New York had requested the leaders of the insurgent forces to lay down their arms, was indignantly denied.

From the beginning of their uprising, the Cuban insurgents met with the most cordial sympathy in South America. The Governments of Chili and Peru formally recognized the insurgents. The note of the President of Peru, dated May 13th, to General Cespedes, "Captain-General of the Liberating Army of Cuba," contains the following paragraph: "The President of Peru sympathizes deeply with the noble cause of which your Excellency constitutes himself the worthy champion, and he will do his utmost to mark the interest which that island, so worthy of taking its place with the civilized nations of the world, inspires him with. The Peruvian Government recognizes as belligerents the party which is fighting for the independence of Cuba, and will strive its utmost to secure their recognition as such by other nations; and likewise that the war should be properly regulated in conformity with international usages and laws." The sympathy in all the other republics was equally outspoken, and the Cubans, at the close of the year, were expecting a speedy recognition by all of them.

In the United States, the sympathy of public opinion was at least equally strong, and showed itself in a large number of mass meetings, in resolutions of Congress, and in the fitting out of a number of expeditions. This sympathy was also openly expressed in the message of President Grant, in December, 1869; on the other hand, however, the message took the ground that "the contest had at no time assumed the conditions which amount to a war in the sense of international law, or which would show the existence of a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient to justify a recognition of belligerency." The President further remarked that the United States had no disposition to interfere with the existing relations between Spain and her colonial possessions on this continent, believing that in due time Spain and other European powers would find their interest in terminating those relations. (On the negotiations between the Governments of the United States and Spain, arising out of the Cuban war, *see* SPAIN.)

D

DELANGLE, CLAUDE ALPHONSE, a French jurist, statesman, and cabinet minister, born at Varzy (Nièvre), France, April 6, 1797; died in Paris, December 21, 1869. He, at first, sought to qualify himself to become a teacher, but subsequently studied law with Dupin the younger, and was admitted to the bar in Paris; was elected member of the council of the order in 1831; succeeded to Philip Dupin as director in 1837–'38. He was appointed advocate-general to

the Court of Cassation in 1840, and in 1847 became *Procureur-Général* to the Royal Court of Paris, and managed several very important political causes in that capacity. At the election of 1846 he was elected a member of the Chamber of Deputies from Cosnes (Nièvre), in spite of a very strong opposition, and in the Chamber ranked as a Conservative. After the revolution of February, 1848, M. Delangle was deprived of his governmental appointments, and returned to the bar. He now embraced the cause of Louis Napoleon, and in 1850 was appointed by him President of the Bureau of Judiciary Assistance to the Court of Cassation. At the time of the *coup d'état* (December 2, 1851), he was a member of the Consultative Commission, and soon after was appointed by Louis Napoleon President of the Section of the Interior, of Public Instruction and Worship in the Council of State. He was also one of the commissioners chosen to represent the Government in the deliberations of the Senate relative to the establishment of the empire. At the beginning of 1852 he was restored to the magistracy, at first, as *Procureur-Général* of the Court of Cassation, in place of M. Dupin, resigned. On the 30th of December, 1852, he was appointed First President of the Imperial Court of Paris, and the next day created a Senator. He became also President of the Municipal and Departmental Commission of the Seine, and member of the Imperial Council of Public Instruction. On the 5th of June, 1858, he was called to succeed General Espinasse in the Ministry of the Interior, from which office the additional duties of Ministry of General Safety were then withdrawn. On the 5th of May, 1859, he passed from this office to the Ministry of Justice, with the title of Keeper of the Seals. He resigned this office June 23, 1863, and in October following succeeded M. Roland as first Vice-President of the Senate. He was elected in March, 1859, a member of the Academy of Moral and Political Sciences. He was made a Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor by the Emperor in 1864. M. Delangle retained his position in the magistracy till his death. He was the author of an able "Treatise on Commercial Societies (2 vols., 8vo, 1843), and of numerous articles on legal topics in the *Gazette of the Tribunals*.

DELAWARE. Public affairs in this State have been quiet in 1869, and little has transpired worthy of record. There has been no political canvass or election held during the year. The Legislature, which meets biennially, was in session from the first Tuesday in January until the 9th of April, when it adjourned, making one of the longest sessions that there has been for many years. A very large proportion of the measures acted upon were not of general importance. The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States having been submitted to the Legislature, its ratification was rejected by a vote of 7 to 2 in the Senate, and 21 to 0 in the House. The most important measure passed at this session was the "Act providing revenue for the State," which was intended to secure means for payment of the interest on the funded debt, and for the support of the State government. The bill imposes the following taxes:

1. On all sales over $1,000 per annum, less commissions, freights, and United States tax, one-tenth of one per cent., payable quarterly.
2. On manufactures, the same rate, with an allowance for the same deductions.
3. On various law processes, recording deeds, registering wills, etc.; various additional fees varying from twenty-five cents to five dollars.
4. On foreign insurance companies, two and a half per cent. on the premiums received, payable quarterly; on home companies, one-half of one per cent., payable yearly.
5. On corporations (except banks, railroad, canal, and insurance companies, and loan associations), one-fourth of one per cent. on the cash value of their capital.
6. On private bankers and brokers, and real-estate agents, two per cent. on their annual receipts for brokerage and commissions.
7. On building and loan associations, one-fourth of one per cent. on gross receipts.
8. On all collateral inheritances, legacies, and distributive shares, over $500, one and a half per cent.
9. On judgments, mortgages, bonds, stocks, in foreign corporations, one-fourth of one per cent.

Provision is made for the appointment by the Governor of an assessor for each county, to assess the tax; and for its collection by the State Treasurer or his deputies. The provisions of the bill occasioned no little dissatisfaction in some parts of the State, and several remonstrances against its enactment were presented to the Legislature, to the effect, that the tax on the manufacturing interests of the State was excessive and would give a great advantage to the manufactures of the adjacent States; that the tax of one-half of one per cent. on bonded and other indebtedness would cause capitalists to seek other markets for investment; and, that the provisions of the bill were unjust, as it did not impose a tax upon the landed interest of the State.

Tax bills were passed imposing upon all railroad and canal companies in the State, "in addition to the tax now imposed upon them," a tax of three per cent. upon their net earnings, inside of the State, one hundred dollars a year for each locomotive, twenty-five dollars for each passenger-car; and ten dollars for each freight-car; also, a tax of one-fourth of one per cent. on the cash value of the stock of banks.

A Woman's Suffrage Convention was held at Wilmington in November, for the purpose of forming a State society, to advocate the principles of this cause. There was a good attendance of men and women, many of whom were

prominent in the movement in favor of woman's rights. The objects and sentiments of the convention were expressed in the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Believing that "governments derive their just powers from the consent of the governed," that "all political power inheres in the people," men and women, and that "taxation without representation is tyranny:" therefore

1. *Resolved*, That we demand suffrage for the women of Delaware on equal terms with men, as their natural right—because women are human beings, capable of rational choice, and tax-paying citizens of a free country entitled to a voice in making the laws they are required to obey.

2. *Resolved*, That the women of Delaware need suffrage in order to reform the unjust laws which now oppress them as wives, mothers, and widows, in order to obtain equal educational and industrial advantages.

3. *Resolved*, That society needs the votes of women, because, as a class, women possess peculiar mental and moral characteristics which should be represented in the Government, and because their votes will promote peace, purity, temperance, economy, and public order.

4. *Resolved*, That we will petition the Legislature to give to the wives of Delaware the right to their own earnings; to the management, use, and enjoyment, of their own property; the right to make a will; an equal share with their husbands in the legal guardianship and control of their children, and, as a security of all rights, the right of suffrage for women.

Believing the foregoing statements to be self-evident, founded in justice, truth, and the revelation of the Divine will, concerning human rights and privileges,

Resolved, That we proceed to form a Delaware State Woman's Suffrage Association, auxiliary to the American Woman's Suffrage Association, under the following rules and regulations:

1. Believing in the natural equality of the two sexes, and that women ought to enjoy the same legal rights and privileges as men; that as long as women are denied the elective franchise they suffer a great wrong, and society a deep and incalculable injury; the undersigned agree to unite in an Association to be called "The Delaware Woman's Suffrage Association."

2. The object of this Association shall be to procure the right of suffrage for women, and to effect such changes in the law as shall place women in all respects on an equal legal footing with men.

3. The officers of the Society shall be a President, Vice-Presidents, a Treasurer, a Corresponding and a Recording Secretary, and an Executive Committee of not exceeding fifteen persons, besides the President, Secretaries, and Treasurer, who shall be members *ex officio*. All the officers shall be chosen at the annual meeting, to continue in office for one year, or until others are chosen in their places.

4. Any person may be a member of the Association, by the payment of an annual contribution to its funds, or a life member by the payment of twenty dollars.

5. The President and other officers shall perform the customary duties of their respective offices.

6. The Executive Committee shall audit the accounts of the Treasurer, and manage the business of the Association; they may elect honorary members, call meetings of the Society, prepare petitions to the Legislature, issue publications, and employ lecturers and agents, and take any measures they think fit to forward the objects of the Association, and may fill all vacancies that occur prior to the annual meeting.

7. The annual meeting of the Association shall be held at such time and place as the Executive Committee may appoint.

The public schools of Delaware are not in a satisfactory condition, and the efforts which have been made to secure a public-school system adequate to the wants of the State have not been successful. At a general convention of those interested in the cause of education, held at Dover, in December, 1867, a committee was appointed to prepare a report upon the needed reforms in the school system. This committee reported in the autumn of 1868, and, among the changes suggested, the appointment of a State Superintendent was urged, as well as that of a superintendent for each county. The committee further recommended a change in the mode of levying school-taxes, which at present depends upon the vote of each school at each spring meeting. The committee were of opinion that this tax should be levied by commissioners in each hundred or town.

It is to be hoped that these and other reforms will be made at an early day, that the rising generation of Delaware may enjoy the advantages of good common schools.

Notwithstanding the influence of public opinion against the pillory and whipping-post, this mode of punishment still exists as one of the institutions of Delaware. A public exhibition of this kind was witnessed at Newcastle, in November of this year, when five colored persons were punished by the lash and the pillory, in presence of a large number of spectators. This institution is condemned by an enlightened public opinion, and it is to be hoped that the day is not far distant when it will be abolished in the only State where it now exists.

There has been a great improvement in the railroad facilities of Delaware during the year, and other important improvements are in contemplation. The Maryland and Delaware Railroad has been completed to the thriving town of Easton, in Talbot County; the Dorchester and Delaware Railroad has been extended from Seaford to Cambridge, in Dorchester County; and a branch road has been constructed from Townsend Station, on the Delaware River, to Massey's Cross-roads, in Maryland. The Junction and Breakwater Railroad has been completed to Lewes, its terminus.

But the most important event in the extension of railroads for the year has been the completion of the Wilmington and Reading Railroad to Coatesville, a point on the Pennsylvania Central Road, and about thirty miles from Wilmington. The construction of this railroad is to be pushed rapidly forward to its terminus.

DENMARK, a kingdom in Europe. King, Christian IX., born on April 8, 1808; succeeded King Frederick VII. on November 15, 1863. Heir, Prince Frederick, born June 3, 1843; married to Princess Louisa of Sweden, on July 28, 1869. Area of Denmark Proper, 14,698 English square miles; of the dependencies, Faroe, Iceland, Danish settlements in Greenland, the islands of St. Croix, St. Thomas,

and St. John, in the West Indies, 40,214 square miles. Minister of the United States in Denmark, George H. Yeaman, appointed in 1865. Minister of Denmark in the United States, F. E. de Bille, appointed in 1867. The population of Denmark, according to the official census of 1860, was 1,608,095; in 1868 it was estimated at 1,753,787. The population of the Danish dependencies, in 1860, was 108,983. In the budget for the year 1869–'70 the revenue is estimated at 22,039,891 rix-dollars; the expenditures at 22,358,024. The public debt, on March 31, 1869, amounted to 119,141,100 rix-dollars. The army,* in 1868, was composed as follows:

	First Call (Line and Reserve).		Second Call.	
	Officers.	Men.	Officers.	Men.
Infantry	730	26,750	235	9,396
Cavalry.....	126	2,122	..	..
Artillery....	139	6,523	23	1,540
Engineers ..	36	580	22	740
Total.....	1,031	35,975	280	11,676

On a war footing the army numbered 49,008.

The fleet, at the close of 1868, consisted of 31 steamers, inclusive of 6 iron-clads, with an aggregate of 312 guns, 2 sailing-vessels, 27 gunboats, and 29 transports.

The movement of shipping in 1867–'68 was as follows:

	Vessels.	Lasts.
Domestic Navigation....	46,864	305,339
Foreign Navigation.....	38,084	535,615

The number of foreign vessels taking part in the domestic navigation was 1,592, or 3.6 per cent., and of those taking part in the foreign navigation 20,216, or 53.1 per cent.

The merchant navy, on March 31, 1868, consisted of 3,132 vessels, together, of 87,777 lasts. The number of steamers, in 1868, was 80.

In November, 1868, both Houses of the Rigsdag adopted a law which permits the establishment of free religious congregations.

On the 11th of January the Landsthing voted the total exemption of the clergy from military duties.

On the 19th of January the Minister of Justice, in reply to an interpellation, stated that nothing in the laws of Denmark forbids Jews from holding a judicial position.

On the 4th of February the Folkething agreed to the bill, already ratified by the Landsthing, to raze the fortress of Nyborg.

The Diet was closed on the 27th of February.

On the 1st of March, the decision of the trial of the Duke of Glucksburg against the state was promulgated. The state government was declared to be obliged to pay every year to the Duke 17,006 thalers, and to his younger brothers 1,006 thalers each from January 1, 1869, from the Ploen "Equivalent money."

* *See* the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1867, for an account of the military law of 1867; the latest statistics of the value of imports and exports; and an account of the present constitution.

On the 4th of July a Scandinavian meeting, attended by upward of ten thousand Swedes, Danes, and Norwegians, took place in the park of the Royal Palace of Fredericksburg, about twelve miles north of Copenhagen. The Scandinavian societies of Denmark and Sweden had sent invitations to all parts of Scandinavia, and the most distant places sent representatives to the meeting. A journalist came from Trondhjem, at the extreme north of Norway, a peasant from a village on the western coast of Jutland, and Schleswig was represented by three well-known Danes from Flensburg. A great number of speeches in Danish, Norwegian, and Swedish, were delivered, in which the necessity of a political union between Sweden and Denmark was dwelt upon as the only means of protecting those countries against the attacks of their powerful neighbors. It was also urged that the greatest possible development should be given to both the military and naval forces of Scandinavia. A Swede spoke warmly in favor of the people of North Schleswig, and one of the delegates from that country declared that the North-Schleswigers would "never cease to appeal to The Treaty of Prague as the guarantee of their rights, and to demand reunion with Denmark, trusting that they would be supported in this demand by their Scandinavian brothers."

DERBY, EDWARD GEOFFREY STANLEY, fourteenth Earl of, K. G., an English statesman and orator, born at Knowsley Park, Lancashire, March 29, 1799; died at Knowsley Park, October 23, 1869. He was educated at Eton, and Christ Church College, Oxford, distinguishing himself at college for his classical attainments, and gaining, in 1819, the Chancellor's prize for Latin verse, his subject being "Syracuse." Immediately after attaining his majority he entered political life, having been returned to Parliament for Stockbridge in 1820. It was not, however, till four years after his first election to the House of Commons that he ventured to address that body; but his maiden speech stamped him at once as an orator of no ordinary powers, its effort eliciting a warm eulogium from that fine scholar, Sir James Mackintosh, then one of the most distinguished members of the House. The second speech, delivered in opposition to a measure of the celebrated economist, Joseph Hume, proposing certain reforms in the Irish Church Establishment, was equally felicitous, and, following it up by several others of like ability, he soon established his fame as one of most accomplished and effective debaters in the British Legislature. His great powers, and the brilliant success he had achieved as parliamentary orator, combined with his high rank, soon won him the post of Under Secretary for the Colonies in the Administration of Lord Goderich. This position did not afford much scope for the exercise of his extraordinary talents; but he turned it to good account in familiarizing himself with the routine work

of the Executive Government. In 1830 he became Chief Secretary for Ireland, and it is from this period that his fame as a statesman dates. Ireland was at that time in a highly-excited state. Only the year before the great measure of Catholic Emancipation had been carried; and Daniel O'Connell, then in the zenith of his fame, had just taken his seat in the House of Commons, flushed with victory, and bent upon accomplishing, if possible, a repeal of the Union. The new secretary found himself confronted by difficulties of the most threatening character; but, according to the principles and policy which then prevailed in the government of Ireland, he proved fully equal to the occasion. He opposed O'Connell's repeal agitation with all his might, the encounters between him and the great Irish orator in the House of Commons, night after night, being often of the most exhausting character; but while he thus showed himself not afraid to offend the national party, of which his distinguished adversary was the idolized leader, he, at the same time, brought forward and succeeded in carrying several measures calculated to give effect to the Catholic Emancipation scheme, while, at the risk of giving mortal offence to the Protestant part of the population of Ireland, he did not hesitate at suppressing the Orange lodges. In the terrible struggle which preceded the passing of the first Parliamentary Reform Bill, in 1832, Mr. Stanley took an active and prominent part, his genius for debate shining forth with dazzling brilliancy in these desperate encounters, between the advocates of the measure and its opponents, which marked the progress of the bill. His brilliant eloquence and his sympathies in this whole struggle were dedicated to the cause of popular liberty, although he was a member of one of the oldest patrician families of England, and the heir not only of a great name, but of the most intensely aristocratic and conservative traditions. But he did not allow the excitement of the Reform movement to distract his attention from his proper work as Secretary for Ireland, and he signalized his administration by two bold measures—one for national education in that part of the kingdom, and another relative to the Irish Church temporalities, which resulted in ten bishoprics being abolished. The grievance of Church rates was also removed, and a graduated tax upon benefices and bishoprics substituted. But another work was before Mr. Stanley, the accomplishment of which must be regarded as constituting by far his best title to an enduring fame. In 1833 he became Secretary of State for the Colonies, as the successor of Lord Glenelg. The question of the emancipation of the slaves in the British West Indies was then agitating the public mind and exercising the national conscience to an extraordinary degree. The antislavery labors of men like Buxton and Clarkson, and the captivating and effective eloquence of Wilberforce, had prepared the way for the performance of a great act of justice on the part of England toward the cruelly-oppressed children of Africa in her colonial possessions; and it fell to Mr. Stanley's lot, as Colonial Minister, to introduce in the House of Commons a measure for the abolition of negro slavery in the British dominions. It is alleged, indeed, by his friends, that he sought a place in the Cabinet and the Colonial secretaryship for the purpose of introducing this measure. It encountered, of course, violent opposition from the West India interest; but, entering with characteristic ardor upon its advocacy, he excelled himself in the oratorical encounters he was called upon to sustain in that House, during the progress of the measure, his great powers never appearing to greater advantage, nor commanding so profound an homage from both friends and foes, as when he put them forth in pleading the cause of the deeply-injured blacks. He succeeded in carrying his bill, which provided for the complete emancipation of the slaves after a short term of years, awarding the planters, at the same time, a compensation of twenty millions sterling for the loss of their human chattels. With the passage of the Emancipation Bill the most stirring and the most distinguished period of the late Earl of Derby's career came to a close. The remembrance of his lineage and the conservative traditions which he had hitherto resisted began to exert their influence over him; he began to feel that he was in danger of going too far in the path of reform, and drew back into the ways and channels of thought and action to which his birth and early associations naturally led him. From the hour of his great triumph, he became more and more wedded to conservatism to the close of his life. It was not long after the memorable triumph which he had gained in the emancipation question, before he separated from the party with which he had steadily acted from his entrance in the political arena. The occasion of this separation was the success of Mr. Ward's motion for appropriating the surplus of the Irish Church temporalities to secular purposes, a measure to which he offered the most determined opposition, withdrawing from the Grey ministry in 1834, in consequence of his hostility to this motion, and refusing, on conservative grounds, to enter Sir Robert Peel's Cabinet, which succeeded that of Earl Grey in 1834. For seven years he remained in opposition, gradually becoming the recognized chief of the Conservative party, to whom his great abilities strongly commended him. In 1841 he accepted the seals of the Colonial Office under the Peel ministry of that date; in September, 1844, he was called to the House of Peers as Baron Stanley of Bickerstaffe. Sir Robert Peel's abandonment of his party on the Corn Law question led to the withdrawal of Lord Stanley from the Cabinet, and he became the leader, in the Lords, of the Protectionists,

Lord George Bentinck and Mr. Disraeli discharging a similar duty in the House of Commons. In 1851, on the death of his father, he succeeded to the earldom, and in 1852, on the resignation of Lord John Russell as Premier, he was called upon by the Queen, for the first time, to form a government, which he did. But he held the reins of power for only ten months, having found it impossible, with a Cabinet so intensely Conservative and Protectionist as that he had constructed, to command a majority in the House of Commons. During this short term of office, however, he was instrumental in carrying those measures of chancery reform which have proved of such signal benefit to the English people, and in forming that alliance between England and France from which such important results to both countries have already flowed. On the fall of the coalition ministry in January, 1855, Lord Derby declined to undertake the duties of Government, on the ground that the only ministry he could have formed would have been dependent for existence on the forbearance of foes. In 1858, upon the resignation of the Palmerston ministry, he again became First Lord of the Treasury; but his Government having been beaten in the House of Commons on a measure of parliamentary reform brought forward by them, he dissolved Parliament, and appealed to the country, only to find the new House more opposed to him than the old one, leaving him no alternative but resignation. As his overthrow in the first instance was brought about principally through his avowed determination to restore the Corn Laws, so this time it was hastened by his apparent sympathy with Austria on the Italian question. Again, however, he signalized his administration by achievements which will live in English history, foremost of which was, this time, the pacification of India after the mutiny, and the reorganization of the government of that vast dependency. After another seven years' exclusion from office, Lord Derby, for the third time, became Prime Minister in June, 1866, after the fall of the Russell-Gladstone Ministry, retaining office till the new Parliament, elected on the issue of the Irish Church Disestablishment question by a decisive majority, sealed the fate of his Government at the commencement of the late session. His third and last term of office will, like the two preceding ones, be memorable for the accomplishment of a great work, destined to exercise a powerful influence on the national fortunes. This time his Government carried a measure establishing household suffrage; not, however, from any sincere desire to see the area of popular rights extended, but in order to prevent a revolution that would have given a rude shock to the English throne. As an orator and debater, Lord Derby stood in the first rank. Lord Macaulay remarked that his knowledge of the science of parliamentary debate, at the very outset of his career, resembled an instinct, and that it would be difficult to name any other debater who had not made himself a master of his art at the expense of his audience. He was of commanding presence and an ardent nature, rapid in speech when excited, impetuous in attack, and with a voice which, when elevated, rang out like the tones of a trumpet. His remarkable classical attainments, which won him such high honors in his university course, were never suffered to become rusty. Many of his most eloquent speeches were garnished with appropriate and beautiful classical allusions, and the great literary labor of his later years was a translation of the "Iliad" in blank verse, published in 1865, and which is admitted by critics generally to be the finest English version of the great epic. In 1852 he was elected Chancellor of the University of Oxford, and devoted much time and thought to the interests of that ancient seat of learning. In his private life the Earl was genial upon occasion, witty and sarcastic, and, though mindful of his aristocratic birth and lineage, considerate and thoughtful in his intercourse with those in inferior station, a good and just landlord in general, though sometimes inclined to be stubborn where he deemed his rights concerned. He was often imperious, sometimes high-handed in his measures, but never mean. He was, indeed, the soul of honor in all the relations of private life.

DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE AND FOREIGN RELATIONS. The correspondence between the Department of State and our representatives at foreign posts during the year developed but little of general interest. The rejection by the Senate of the text of the treaty on the subject of the Alabama claims, negotiated by Lord Clarendon and Mr. Johnson (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, p. 216) led to further correspondence between the representatives of the United States and Great Britain without eliciting any new points, or resulting in any definite arrangement for the settlement of the questions in dispute.

The U. S. Government was frequently approached by agents or alleged ministers acting in behalf of the Cubans, desiring the recognition of belligerent rights; in other words, that they be placed on the same national footing as Spain. The Government was also asked to follow the example of Mexico and Peru, and other South American Republics, and officially encourage the Cubans in their struggle against Spain. The reasons for not acquiescing in such appeals were stated to be based upon the law of nations, the condition of the island not justifying, in the opinion of the Administration, the recognition of the Cuban flag; and no satisfactory evidence being produced to show that there was a *de facto* government of the Cubans possessing the powers essential to its maintenance and character.

The sympathy of the Government was al-

ways with the Cubans; but this, under the peculiar existing circumstances attending the question, could not be distinctly manifested by official acts in connection with movements in the field. It is said, however, that the Government sought to induce Spain to consent to the independence of the island, and thus avoid further bloodshed.

There was not, as has been frequently stated, any offer of "mediation" by Minister Sickles, as the use of that word would imply or suggest the existence of war between equally recognized powers, and was therefore avoided in the correspondence and interviews with the Spanish Government. The "good offices" of the United States were tendered, as they can always be employed between parties, one of whom is not acknowledged by the other, without the implication of any recognition of nationality, or even of belligerency. This offer was refused by Spain in a note stating that, while it was deemed impolitic to entertain the proposition for parting with the Island of Cuba on the terms suggested, the Regent nevertheless expressed his thanks to the United States for the tender of their friendly offices. The tender having been declined, the note was withdrawn, in conformity with diplomatic usage.

Two American citizens, Charles Speakman and Albert Wyeth, having unintentionally become identified with an expeditionary force sailing from the United States to Cuba, in the schooner Grapeshot, they being under the impression that the destination of the vessel was Jamaica, and having embarked for that island, were brutally murdered by the Spanish authorities after having given themselves up. The United States Government demanded of the Spanish Government reparation for the families of Speakman and Wyeth, as far as pecuniary compensation could make reparation for such unjustifiable action, and which reparation was promptly promised.

DOMINION OF CANADA. It will be remembered that, when we last wrote respecting this Confederation, it had not yet reached the extent proposed by its projectors, the Government of Great Britain and Ireland. The Union then consisted of the Provinces of Canada, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick. The same limits still exist, the efforts made during the past year to extend them not having been at all successful. The Legislature of Newfoundland agreed to certain terms of admission proposed by the Dominion Government, but upon the question being referred to the inhabitants of the island, at a general election in November last, an overwhelming majority decided in the negative. Neither has the Northwest Territory been secured. Negotiations between the Hudson's Bay Company and the Dominion have, with the aid of the Imperial Government, so far succeeded that the former agreed to surrender all its rights, real and assumed, for the sum of $1,200,000; and it was arranged that this amount should be paid, and a legal transfer of the territory made on the 1st day of December, 1869. For reasons that, no doubt, to them seemed good, the authorities of the Dominion resolved that the Lieutenant-Governor of the new territory should be at the seat of his future government in advance of that date, and accordingly the Hon. William McDougall, C. B., the gentleman so appointed, took his departure from the capital of the Dominion early in November last, accompanied by certain officials selected because of their services in Ontario and Quebec, and who, like their chief, would enter the Northwest country utter strangers to its people. It is now generally known that Mr. McDougall was prevented from entering upon the duties assigned to him; that he was almost immediately met by a body of armed men who took possession of a fort which he had entered, and obliged him to fall back upon United States territory; that these insurgents, so called, next seized upon Fort Garry, and finally established a provisional government, which is still in power.

Immediately upon the news of this state of affairs reaching the Dominion Government, the proper authorities in England were commanded by telegraph not to pay the stipulated sum to the Hudson's Bay Company—a proceeding which clashed rather awkwardly with the subsequent act of Mr. McDougall in issuing a proclamation in the name of her Majesty the Queen, making it known: "That we have seen fit by our royal letters patent, bearing date the 29th September, year of our Lord 1869, to appoint the Hon. William McDougall, of the city of Ottawa, in the Province of Ontario, in our Dominion of Canada, and a member of our Privy Council for Canada, and Companion of the most noble order of the Bath, on, from, and after a day to be named by us for the admission of Rupert's Land and our Northwestern Territory aforesaid into the Union of the Dominion of Canada, to wit: on, from, and after the first day of December, in the year of our Lord 1869, to be, during our pleasure, Lieutenant-Governor of the Northwestern Territory."

It has not transpired what measures are in contemplation at Ottawa—whither Mr. McDougall returned after a few weeks—consequent upon this disaster; but so serious is the affair regarded in England, that the London *Times*, in concluding an elaborate article upon it, observes that "the statesmen of the Dominion will have need of all their skill and caution, as well as courage, if they wish to unite the whole of British North America into a single state." With regard to the outlying colonies of British Columbia in the West, and Prince Edward's Island in the East, it is also uncertain how far they are willing to be incorporated.

In the case of the latter colony, a special effort toward conciliation has just been made. On the 14th December, 1869, a report of the Privy Council at Ottawa was approved by his

Excellency the Governor-General, submitting as a basis of admission into the Union not only the several advantages offered to the other Provinces, but also a proposition for relieving the inhabitants from a burdensome and vexatious land tenure, arising from the fact, as stated by the report, "that the lands of the colony had been granted by the Imperial Government in large blocks, and chiefly to persons resident abroad, from whom many of the settlers can only obtain land on lease instead of by purchase, as in the other British North American colonies." The mode of relief is thus stated: "That, in the event of the island becoming part of the Union, the Government of the Dominion will endeavor to secure for the island from the Imperial Government fair compensation for the loss of Crown lands; that, should the Dominion Government fail in their efforts to secure such compensation, they will undertake to raise by loan, guaranteed by the Imperial Government, or upon their own securities should such a guarantee be refused, $800,000, and pay the same to the island government, as a compensation for the loss of such Crown lands, this sum to be in addition to the other sums mentioned in the preceding proposals; that the Dominion Government will also use their influence to secure such legislation as will enable the government of the island to purchase the land now held in large blocks, upon terms just and equitable to all parties concerned."

It is generally felt that the freedom with which a class of writers in England have, of late, discussed the question of a peaceful severance of the British colonies from the parent state has had certain effect in retarding the completion of the Dominion. A sentence from one of them—Mr. Dilke, a member of the Imperial Parliament—in speaking of the peculiar position of British Columbia, is noteworthy: "For purposes of reënforcement, immigration, and supply, at a distance of not less than twenty thousand miles from home, the Pacific colonies can scarcely be considered strong in their allegiance to the Crown." The friends of Confederation are well pleased that discontent has ceased in Nova Scotia; but many able men are of opinion that peace was procured at no less a cost than a slight shock to the Constitution. The terms of reconciliation agreed to by Mr. Howe, and adopted by the Federal Parliament, included an annual subsidy of $80,000 for ten years, to the hitherto recalcitrant Province: the constitutional act, however, states explicitly the conditions upon which each Province is to enter the Union, and, as no express power is given to the local Parliaments, or to either of them, to make alterations, it is contended that the change in favor of Nova Scotia contains the elements of a dangerous precedent. Nor is this the only intimation the Canadians have received that the form of trouble known as "State rights" is inevitable under this new system of government. There has been already more than one case of "disallowance" by the Federal authorities of acts passed by the inferior Legislatures, and hence it may be presumed, from the public announcement we have just read, that in the next session of the Federal Parliament a law will be passed authorizing the establishment of a Superior or Supreme Court for the Dominion.

Socially and materially Canada may be said to be a prosperous country. The public journals told of cases of gross crime committed during the past year, but comparatively it is a moral country. Nowhere do the clergy of all denominations work more faithfully, with less acrimony toward each other, or with better general results; and education, now universally admitted to be the appointed handmaid of religion, is nobly provided for. According to the last official report, there were in the Province of Ontario 4,406 common schools, of which 3,912 are entirely free, while in the remaining 594 the highest charge is 25 cents per month. The expenditure stated in this report—$1,478,188—shows an increase on that of the previous year of $85,955. There are also 106 grammar-schools, where nearly 6,000 pupils are grounded in Latin, Greek and French; arithmetic, algebra, and Euclid; ancient and modern history; the elements of natural history, natural philosophy, and geology; physiology, chemistry, book-keeping, drawing, and vocal music. There is a Normal School at Toronto, in which 800 teachers are annually trained; and, established in various parts of the Province, are 28 private schools and academies, and 16 colleges, including 5 universities. In 1868 the number of college students was 1,931; and, besides fees of $53,000, the institutions had a collective income, from legislative and other sources, of $159,000. The latest official accounts published show that in the Province of Quebec there were 3,902 elementary schools, in which nearly 215,000 pupils were being taught reading, writing, simple and compound arithmetic, book-keeping, geography, history, French and English grammar; three normal schools; two universities, one Catholic and one Protestant, and several minor colleges, the aggregate revenue of which, irrespective of fees, was computed to exceed $200,000 per annum. In the other provinces of the Dominion the provisions for education are known to be proportionately extensive and efficient.

The first financial year of the Dominion ended on the 30th of June, 1868. According to the public accounts of this year, submitted to Parliament in May, 1869 (and then for the first time published), the "ordinary revenue" was $18,716,786.72; "ordinary expenditure," $18,366,490.55. Of the revenue the large figure of $8,624,318.42 was derived from customs duties. The assets of the Dominion are shown to be $93,518,129.12. The liabilities, $94,434,443.74. The first annual statement of the trade and navigation returns of the Do-

minion, and the only one yet published, gives the total volume of trade, for 1867–'68, as $131,027,532—viz.: imports, $73,459,644; exports, $57,567,888. The banking interests of the country are also reported to be in a most satisfactory state. Indeed, money, especially in the West, is accumulating faster than investments can be procured. The rate of interest on mortgages has consequently so much declined, that it is now difficult to obtain more than seven per cent. The paid-up banking capital of the Dominion for 1869 is given as $32,323,739; circulation, $8,832,205; discounts, $56,346,955. There are also not less than $8,000,000 in savings-banks in the several Provinces, besides $1,322,629 savings in charge of building-societies. Many of the savings-banks in Ontario and Quebec were established by and are under the charge of the Government—known as post-office savings-banks.

In the session of the Dominion Parliament which terminated in June, 1869, an attempt was made to effect a fundamental change in the banking and currency system of the country. The general features of the proposed scheme, as stated by the Finance Minister, were: "The compelling of all bills issued by the banks to be secured by a deposit of Government securities, the declaring such bills to be legal tenders, and the compelling of reserves to be held for the security of depositors—the whole being modelled on the American national system." The influence brought to bear upon Parliament by the bankers throughout the Dominion obliged the Government, after a lengthened debate, to withdraw the measure; but, as it is known that the newly-appointed Finance Minister, Sir Francis Hincks—a man of singular energy and ability—entertains precisely the same views on the subject as his predecessor, a renewed effort to secure an essentially Dominion currency is expected by all parties.

The field for legislation open to the Federal Parliament of a confederation such as Canada must necessarily be limited. The fact of the Union being still a dependency at once explains this. Hence, in looking over its printed volume of laws, little more is met with than would emanate from a colonial legislature under the ordinary and more simple form. We notice, however, more than one law ranging somewhat beyond this limit. That for the "enfranchisement of Indians" is not less statesmanlike than humane. It enacts, *inter alia*, that "the Governor in Council may, by letter's patent, grant a life estate to an Indian deemed competent, which he may devise to his children, who, in case of his dying intestate, succeed to the fee simple under the law of the Province in which he resided."

A new law on the death-penalty provides that in future "the sentence shall be executed within the prison walls."

The Legislature of the Province of Ontario continues its liberal encouragement to local improvements and to immigration. A Toronto newspaper designates the year just past as "the railway year," quite a number of charters having been granted, and the likelihood being that work in railway-building has thus been secured for years to come. Prominent among, if not the principal of, these projected railways is the "Toronto and Nipissing," narrow gauge, leading northward from the capital of Ontario to and through the new townships, with the possible intention of in time reaching the Northwest Territory, or at least forming a profitable connection with Northwest travel. Special exertions have been made to induce the English immigrant to partake of the advantages of settlement in Ontario, which include free grants of land and the protection of a homestead law. The official figures of last year do not, however, show much result. The total arrivals at four stations—Ottawa, Kingston, Toronto, Hamilton—was 53,281, of which the very large number of 39,899 passed on to the United States, over 18,000 taking the St. Lawrence route, and more than 21,000 that of New York (*via* the Canada Great Western) to the far West of the Republic.

The Legislature of the Province of Quebec has also passed laws to facilitate the settlement of Crown lands, "and in all this legislation," we are told, "immigrants have been placed upon the same footing as the natives of the country." The construction of "colonization roads" appears to be the chief work accomplished so far; and the removal of settlers from the old, overstocked, French districts to the unsettled lands lying farther north is, no doubt, the chief aim. Mr. Secretary Chauveau, in a report bearing date 11th of June, 1869, says: "There was expended during the past eighteen months on colonization roads nearly $67,000; and there was voted, for the ensuing eighteen months, $262,000." Neither the local government of Nova Scotia nor that of New Brunswick seems disposed to coöperate, at present, with the Dominion authorities, or those of the two sister Provinces, in promoting extensive immigration. The Governor of the former Province, in reply to a communication from the Secretary of State, at Ottawa, states that his Council had informed him that they were unable to do so because "of the present financial condition of the Province;" and his Excellency of New Brunswick replied that "the attention of his government has been more especially directed to the object of retaining the young men of the Province at home."

The estimated population of the Dominion at present is about 4,350,000. A regular census will be taken in 1871. The Intercolonial Railway, to connect the maritime Provinces with the western parts of the Union, is in course of construction, and will probably be completed four years hence. This work is regarded by Canadians with a species of national pride; and, although there is great doubt as to whether it can, in any degree, be a commercial success,

its value as an independent means of outlet to the Dominion is obviously great. The political party by which Confederation was inaugurated still holds power in Canada. It claims to be of moderate conservative hue, and was at the outset somewhat of a coalition character; but the latter feature is gradually disappearing, and the wiser men of both sides seem desirous for the early resumption of party government, *pur et simple*, as being the most constitutional, and therefore the most conducive to public security.

The sojourn of Prince Arthur, the third son of her Majesty Queen Victoria, in the Dominion, attached as a lieutenant to the Rifle Brigade, evidently afforded much gratification to the population at large, and, of course, caused unusual enjoyment in the higher and fashionable circles.

DUFF-GORDON, Lady Lucy (*née* Lucy Austin), an English scholar, translator, author, and traveller, born at Weymouth, England, in 1820; died at Cairo, Egypt, July 13, 1869. She was of a literary parentage, her father being Prof. John Austin, the learned writer on jurisprudence, and her mother, Mrs. Sarah Austin, one of the Taylors of Norwich, and alike remembered for her social brilliancy and for her admirable novels. The daughter was carefully educated under her mother's direction, and became an excellent classical scholar, and very thoroughly familiar with the entire range of German literature. She early attracted attention by her admirable translations from the German, publishing, before her marriage (which took place in 1844), several of Niebuhr's German Legends, and a brilliant translation of "The Amber Witch." Her husband, Sir Alexander Duff-Gordon, was, like herself, a proficient in the languages of the Continent, and aided her in her subsequent translations from the German and French. These were very numerous; among them were "The French in Algiers;" an abridgment of "Feuerbach's Criminal Trials;" "Ranke's History of Prussia;" "Stella and Vanessa," from the French of Leon de Wailly; "Ferdinand and Maximilian," by Ranke; "The Village Doctor," by the Countess d'Arbouville; Moltke's "Russian Campaigns of 1828–'29 on the Danube," etc. Her severe literary labors and her natural delicacy of constitution had led, some years ago, to the failure of her health, and symptoms of the pulmonary disease which eventually terminated her life. She was compelled, on account of her health, to take up her residence, some years since, in Egypt, where she took a great interest in the poorer classes, and made herself very useful to them. She was more beloved by them than any other woman of foreign birth, in modern times at least. She had written but two works since 1863: "Letters from the Cape," where she passed one season, in 1864; and "Letters from Egypt," in 1865. Invalid though she was for many years, her joyousness of spirit never forsook her, and her extensive learning, and her gentle, modest, winning ways made her ever a most agreeable companion. As a writer, her style is a model of graceful composition.

DULCE Y GARAY, Domingo, Marquis of Castelflorite and Marshal of Spain, a Spanish soldier and administrative officer, born in the walled town of Sos (*Sotianum Oppidum*), in 1808; died in Madrid, Spain, November 23, 1869. He was of noble parentage, and received an excellent education. On arriving at manhood he entered the military profession, and took part against the Carlists in the civil war. It was not, however, until 1842 that he had an opportunity of distinguishing himself. He was at that time a captain in the Spanish Army, and commanded the palace garrison, numbering 48 men. In order to obtain possession of the Queen's person and destroy Espartero, General Diego Leon, at the head of 1,000 men, attacked the palace. The suddenness of the assault was a surprise to Dulce; but, rapidly regaining his presence of mind, he gathered his little garrison together on the stairs of the building, and after a severe struggle, in which he acted with conspicuous gallantry, succeeded in repulsing Leon with heavy loss. This defence, which has rarely been surpassed in modern days, made his fortune and established his reputation. He was promoted to the position of gentleman of the bedchamber immediately after, and in 1847 was made a brigadier-general of cavalry. Two years after, Queen Isabella promoted him to the rank of field-marshal for further distinguished services against the Carlists. He was also appointed to numerous positions of prominence and responsibility, such as commandant of the provinces of Seville and Saragossa, etc. In 1845 he conspired with Marshal O'Donnell in the Vicalvaro insurrection. He was then in command of the cavalry at Madrid, and, using his personal influence with the officers and men, he persuaded them to join him in the revolution. His prompt action in sustaining the Vicalvaro *pronunciamiento* was undoubtedly the event that enabled the Union liberal party to triumph. As might be supposed, he was rewarded by the victorious revolutionists in a manner commensurate with the magnitude of the service. Positions of greater trust were bestowed on him, and he was promoted to the rank of Lieutenant-general in the Spanish Army. For six years General Dulce remained in Spain, and during this time Serrano, now Regent of the kingdom, and then at the head of the Government under Queen Isabella, availed himself of the opportunity offered for introducing reforms in Cuba. He selected Dulce to carry out his policy, and appointed him Captain-General of the island, one of the most valuable and coveted appointments in the gift of the Spanish Government. In 1860 General Dulce arrived at Havana. He at once introduced numerous measures of reform, and before he had been on the island many months he had at-

tained a popularity among the Cubans never before won by any of his predecessors, with a single exception. But, while he thus endeared himself to the natives, he incurred the enmity of the Spaniards, whose hatred of the Cubans and advocacy of absolutism caused them to regard with disfavor the tendency of the Captain-General to establish, even in a modified form, an era of constitutional rule. Many of the obnoxious decrees promulgated by former rulers were revoked, the Cubans were admitted to official positions of responsibility and their liberties generally enlarged. The marriage of Dulce to a native Cuban lady of wealth added no little to the esteem in which he was held by the people. But in course of time the inevitable change in the administration of affairs in the Peninsula was wrought. The Liberal Government resigned in 1864, and Narvaez became the ruler. It was not long after this event that General Dulce was recalled, and General Lersundi appointed to succeed him. He returned to Spain, and was for some time quartered at Madrid. While there the cross of San Hermenegildo, bearing a pension of 600 escudos, was conferred upon him. A few months later he was arrested on suspicion of being engaged with Serrano, Zabala, Cordova, and others in a conspiracy to depose the Queen and place her sister, the Duchess of Montpensier, on the throne, but was long not held in durance. The revolution of 1868 restored him to influence and power. One of the first acts of Serrano, on becoming Regent, was to appoint Dulce again Captain-General of Cuba. His commission bore date in December, 1868. When he reached Havana the insurrection on the island was already organized, and there was no probability of a compromise being accepted by the insurgent leaders. Nevertheless, General Dulce at once made efforts to bring about a restoration of tranquillity. On the occasion of his recall, some years previous, he had, in his farewell proclamation, assured the people that, wherever fate called him, he would remain ever a Cuban. Remembering the assurance that he had then given, he endeavored to stay further effusion of blood, which Lersundi could have prevented had he not been hopelessly deaf to every dictate of sound policy. Commissioners were appointed to confer with Cespedes and other leaders, who rejected every compromise short of the independence of Cuba. Finding no other alternative left him, Dulce prosecuted the war, but, because of his desire to deal mercifully by the insurgents taken prisoners, the volunteers of Havana demanded his resignation, and enforced the demand with the most violent threats. His health was thoroughly undermined, and, sick at heart at his ill success, he bade adieu to Cuba forever, in June, 1869, and reached Madrid almost in a dying condition. He lingered for about four months, but without hope, and perhaps without the desire of recovery.

DUNGLISON, ROBLEY, M. D., LL. D., a distinguished medical professor and author, born in Keswick, Cumberland, England, in 1798; died in Philadelphia, April 1, 1869. He received an excellent academical and professional education in England, graduating M. D., in London, in 1819, and in 1824 was invited to the United States to take part in the establishment of Jefferson's favorite project, the University of Virginia. From his connection with the university there ensued an intimate acquaintance with Jefferson, Madison, and other great men of the past generation, which naturalized him at once in his adopted country, and he thenceforth became in all respects thoroughly American. In 1833 he left the University of Virginia for a chair in the University of Maryland; and when, in 1836, the Jefferson Medical College in Philadelphia was reorganized, he was invited to fill the professorship of Institutes of Medicine. Here he remained for more than thirty years, during a large portion of which time he was Dean of the Faculty; and the extraordinary success of the institution was largely owing both to his attractive courses of lectures and to the remarkable tact and practical sagacity with which he administered its affairs. He kept to his post and faithfully discharged its duties for some years after failing health admonished him to seek the repose he so much needed, and he did not retire until the close of the session of 1868. Widely as Dr. Dunglison was known as a teacher, his reputation as a medical writer was even more extensive. He had commenced his career of authorship even before he left England, by a work on the Diseases of Children, and from that time for forty years his pen was rarely idle. Besides the editorship of "Magendie's Formulary" and the "Cyclopædia of Practical Medicine," of Drs. Forbes, Tweedie, and Connolly, and several smaller works, he was the author of the following valuable medical treatises, over one hundred thousand volumes of which have been sold: "Human Physiology," 2 vols., 8vo, 1832 (dedicated to President Madison); "Dictionary of Medical Science and Literature," 2 vols., 8vo, 1833, and many new editions since, his constant additions and revisions having made it two very bulky volumes; "General Therapeutics and Materia Medica," 1836; "New Remedies," 1839, and many editions since; "Elements of Hygiene and Human Health," 1844, and subsequently several smaller works. In a science so rapidly progressive as that of medicine, even the best books speedily grow out of date, but Dr. Dunglison's industry kept his works on a level with the advance of knowledge, and most of them in repeated editions maintained their position for a period far longer than is generally allotted to the life of a scientific book. His "Medical Lexicon," especially, is one which, after more than thirty years, still holds its place with undiminished popularity. For such

a labor as a dictionary of medical science he was particularly fitted by his close and accurate philological culture, the wideness of his scientific acquirements, and the persevering industry which no labor could appall. It has therefore passed through numerous editions, and, as an acknowledged authority wherever the English language is spoken, it is his appropriate literary monument. Yet the sphere of his activity was by no means confined to professional labor. The wide sympathies of his active intellect led him to assume the presidency of the Musical Fund Society of Philadelphia, and the vice-presidency of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind. To this latter, much of his attention was directed in later years, and he was very successful in promoting the printing of books in raised letters for the use of the blind. In private life Dr. Dunglison was greatly esteemed. He had few superiors in the attraction of his conversation and the charm of his manners, which were those of a thorough gentleman and man of the world. He received the honorary degree of LL. D. from Yale College in 1825.

DUTTON, HENRY, LL. D., a jurist, and formerly Governor of Connecticut, born in Plymouth, Litchfield Co., Conn., Feb. 12, 1796; died in New Haven, April 26, 1869. He was a grandson of Captain Thomas Dutton, of Revolutionary memory. His youth was spent in the cultivation of his father's farm, and in study. Having by dint of great industry, under unfavorable circumstances, qualified himself for admission to college, he entered the junior class at Yale, and there graduated with honor, in 1818. After leaving college, he studied law with the Hon. R. M. Sherman, at Fairfield, supporting himself in the mean time by teaching in the academy of that town. From 1821 to 1826 he was tutor in Yale College, and at the close of that period he established himself in the practice of his profession at Newtown, Connecticut. After remaining here fourteen years, he removed to Bridgeport, and for ten years occupied a leading position at the bar of Fairfield County, being Attorney for the State. Subsequently he was appointed Professor of Law in Yale College, and removed to New Haven, where he continued to reside until his death. He was five times a member of the House of Representatives, and in 1849 was a member of the State Senate. He was also a Judge of the County Court for one year after his removal to New Haven. In 1854 he was elected Governor of Connecticut, which office he held for one year. In 1861 he was appointed Judge of the Superior Court, and of the Supreme Court of Errors, which position he continued to occupy until 1866, when, by reaching the age of seventy years, he became, under the provisions of the constitution, disqualified from longer retaining it. On his retirement from the bench he resumed his practice at the bar, and continued to prosecute it with great assiduity until his failing health compelled him to withdraw substantially from business. Judge Dutton published, in 1833, an analytical digest of the Connecticut Reports and a revision of Swift's Digest, and was a member of the commissions of 1849 and 1866, to whom the General Assembly, in 1847, intrusted the duty of revising the Statutes of the State, and was chairman of the committee which, in 1854, prepared a new compilation of the Statutes of the State.

DYCE, Rev. ALEXANDER, a learned and industrious critic and commentator on the poetic literature of England, born in Edinburgh, June 30, 1798; died in London, May 15, 1869. He was educated in the high-school of his native city, and afterward at Exeter College, Oxford, where he took the degree of B. A. in 1819. He took orders in 1821, and officiated as curate, first at Lanteglos, Cornwall, and afterward at Nayland, Suffolk. His tastes led him to prefer a literary to a clerical life, and in 1827 he abandoned his rural charge and settled in London, where he devoted himself to literary and critical studies. He had already, even while still an undergraduate, been a contributor to the *Gentleman's Magazine*, and other literary periodicals. One of these contributions, published in the *Gentleman's Magazine*, in February, 1818, had for its subject the "Plagiarisms of Lord Byron." His first work after coming to London was a translation of the continuation of the "Iliad," by Quintus Smyrnæus. But, subsequently turning his attention to the previously undeveloped treasures of early English poetry, he determined to devote himself to a critical review and study of the ancient writers. The results of these studies were given to the world in a succession of volumes, comprising the works of George Peele, Robert Greene, John Webster, Thomas Middleton, Beaumont and Fletcher (1843–'45), Kit Marlowe (1849), John Skelton, Sir Henry Wotton, and Michael Drayton. The preparation of an edition of the plays and poems of James Shirley had been undertaken by Gifford, but was left incomplete. This work was taken in hand by Mr. Dyce, and published complete in 1850. All these works manifest by their acute criticisms of the texts, and their happy elucidations or emendations of doubtful and obscure passages, a vast amount of study, and the possession by the editor of remarkable literary acumen. The whole series is much esteemed in England, and has formed the basis of all subsequent editions of these authors. These works, also, have had a beneficial tendency, apart from their direct influence in awakening public attention to the brilliant poetic genius of the older writers. Mr. Dyce, however, did not neglect the writers of a more recent period, having prepared an excellent edition, in three volumes, of the works of the great scholar, critic, and theologian, Dr. Richard Bentley. For Pickering's famous and elegant edition of the "Aldine Poets," Mr. Dyce furnished revised texts of Pope, Collins, Beattie, and Aken-

side, preparing also, in each case, excellent biographical sketches of these writers. Being a member of the Camden Society, he prepared, at their instance, a reprint of Kemp's "Nine Daies Wonder, performed in a Morrice Daunce from London to Norwich," the production of one of the actors contemporary with Shakespeare, which was extremely rare, if not unique. For the Shakespeare Society he edited, in 1842, the old tragedies of "Timon" and "Sir Thomas More," which had undoubtedly furnished to Shakespeare hints for two of his plays. His zeal in regard to the old poets seemed to acquire fresh impetus from these studies; for, in 1840, he was led, in conjunction with Payne, Collier, Halliwell, Wright, and others like himself, zealous Shakespearians and untiring explorers in the mine of old English poetry, to found the Percy Society, the object of which was the publication of the ancient ballads and plays then almost unknown, except to antiquaries. To this society his most remarkable contribution was a monograph of British sonnets, including a large number of exquisite specimens of this peculiar form of poetic art. He also edited for them "The Pleasant History of the Two Angry Women of Abington," written by Henry Porter in 1599; Michael Drayton's "Harmonie of the Church," and poems by Sir Henry Wotton. As a relaxation from other labors he amused himself with the translation of the lyrical fragments of Athenæus, to which he added an elaborate and learned commentary. All these labors, however, were but as the vestibule of his Shakespearian studies and meditations. Of Shakespeare he could say, as Schlegel had said, "He is a poet to the study of whom I have devoted many years of my life. I should never be able to end were I to say all that I felt and thought on the perusal of his works." Every line—nay, almost every word—in the works of the great bard were to him a treasure of study and reflection. His researches in regard to Shakespeare's life, his minute and careful commentaries on the Shakespearian text, exhibited surprising diligence and acuteness, and placed him in the front rank of critics. As the result of his long and careful examination of the plays and poems, he proposed to issue a revised edition of Shakespeare's works, and in 1850 the publication was begun. For this great work he carefully collated all the earliest editions, made great improvements in the punctuation, and proposed some remarkably ingenious emendations of the text. Mr. Dyce inclined to conservatism in this matter; although he did much to restore and purify doubtful passages, he was not disposed to tamper unnecessarily with the text of the first editions, preferring rather to elucidate and explain the work as it has come down to us. This edition was completed in six volumes, the last of them published in 1858. There has been, however, within the past fifteen or eighteen years, much light thrown on many points in the works of Shakespeare, and no one of his many commentators was better prepared than Mr. Dyce to avail himself of it judiciously. This first edition, therefore, was but just completed when Mr. Dyce prepared to go over the same ground with still greater thoroughness and care, and, though we believe no portion of his new revision has yet been published, it is understood to be nearly ready for the press, and will be comprised in nine volumes. Mr. Dyce was not without his literary controversies upon many points in the Shakespeare text, as his sharp criticisms of the editions of Shakespeare by Payne Collier and Charles Knight abundantly testify. One of his latest works is a volume of notes upon the emendations adopted by Collier from the manuscript corrections discovered by that gentleman in the second folio edition of the immortal dramatist, in which he proved that many of the emendations were no better than corruptions of the text. Nor, on the other hand, was he without his charming literary friendships, as his record of the "Table-talk of Samuel Rogers," the banker-poet, proves. He was a man of genial disposition, a good scholar, an ardent lover of poetry in all its forms, but chiefly as it is found crystallized in the magic pages of Shakespeare. His life was passed in ease, in the peaceful incidents of study, and in the happy environment of friends loving and thinking like himself. His death will awaken sympathy among the studious, the reflective, and, above all, among the admirers of the Swan of Avon in both hemispheres.

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EASTERN CHURCHES, or ORIENTAL CHURCHES. The collective name given to a number of churches in Eastern Europe, in Asia, and Northern Africa (Greek, Armenian, Nestorian, Jacobite, Coptic, and Abyssinian), which hold to the doctrine of the apostolic succession of the bishops. The statistics of the Eastern Churches, in 1869, were as follows: Europe (Russia, Turkey, Greece, Austria, North-German Confederation), 69,782,000; Asia (Russia, Turkey, India, Persia, China), 8,486,000; Africa (Egypt), 3,200,000; America (United States, chiefly in Alaska), 10,000—total, 81,478,000.

The reply of the Eastern bishops to the Papal invitation to attend the Œcumenical Council was, generally, unfavorable. When the Council opened on the 8th of December, not a single bishop of any of the Eastern Churches had yet arrived. The arrival of a few was, however, expected. The Roman Catholic Church continues to make some inroads into

the territory of the Eastern Churches, especially in Bulgaria, while the Eastern Church is gaining ground at the expense of the Roman Catholic in Russia. The efforts of the High Church party in the Anglican Church to bring about an intercommunion between the Anglican and the Eastern Churches continues to appear to the friends of the movement as highly encouraging. They regard the correspondence between the Archbishop of Canterbury and the Patriarch of Constantinople, which took place in 1869, as the most important fact in the whole history of the intercommunion movements (*see* ANGLICAN CHURCHES and GREEK CHURCH). There are signs of an increase of mutual friendly sentiments between the several Eastern Churches, which make it probable that their number will ere long be reduced by a fusion.

1. *The Greek Church.*—This is by far the most important of the Eastern communions. We devote to it a special article.

2.—*The Armenians.*—In the preceding volume of the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA it was stated that the Armenian Patriarch of Constantinople (Bogos) had replied to the Pope's letter, inviting him to attend the Œcumenical Council, that he could not answer the letter without consulting his Synod. In consequence of this consultation the Patriarch concluded to refer the matter to the head of the Armenian Church, Kevork IV., the Catholicos of Echmiadzin. The following is the reply of the Catholicos. It is dated February 11, 1869, and first appeared in the *Ararat*, Armenian Church paper of Echmiadzin, which is the official organ of the Catholicos:

To the Right Hon. Archbishop Bogos, Patriarch of Constantinople, our dear brother, greeting:

We have received your letter of the 14th of December last, number 1,417, together with the translation of the letter of his Holiness the Pope, Pio IX., which was sent to you by his Vicar-General in your capital. We have read with attention this letter, of which the purport is: that his Holiness has the intention of convoking, on the 8th of December next, at Rome, a Council, to which he invites you.

Chosen, although unworthy, by the inscrutable will of Providence, to be one of the pastors of the Christian flock, we desire, with all our soul, the unity of the Church; and we offer our vows that peace and charity may reign therein, and may banish the spirit of division; for it is the property only of the enemy of mankind to fight against the unity of the Church. But, in attentively considering the letter of his Holiness Pio IX., we have seen with sorrow that the unity which we desire, which the Saviour of the world desires, and for which He prays to His Father, cannot be attained by the approaching Council.

If Rome desires really the unity of the Christian Church, she ought, as a preliminary, to search out what is the cause of the divided state of the Church; why, united in one faith and one love for the Head of the Church, are the members of the Church disunited among themselves, and whence comes the long-lasting hostility which separates Christians? Is not the cause of this separation, as the whole world knows, the aspiration of the See of Rome to a supremacy over the Sees of the East?

In consequence, they, whose object is the truth, would desire to see his Holiness set himself to work in earnest to get rid of the cause of this separation; to follow in the footsteps of the holy Fathers; and, after having agreed, as it behooves him, with the pastors of the Church of the East, in conformity with canonical decisions, to form a distinct plan as to the questions to be submitted to the Council; and, when these questions have been unanimously approved, to fix the time and place of the Council. However, disregarding what might really conduce to the unity of the Church of Christ, the head of the Roman Church has thought it right to publish an initiative letter of invitation, and to address it to the pastors of the Church, thus giving ground for the supposition that he wishes to set himself up as the supreme head of Christianity; and that he does not recognize the pastors of the Church of the East as his equals in the hierarchy, in jurisdiction, and in the succession of the Apostles, to whom yet the Holy Ghost gave equal power and equal gifts. The Pope proclaims aloud the throne of Rome to be the centre of unity—a doctrine which the Holy and Orthodox Armenian Church cannot admit, which, with the other peoples of the Church of the East, recognizes our Lord and Saviour Jesus Christ as the only Head of the Church.

He who urges the unity of the Church, and leaves on one side that which is an indispensable basis of the Council, separates himself gradually more and more, by the assertion of his imaginary personal authority, from the unity of the Catholic Church; and sets out from principles in opposition to those which are the doctrine of the holy Gospel. To hope for the establishment of true unity is not easy. And will not a way be thus opened for new quarrels, for a discord for which there will be no remedy, for relations still more hostile, which will become a scandal for the world, and an occasion for the denial of the holy Christian doctrine?

Consequently, we, who are unceasingly laboring for the spiritual welfare of the people which God hath confided to us, and who seek to preserve peace in our flock—we, who are justly proud of our Apostolic Church, founded by the holy Apostles Thaddæus and Bartholomew, and by the prayers of St. Gregory the Great, against which the gates of hell have not as yet prevailed; we consider that our duty is, of our independent authority, to prescribe to you, our venerable brother, both to refuse this invitation to the Council which has not a legitimate basis, and to forewarn all the Archbishops and Vicar-Generals of our Church in Turkey, not to give place to misunderstandings and discord.

We shall continue to pray from the depth of our heart, as we have ever done, that Christ, the Saviour of all, the Corner-stone and the Head of the holy Church, who has established peace by His blood-shedding and death on the cross, would call men to the one evangelic doctrine, would keep His Church in peace, and preserve the Armenian people from hidden dangers.

The action of Patriarch Bogos, and his personal disposition to accept the invitation of the Pope, excited considerable opposition among his colleagues, in consequence of which he tendered his resignation. It was accepted by the council, upon which five of the members resigned. Among them was Nerès, Bishop of Haskein.

3. *The Nestorians.*—From a learned essay, recently published on this sect (*Revue Catholique*, 1869) we derive the following information.

The Nestorians derive their origin, their name, and their doctrine, from Nestorius, who became Patriarch of Constantinople about the year 427. He denied the personal union of the two natures in Jesus Christ, holding that the union was only a moral one, of dignity and

authority, like that between a sovereign and his ambassador, who, physically two, are held to be morally one. Nestorius was condemned for his heresy by a council held under the direction of Pope Celestin at Rome, in 430. He and his followers were excommunicated by the Council of Ephesus, in 431; and he was deposed from his seat. This vigorous action repressed his doctrines in the Roman Empire, but they were successfully propagated in the East. Nestorianism was taught in the great Persian school at Edessa, till that institution was overthrown under the Emperor Zeno. Another school was founded at Nisiba, to succeed that at Edessa, and had at the end of the sixth century about eight hundred students. Other celebrated schools were founded at Seleucia and at Doskena. The Nestorians were favored by the Kings of Persia, who found them effective auxiliaries against the encroachments of the Emperors of Constantinople. They possessed all the Episcopal sees, and conferred upon that of Seleucia the title of the Patriarchate of the East. They were likewise favored and endowed with powers and offices under the caliphs, but in Babylonia were occasionally subjected to persecution, though raised above other Christians. The faith was widely diffused. Among the countries in which it grew were Chaldea, Persia, Mesopotamia, Armenia, Syria, Arabia, the Island of Socotra, Bactriana, Tartary, India, Ceylon, and even China, there having been at one time an archbishop at Peking. The period of the decay of the Nestorians commenced in the fourteenth century. The early Mongol emperors favored them, or at least did not obstruct them, but under the later ones they suffered severe persecutions. Tamerlane drove them from nearly all the countries to which they had spread, but Assyria. They were considerably weakened also by conversions to the Roman Catholic doctrines. In 1247 their vicar in China gave his adhesion to the Pope. Several archbishops and bishops followed his example. Fifty years later, Jaballaha, the Patriarch, submitted to the Pope. His successors returned to Nestorianism. In the middle of the fifteenth century the Nestorians of the Island of Cyprus, with their metropolitan, joined the union.

In the middle of the sixteenth century a serious schism occurred, resulting in the elevation of two patriarchs, at Kotchannes, in Koordistan, and at Mosul. Soulaka, of Kotchannes, went to Rome, and abjured Nestorianism, and received consecration and the dignity of Patriarch from Pope Julius III. His successors subsequently returned to their old belief. Popo Gregory XIII. effected a union with the Mosul branch, but they fell away again at the close of the seventeenth century. The patriarch of this line, in 1781, effected a union with the Roman Catholic Church, which has continued to this day. The Nestorians who are in communion with Rome are generally called Chaldeans.

The following are the statistics of the two branches:

Statistics of the Chaldean Bishops (1867).

SEES.	Catholic Population.	Priests.	Schools.	Scholars.
Mosul Patriarchate (Koordistan)	22,036	40	11	1,090
Akra "	2,718	17	1	30
Admedeah "	6,030	10	1	30
Dzezirah "	7,000	15	4	280
Kerkook "	4,000	10	2	160
Seert "	11,000	20	5	400
Zako "	3,000	..	..	.....
Diarbekir (Mesopotamia)	2,000	6	1	60
Mardin "	1,000	2	1	60
Bassak (Irak, Arabia)	1,500	..	..	.....
Kosrava (Persia)	8,000	10	10	380
Sena "	1,000	1	..	.....
Total	70,268	131	36	2,490

Statistics of the Nestorian Bishops (1852).

BISHOPS.	Metropolitans.	Bishops.	Priests.	Churches.
Mar Auraham	1	..	9	13
Mar Jeschoua	1	..	18	20
Buhtan	..	2	16	23
The Patriarch Simon	..	..	62	75
Mar Serghis	1	..	24	87
Mar Siecra	1	..	18	34
Hnan Jeschoua, Ournia, etc.	3	5	44	47
Total	7	7	191	249

Badger, cutting off a third from the numbers furnished him by the Patriarch of Kotchannes, estimates the number of the Nestorians at 70,000. Joseph Audo, actual Patriarch of the United Chaldeans, raises the number to 200,000. M. d'Avril considers this too large, and fixes it at 130,000 in Turkey, and 10,000 in Persia.

Early in 1867, Joseph Audo, the Chaldean Patriarch, addressed a long and pressing letter of invitation to the Nestorian Patriarch, Simeon, to return to the Roman Catholic unity. The latter replied, refusing, as follows:

We cannot dissimulate the surprise we feel at your persistence in holding with the Pope, after the outrages he has perpetrated upon you, and the indifference with which he has treated your pontifical dignity on the occasion of your last voyage to Rome, as we have learned from persons entitled to credit. With such a condition existing, how can you have the heart to propose to us to subject ourselves to the like outrages, to expose ourselves to similar contempt? In this you certainly have not consulted what is proper. As to the other questions which you have taken pains to expose at length, we have not, for the present, any reply to make to you. We have learned of the excesses and the crimes of every kind that have been committed against those of your nation who are established in the villages of the districts of Zakhou and Gazartha; we are informed that these unfortunate people have been pillaged and reduced to slavery by the Koords of those countries. Now, if you cannot protect the children of your own nation, how can you promise help and advantages to those who are strangers to you? And while you yourselves are groaning under the yoke of the Pope, how do you presume to engage men who are yet free to cast themselves into bonds of slavery? You invite me to humbly kiss the slipper of the Bishop of Rome; but

is he not a man in every respect like yourself? Is his dignity superior to yours? Nevertheless, has he not treated you like a criminal? and has he not, before letting you go, exacted from you the assurance that you would not take part any more in the affairs of those of your children who reside in India (Malabar), and whose ancestors were converted to the true religion by the missionaries of our holy Church? You live under the yoke of the cardinals and the reverend fathers (the Dominicans of Mosul); you have put yourself in their hands, and have delivered to their power your people and all your patriarchate, and shift from yourself to them the care of administering it. You, monseigneur, who know all this and the manner in which it has been done, ought not to have written us a letter so prolix in words and so scant of ideas, for we have quite decided not to abandon the religion which we have received from the holy Apostles to embrace yours, which would be to change pure gold for iron. We will never permit to be introduced into our holy temples of worship images and statues, which are nothing but abominable and impure idols. What! shall we attribute to God a mother, as you dare to do? Away from us such blasphemy! Away from us the detestable heresy of Apollinarius, which holds that Divinity has suffered! These doctrines are contrary to the teachings of the holy books; we cannot admit them. May it please God, monseigneur, that we may see you, laying aside the false religion you profess, return to our ancient and true faith! All this I say with friendly feeling toward you, and to recognize the interest you manifest for me, and not with a heart insensible to the troubles which afflict the Church of Christ through the fault of its chiefs and its Pontiffs. But enough of this for your lordship.

(Signed) SIMEON, Patriarch of the East.

Works on the Nestorians.—A. d'Avril, *Étude sur la Chaldée Chrétienne* (Paris, 1864); P. Martin, *La Chaldée* (Rome, 1867).

4. *The Copts.*—The United Presbyterian missionaries at Osiout, Egypt, relate a significant incident, that the Coptic Bishop of Cairo, who is Patriarch and Metropolitan of Egypt, visiting them, did not hesitate to confess privately that he was at heart a Protestant, but was unwilling to say so publicly. About a dozen leading men of Osiout, who are not willing to wait on the service of the missionaries, meet every night, and on Sunday afternoons, and spend three hours each time in the study of the Bible, under the guidance of a convert of the mission.

5. *The Abyssinians.*—The large number of works which have appeared in 1868 and 1869 on Abyssinia, not only add to our knowledge of the political history and the present condition of that country, but also shed much light on the history and the condition of its church, which has heretofore been almost unknown by the remainder of the Christian world. Thus Dr. H. Blank, one of the released captives, publishes, in his work on Abyssinia, a biography of the late head of the Abyssinian Church (Abuna Salama), who died on the 25th of October, 1867, after a long and painful illness. This biography is of the greater interest, as at the close of the year 1869 his see was again to be filled, and as the time is undoubtedly near when the isolation of the Abyssinian Church from the remainder of Christendom will cease. We give a few extracts from this biography, as an important contribution to the recent history of the Eastern Churches:

Abyssinia had been for years without a bishop. Priests could no more be consecrated, nor new churches dedicated to Christian worship, as the ark could not contain the tabot blessed by the bishop of the land. Ras Ali, although outwardly a Christian, and belonging to a converted family, had still too many connections among the Mussulman Gallas, his true friends and supporters, to care for more than an apparent profession of the state religion, and troubled himself very little about the inconvenience to which the priesthood was subjected by the long-continued vacancy of the bishopric.

Dejatch Oubié was at that time the semi-independent ruler of Tigré. From the position of a simple governor he had gradually risen to power, and now at the head of a large army strove for the title of Ras. Though still on apparent terms of friendship with Ras Ali, even to a certain degree acknowledging him as his superior, he was all the while underhand exerting his influence to overthrow the Ras's power in order to reign in his stead. For these reasons he dispatched some of his chiefs, with Monsignor de Jacobis, an Italian nobleman and Roman Catholic bishop at Massowah, to Egypt, to obtain a bishop for the Abyssinian See; and, in order to secure for himself such a powerful weapon as the support of the priesthood, he incurred the heavy expense required for the consecration of an abouna. De Jacobis made strenuous efforts to have a bishop anointed who would favor the Roman Catholics, but he failed, as the Patriarch chose for that dignity a young man who had received part of his education at an English school at Cairo, and whose views were more in favor of Protestantism than of the Copt's long-standing adversary, the Church of Rome. Andraos, this young priest, was only in his twentieth year. When informed that he must leave his monastery and the companionship of the monks his friends, to proceed to the distant and semi-civilized land of Habesch, he firmly declined the honor proposed for him. He requested his superiors to fix their choice on a worthier man, declaring himself unfit for the dignity so suddenly thrust upon him. His objections were not admitted, and, as he still persisted in his refusal, the superior of the convent put him in irons; wherein he should remain, he was told, until he agreed to obey the head of the Coptic Church.

Andraos gave in; and, having been duly anointed and consecrated Bishop of Abyssinia, under the title of Abouna Salama, with all the pomps and ceremonies proper to the occasion, started shortly afterward in an English man-of-war, reaching Massowah in the beginning of 1841.

Dejatch Oubié received him with great honors, added numerous villages and large districts to those the hereditary possession of the bishops, and made every endeavor to attach the bishop to his cause. He succeeded even beyond his expectations. Abouna Salama, instead of needing the persuasions of Oubié to join him in the overthrow of Ras Ali, proposed the attempt. Through his influence Oubié concluded an alliance with Goscho, the ruler of Godjam. The two chiefs agreed to march on Debra Tabor, attack Ras Ali, wrest from him the power he had usurped, and divide the government of Abyssinia, confirming the bishop's alleged rights to a third of the revenue of the land.

Oublé having been captured by Ras Ali, was pardoned, and allowed to return to Tigré, the bishop being answerable for his fidelity. Ras Ali treated the bishop with all respect, fell at his feet, and implored him not to listen to the calumnies of his enemies, assuring him that the Church had no more faithful son than himself nor any more willing to comply with the holy father's wishes. The bishop, now on friendly terms with all parties, and all but

worshipped by them, soon made his authority felt; and, had not Theodore risen from obscurity, Abouna Salama would, no doubt, have been the Hildebrand of Abyssinia.

During the campaigns of Lij Kassa against the ruler of Godjam, and during that period of revolution ending in the overthrow of Ras Ali, Abouna Salama retired to his property in Tigré, residing there in peace under the protection of his friend Oubié. Ever since his arrival in Abyssinia Abouna Salama had shown the bitterest opposition to the Roman Catholics, an enmity not so much engendered by conviction, perhaps, as inflamed by the fact that some of his property had been seized at Jeddah at the instigation of some Roman Catholic priests, who had, through his influence, been plundered, ill-treated, and expelled from Abyssinia. When the intelligence reached the Abouna that Lij Kassa was marching against Tigré, he publicly excommunicated him, on the ground that Kassa was the friend of the Roman Catholics, protected their bishop, De Jacobis, and wanted to subvert in favor of the creed of Rome the religion of the land. But Kassa was a match for the Abouna; he denied the charge, and at the same time stated "if Abouna Salama could excommunicate, Abouna de Jacobis could remove it." The bishop, alarmed at the influence his enemies might possibly obtain, offered to recall his anathema, on condition that Kassa would expel De Jacobis. These terms having been agreed upon, Abouna Salama shortly afterward consented to place the crown of Abyssinia on the usurper's head, and did so in the very church Oubié had erected for his own coronation, under the name of Theodore the Second. Pleased with the bishop's compliance with his wishes, Theodore showed him the utmost respect. He carried his chair, or walked behind him with a lance and shield as if he was nothing but a follower of his, and on all fit occasions fell down on the ground in his presence and respectfully kissed his hand. Abouna Salama for a time believed that his influence over Theodore was as unbounded as it had been over Ras Ali and Oubié. He mistook Theodore's show of humility for sincere admiration and devotion; and the more Theodore seemed disposed to humility, the more arrogant did the bishop publicly show himself. But he had not quite understood the character of the Emperor he had anointed; and, overrating his own importance, made of Theodore at last an open and relentless enemy. The crisis came when Abouna Salama least expected it. One day Theodore went in state to pay him his respects. Arrived at the Abouna's tent, he informed him of his visit; the bishop sent word that he would receive him when convenient, and meanwhile bade him remain without. Theodore complied, but, as time passed and the bishop made no appearance, Theodore walked away, the enemy of his prelate, and burning for revenge.

For years afterward they lived in open enmity, or enmity slightly masked. Each worked hard at the destruction of the other. If Theodore's reign had been a peaceful one, the Abouna would have won the day; but, surrounded as the Emperor was by a large army of devoted followers, he found ready listeners to his descriptions of the bishop's character. Abouna Salama was never very popular; he was, without being a miser, far from liberal. Friendship in Abyssinia means presents; it is accepted as such by all; and every chief, every man of note, who courts popularity, squanders with an unsparing hand. The King naturally took advantage of this want of liberality in the bishop's character, to contrast it with his own generosity. He insinuated that he was only a merchant at heart; that, instead of selling the tribute he received in kind to the people of the country, as was formerly the custom, he sent it by caravans to Massowah, trafficked with the Turks, and hoarded all his money in Egypt. Little by little Theodore worked on the minds of his people, impressing them with the idea that, after all, the Abouna was only a man like themselves; and at least in Theodore's camp the Abouna had already lost much of his prestige, when the Emperor spread the report that his honor had been assailed by the bishop they all worshipped.

Dr. Blank heard from Theodore himself the details of his grievance, which was no less than the seduction of his wife by the Abouna, a story which, in the opinion of Dr. Blank, was an abominable invention.

Abouna Salama lost credit, though, perhaps, few people believed the Emperor's assertion. In public Theodore always still treated him with respect, though not with such a great show of humility as before; but he evidently, for the sake of his people, made a distinction between the official character of the Abouna, respecting it on account of his Christian faith, and his private one, for which he expressed the greatest scorn.

For a long while the question of the Church lands was a great deal discussed between them. Theodore could not tolerate any power in the state but his own. When he thought the occasion favorable to do away entirely with his power and influence, he confiscated all the Church lands and revenues—some of the bishop's hereditary property by the same stroke—and placed himself virtually at the head of the Church. The Abouna's anger knew no bounds. Naturally of a violent temper, he grossly abused Theodore on every occasion. Some of their quarrels were most unbecoming—the intense hatred burning in the prelate's heart showing itself in expressions that ought never to have fallen from his lips. The Bishop of Abyssinia was never tolerant. I have mentioned that toward Roman Catholics he was most intolerant. He persecuted them at every opportunity, and even when himself a prisoner at Magdala he never moved to obtain the release of an unfortunate Abyssinian who had been years before cast into chains at his instigation, for the sole reason that he had visited Rome, and had become a convert there. Toward Protestants he was better inclined; still, he would not hear of "conversions." Missionaries might instruct, but they had to stop there; and when, as it happened, some Jews were made by the teachings of the missionaries to accept Christianity, they had to be baptized and received as members of the Abyssinian Church.

The Abouna left Axazoo with the King's camp after the rainy season of 1864. A serious rebellion had broken out in Shoa, and Theodore was greatly annoyed at the bishop's refusal to accompany him. The Shoa people are of all Abyssinians the most bigoted, and have the greatest regard for their Abouna. With him in his camp many of the opposing chiefs would at once have laid down their arms and returned to their allegiance. But the bishop, who had in view his fertile districts in Tigré, proposed to accompany Theodore first to that province; and, after the rebellion had been put down in that part of the kingdom, proceed with him to Shoa. Their interview on that occasion was very stormy, and Theodore must have had great command over himself to have refrained from extremities. Abouna Salama remained at Magdala, according to his desire, but a prisoner. He was never put in chains, though it is said that Theodore had several times resolved it should be done, and had even the fetters prepared. However, he was always restrained by dread of the effect that measure might have on his people. The bishop was allowed to go as far as the church, should he desire it, but at night a small guard always watched outside his house; sometimes even some of the soldiers passed the night in the Abouna's apartment. Almost all his servants were spies of the King. He could trust no one, except a few of his slaves—young Gallas given to him in former days by Theodore—and a Copt, who, with some priests, had accompanied the Patriarch David on his visit to Abyssinia.

After the bishop's reconciliation with Samuel, our relations with him were more frequent and intimate. He was at all times willing to help us to the best of

his ability, lent us a few dollars when we were hard pressed for money, wrote to the rebels to protect our messengers, invited them to come to our release, promising to the successful one his support, and, I believe, would even have accepted a reconciliation with the man from whom he had received so many injuries, solely for our sake.

Disappointed in his ambition, deprived of his property, insulted, degraded, without power, without liberty, Abouna Salama did not remember that sobriety in all respects was essential to his health, and that over-indulgence at table was not consistent with his forced seclusion. Constant annoyances, added to intemperate habits, could but bring on sickness. During our first winter I attended him through Alaka Zenab, our friend and his, and under my care he recovered. Unfortunately, he only listened to my advice and obeyed my injunctions for a short time, and soon missing the stimulants he had for years been accustomed to, gradually felt the want of their cheering influence, and again resorted to them. During the rainy season of 1867 he had a more serious attack. For a while his health improved; but he was even more unreasonable than formerly, and hardly was he convalescent than several times a day he sent to inquire if he could drink some arrack, take a little opium, or indulge in some of his more favorite dishes. It is not astonishing that relapse quickly followed, and, though I showed him the danger of the course he was pursuing, he persisted in it.

In the beginning of October the bishop's condition became so critical that he applied to the Ras and chiefs to allow me to visit him. They met in consultation, and decided on refusing his request, though they consented to the attendance of the cow-doctor. With the Abouna we lost a stanch ally, a good friend, nay, the only one we had in the country. Had a rebel succeeded in making himself master of the amba, his protection would have been invaluable. Not that I believe his influence would have been sufficient to insure our release, but still, with him, we should have met at the hands of any of the great rebel chiefs nothing but good treatment and courteous demeanor.

ECUADOR,* a republic in South America. President for the term from 1869 to 1875, Garcia Moreno. Area, 218,984 square miles; population, 1,300,000. The value of exports from the port of Guayaquil (exclusive of precious metals) amounted, in 1868, to 3,156,334 piastres (that of cacao alone 2,077,550). The foreign debt was, in 1866, 9,390,554 piastres, and the home debt, 3,692,955 piastres. There is neither a standing army nor a fleet.

At the beginning of 1869, Dr. Xavier Espinosa was President. The Government was overthrown by a revolution on the 16th of January, at the capital, Quito, headed by the ex-President, Gabriel Garcia Moreno. Although a good deal of excitement existed for a time, there was, fortunately, no loss of blood, and Moreno was allowed to install himself quietly in the presidential chair. It seems that the principal object of Garcia Moreno in overthrowing Espinosa was to prevent his old enemy, Urbina, from getting into power again, and Espinosa appeared to be too inert to oppose him.

The following persons were banished from the country: Don Pedro Carbo, chief of the liberal party in Ecuador and president of a political society known as Sociedad Liberal de Guayas; D. Miguel Ristrio, President of the Supreme Court; Señor José Avilés, President of the Municipal Council; Colonel Francisco Bolaña, Vice-President of the Council; Señor Marcos Aguirre, Governor of the Canton of Guayaquil; Señor J. M. Noboa, editor of *La Libertad*, and Señor J. M. Lacey, member of the municipality.

On the 10th of March President Garcia Moreno issued a decree, ordaining that all persons who, directly or indirectly, should aid in any way in getting up revolutions or disturbing the public peace, should be held responsible for the military expenses incurred in preserving or restoring the peace.

On the 19th of March a revolt occurred at Guayaquil, but was promptly suppressed by the troops. Soon after, a general amnesty was declared to all the military, from private to lieutenant inclusive, who were engaged in the revolution, and also to all civilians, provided they surrendered their arms and gave evidence of repentance.

The dictator Moreno followed, true to his antecedents, a reactionary policy. Thus it was reported that he ordered all the public schools to be closed except those under the control of Jesuits.

On the 13th of May Moreno issued a decree declaring the republic no longer in a state of war, and allowing all political prisoners, or refugees, the liberty to return to their homes, except certain military men engaged in the March revolt; but the terms were such that few, it was thought, would demean themselves by accepting them. Imprisonment for debt was abolished, except in certain cases. A decree was also issued, establishing punishment for the breach of public morality.

The National Convention was installed on the 16th of May, at the capital, Dr. Rafael Carvajal being elected President of the republic and Dr. Elias Lasso, Vice-president; Rafael Borja and Victor Lasso, Secretaries. On the same day a decree was issued, that Señors Garcia Moreno and Aseásubi, President and Vice-President, should continue acting until the constitution of the new government could be organized; but, Moreno having insisted on resigning, the convention accepted his resignation, leaving Señor Aseásubi at the head of the administration. Dr. Pablo Herrera was appointed Secretary of State and Foreign Affairs, and Dr. Gabriel Garcia Moreno Secretary of the Treasury.

At the new presidential election, Moreno was chosen President for the term of six years.

EGYPT, a dependency of Turkey, in Northern Africa. The ruler bears the official title of Khedive, the Arabic equivalent for Viceroy. This dignity is now hereditary in the family of Mehemet Ali. In 1866 the Sublime Porte accorded to the Viceroy the right of succession in a direct line. Egypt has (since 1866) an Assembly of Representatives, holding annual sessions. The present Pacha of Egypt is Ismaïl

* For latest financial and shipping news, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

(born 1816), who followed, on January 18, 1863, his brother Said as the fifth Viceroy of Egypt. A Council of State (created in 1856) is at the head of the administration. The area of Egypt is 659,000 English square miles. It has 7,465,000 inhabitants, 4,306,691 inhabiting Egypt proper. The chief cities are—Cairo, 282,348 inhabitants; Alexandria, 180,796; Damietta, 57,000; Tantah, 55,000.

The Khedive, in 1869, called Prof. Brugsch, of the University of Berlin, to Egypt, to establish an Egyptian university at Cairo, and to be the president of the department of Egyptian Language and Literature. A preparatory school and a polytechnic school have already been opened. Thus far the university consists of five departments, besides the two already mentioned, of a law-school, a school of drawing, and a commercial school. A sixth department, a school of Egyptology, was soon to be added. The latter school will admit twenty-four pupils, who will find in the house of the director lodging and superintendence. Foreign students are received on condition that, after completing their studies, they remain for several years in the service of the Egyptian Government. The whole of the university is under the management of the learned Aali Pacha Mubarek, the son of a fellah in Upper Egypt, who, at the same time, is at the head of the whole department of public instruction.

The total receipts for the year ending September 9, 1866, according to the official budget, amounted to 1,458,112 purses, and the total expenditure to 941,227 purses (500 piastres = 1 purse, 20 piastres = 1 American dollar). The public debt amounted in October, 1869, to £29,000,000 sterling. The value of the commerce of Alexandria with foreign countries was, in 1868: imports, 531,600,000 piastres, (225,800,000 from Great Britain); exports, 930,700,000 (707,400,000 to Great Britain and 111,700,000 to France). There entered in Alexandria, in 1868, 2,616 vessels with a tonnage of 1,483,585; 948 of which vessels were steamers; passengers, 43,538. The length of telegraphs is about 2,000 English miles.

The relations of Egypt to Turkey, in 1869, were any thing but friendly. The Sultan is the nominal sovereign of the country, but without real influence upon its Government. The Turkish Government is alarmed at the growing power of the Khedive, while the latter strives to obtain unlimited sovereignty. The immense importance of the Suez Canal has increased the illy-concealed aspirations of the Viceroy and aroused the suspicions, jealousy, and fears of the Porte. The Turkish Government took particular offence at the journey made in 1869 by the Viceroy to the courts of the European princes, to invite them to attend the opening of the Suez Canal. At Constantinople they were of opinion that the Viceroy had no right to issue the invitations in his own name, but that he was, on the contrary, bound first to invite the Sultan, and to send through him the invitations to other monarchs. The step of the Viceroy was regarded as a proof of his suspected intention to establish the entire independence of Egypt. The *Turquie* of Constantinople (an official organ) remarked that the Viceroy "gave himself the airs of an independent sovereign," and that he "contemptuously ignored" the suzerain rights of the Porte. Alluding to the report that the object of the Viceroy's European tour was to induce "one of the great powers" to raise its consulate in Egypt to the rank of a legation, and to negotiate with the other signers of the Treaty of Paris for the purpose of obtaining the neutralization of the Suez Canal, the *Turquie* said that this would be "an act of treason which would nullify all the privileges given to Egypt by the Sultans, as well as the concessions which its governors only owed to the generosity of their suzerains."

In August, the Grand-Vizier addressed, in the name of the Sultan, a letter to the Viceroy, fully detailing the complaints of Turkey. It was as follows:

Your Highness is aware of all the various rumors and apprehensions to which the object and chief aim of your journey to Europe have given rise both in the press and in the cabinets. At the moment when these rumors were everywhere circulating, it appeared to us that a frank and loyal explanation would be the sole means to remove all doubts and difficulties to which they might give rise. By order of our august master, therefore, I avail myself of your Highness's return to Egypt to address to you what follows. The high confidence and benevolence of his Imperial Majesty toward your Highness have been shown by too many visible and material proofs to render it necessary for me to dilate thereupon. At a moment when it was in the midst of the gravest political complications, the Imperial Government, while modifying them, did not refuse to grant the various demands which you addressed to it, though in the eyes of the world these demands did not seem to harmonize with the sentiments of loyalty which our august master had a right to expect from you.

This circumstance and the strange conduct of the Egyptian troops on their arrival and at the commencement of their stay in Crete, on the occasion of the last insurrection in that island, and the precipitation with which they were withdrawn, together with other similar incidents, had been almost forgotten by his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, with the sole view of giving your Highness yet another proof of the benevolence with which he did not cease to be animated toward you. Thus your Highness will admit that not only did his Majesty show no desire to trammel the continuance of your power within its designated limits, but that he has also spared neither aid nor facility in your interest. The great country of Egypt, which is placed under the administration of your Highness, being one of the most important territorial possessions of his Imperial Majesty, the well-being and prosperity of its inhabitants are naturally the object of his most lively solicitude. In consequence and in virtue of his right as sovereign of the country, our august master would be entitled to exercise a supervision over the expenditure which weighs so heavily on the present as on the future of Egypt. If this supervision has not been exercised, if the other rights and duties specified by the imperial firmans which conferred the hereditary administration upon your family have not been invoked, it has been not because his Majesty meant for a moment to renounce any one of either his rights or his duties,

but solely because his Majesty was convinced that your Highness, in your wisdom, would not abuse this abstinence, and that, appreciating rightly the benefits of which you have been the object, you would never diverge from the path of loyalty and devotion.

It was at a moment when this conviction existed in all its strength, and when the benevolence of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan toward you continued and was daily increasing, that the scheme of your intended journey to Europe was announced to me. Although your Highness had been good enough to apprise us of your departure, you did not deem it incumbent on you to afford us the least information as to the motives assigned by public report for your voyage, nor to give any answer whatever to the requests for explanation which were officially addressed to you. Though greatly astonished at this silence, we still thought it right to await the moment which would throw light upon these facts. It was during this interval that we received information of your visit direct from Alexandria to Corfu, made to his Majesty the King of the Hellenes, and of the invitation which you gave to that sovereign to be present at the opening of the Suez Canal. The news of similar invitations to the other sovereigns whom you next visited followed this piece of information. It is needless to say that our august master would feel great pleasure in seeing the sovereigns of Europe, if it so pleased them, attending the inauguration of a great public work, accomplished in a portion of his dominion, and honoring with their benevolence one of the chief members of his government, placed at the head of the Egyptian administration. Only your Highness is too enlightened to render it necessary to remind you that the invitation of an independent sovereign to a foreign country should be made by the independent sovereign of the country. The contrary infringes alike upon the dignity of the invited and the rights of the territorial sovereign. Thus, the form adopted in this question by your Highness is in all points contrary, both to the respect due to the sacred rights of our sovereign and to the consideration necessary for the august princes whom you proposed to invite. On another point, it was the duty of the representatives of the Sublime Porte abroad to place themselves at the disposition of your Highness as one of the greatest dignitaries of our empire. Your Highness's official relations required to be carried on through their instrumentality. It would appear, nevertheless, that their solicitude in the fulfilment of this duty, far from having been agreeable to your Highness, had no other effect than that of displeasing you; and it is with pain that we have learned of all the reserve with which you thought proper to mark your intercourse with them.

Your Highness knows better than any one, and it is, moreover, expressly stipulated in the imperial firmans, that, with the exception of a few privileges established in her favor, Egypt differs in nothing from the other provinces, and that its administration cannot direct official relations with other powers. The treaties which exist between the Sublime Porte and other states, as well as the fundamental laws of the empire, must have the same force and vigor there. Notwithstanding these fundamental principles the continental journeys to Europe of the personage who takes the name and title of Minister for Foreign Affairs of Egypt, with the view of making efforts to obtain in favor of the latter a change of those treaties and to enter with the powers into direct negotiations on this subject; the great care which he takes in concealing from our representatives more than any one else the object of his mission, and his abstaining from all association with them, constitute so many facts which infringe as much on the rights of the Sublime Porte as they are contrary to your obligations, which can no longer be tolerated. For it has become evident to the eyes of our august master that if the powers, with whom respect for rights and treaties is an immutable principle, had shown the least favorable disposition, the abolition of our treaties, their replacement by others, the suppression, in a word, of the contents of the firmans which serve as the basis of the existence and continuance of the actual administration of Egypt, was the aim which was sought to be attained. At home, also, the incalculable and crushing expenses occasioned by orders given for iron-clads, fire-arms, and the like, subject the inhabitants of that part of the empire to burdens far beyond their means, and inspire them with discontent against the administration. As has been said above, and we cannor repeat it too often, his Majesty the Sultan, our august sovereign, animated by the liveliest solicitude for the welfare and prosperity of Egypt, and desirous to see that province enjoy its privileges within their legitimate limits, can never consent to see the ties weakened which attach it to his empire. Placed as it is under the principle of the safeguard of the integrity of the empire, it is impossible to conceive the reasons which can impose upon the administration of that country the obligation of depleting the public treasury for the purchase of iron-clad vessels and arms of all kinds. As the people can in no respect long support the burden of such expenses, his Majesty the Sultan, who is the legitimate sovereign of the country, cannot permit it. It is a truth everywhere recognized, that luxury being not the cause but the effect of civilization, true progress consists in the accomplishment of the reforms which produce that civilization. The just and enlightened mind of your Highness renders it superfluous for us to point out the disastrous consequences to which those expose themselves who, neglecting the fundamental basis, begin with objects which ought only to be their effects. The aim of these frank and sincere explanations is to call the serious attention of your Highness to facts the continuance of which, as also a persistence in the path followed, can be reconciled neither with the rightly-understood interests of the imperial province, the good administration of which is confided to you, nor with the maintenance of the acknowledged rights of his Imperial Majesty, which it is essential, above all, to preserve from all infringement. We do not doubt that your Highness, in your high wisdom, taking into serious consideration all the preceding observations, will see fit to desist from all that oversteps the limits of your privileges and your obligations, and that, from gratitude for the great benefits of which you have been the object on the part of our august master, you will henceforth concentrate all your efforts upon the development of the prosperity of Egypt and of the security of the lives and property of its inhabitants. In proportion as your Highness confines yourself within the limits of the conditions attached to your privileges, the good-will which our august master does not cease to feel toward you will extend and be redoubled. These conditions, set forth at length in the firmans above mentioned, it were here superfluous to recapitulate. As it would be impossible for the Imperial Government to desist from a single one of the provisions contained in these firmans, it would be under the necessity, though with regret, of recurring to them whenever it should become a question of taking measures for restoring within their limits and repressing any contrary acts which might arise, and for safeguarding acts and traditions. Consequently, and by order of his Imperial Majesty the Sultan, our august master, I hereby communicate to your Highness, without the least evasion and in all frankness, the real state of affairs, and await a clear and categorical reply, offering all necessary guarantees for the future, and which cannot be allowed to remain as a dead letter.

A'ALI.

The difficulties threatened to gravitate into an open breach of the peace; but neither party felt disposed to go further, the Porte having just come out of a protracted and expensive

civil war in Candia, and her finances being in a bad condition, while the Viceroy could not make a loan for a war which would jeopard his own position, and his naval force was too small. The Viceroy considered it, therefore, best to yield, and to this end addressed, in September, a letter to the Sultan (through the Grand-Vizier), which he concluded thus:

In addition, having received from persons worthy of confidence the news that I should not be obliged to submit my budget to the Porte, I am rejoiced to be able to hope that the report is exact. Besides, your Highness having deigned to give me the gratifying assurance that his Majesty was disposed to maintain the privileges successively accorded by imperial decrees since 1841, my hope becomes confirmed, and is converted into certitude.

One sole point now remains—that of the authorization of loans. I have the firm conviction that this will be equally resolved by recourse to the formal terms of the firmans, with the perfect equity which every one recognizes in your Highness.

In fact, if the matter is attentively considered, how injurious this subordination would be in all the affairs, small or great, of the province of Egypt, the administration of which has been confided to me solely by the benevolence of the Sultan, the fact is evident that the last firman accorded would be valueless. If matters had not been thus situated, I should have had no other duty, I am aware, than to submit to a simple indication from you. Feeling confident that all the communications from you have been inspired by the most perfect sincerity, and the most entire purity of intention, I, on my side, speak to you with all honesty and trust, relying on the pleasing assurance that his Majesty has no wish to lessen the privileges accorded by his imperial munificence, as well as on the perfect equity and high sagacity which so eminently distinguish your Highness.

I hope that, in also accepting this point in the way above explained, you will deign to employ your good offices to obtain an augmentation in my favor of the great and fecund benevolence of his Majesty, more precious to me than the whole world and all that it contains.

Negotiations concerning several points were, however, continued unto the end of the year, when it was announced that all the difficulties had been settled.

A discovery was made on April 2d of an attempt to assassinate the Viceroy. An explosive machine, with a powder-train leading to the door, and attached by a tube to a gas-pipe, was found under the seat of the viceregal box in the theatre at Cairo. The Viceroy was apprised of the projected attempt on his life, and stayed away. The perpetrators were unknown, but several persons were arrested on suspicion. The Viceroy received the congratulations of the foreign ministers and Egyptian functionaries on his escape.

An important event in the political progress of Egypt is the institution of a Parliament, the session of which, in 1869, was opened with a highly-interesting speech of the Viceroy. After congratulating the members on the general prosperity of the country, regretting the imperfect rising of the Nile, and announcing that a commission had been appointed to devise means by which irrigation might be effected independently of a favorable rising, the Viceroy adverted to the Suez Canal. "Eight millions of pounds have," he said, "been paid to the Suez Canal Company. It is indisputable that the canal works have been a burden on our population; but I trust that the country will soon be compensated for the outlay, since it has been solemnly promised that the canal is to be opened in October* of the current year. As the Government holds nearly half of the bonds of the company, and is, further, to have 15 per cent. of the profits of the enterprise, we shall soon have, in the opening of the canal, a new source of revenue." The Viceroy then went on to justify the excess of debt by referring to the important works which had been accomplished; 850 additional miles of railroad had been laid down, also 207 bridges, 40 canals, 25 aqueducts, 5 locks, 30 sluice-gates, 1 floating bridge, and 4 stone quays. Civil and military schools had been founded and maintained, and the reorganization of the land and sea forces had justified a large expenditure. "On my accession," the Viceroy continued, "the army hardly comprised 3,000 effective troops, and the fleet consisted of three or four ships only. Since my accession our war material has been entirely renewed, and a large supply of muskets of a new model have been ordered. Workshops for making military equipments and material have been established. Men-of-war and transports, such as steam-frigates, iron-clad corvettes, and sailing-vessels, to the number of twenty-two, have been constructed or purchased, and are at our disposal in the Mediterranean and the Red Sea. Thanks be to God, our army and navy are now on such a regular and respectable footing that we are fully capable of providing for the security of the country." On the important topic of the meditated change in the present jurisdiction of foreigners resident in Egypt, the Viceroy said: "I have the satisfaction to announce to you that I have obtained the adhesion of most of the great powers to the principle of the judiciary reform; and I trust soon to obtain that of the French Government, which has always shown so much sympathy for the progress of our country. I have reason to believe that a special commission will shortly be formed to construct the bases of the new jurisdiction, and to define its powers."

The Viceroy, while thus endeavoring to strengthen his power by reforms and the aid of competent advisers, seems also intent upon increasing his power by extending his territory. Great political results are expected from the expedition to Central Africa, which the Egyptian Government directed to be organized under the superintendence of Sir Samuel Baker. It is anticipated that it will lead to the conquest of very extensive and wealthy territories for the Viceroy. Sir Samuel was given the rank of Bey, and engaged to remain for four years in the Egyptian service. The force

* This month was originally fixed upon for the opening of the canal, but it was subsequently changed to November.

at his disposal is to consist of 1,500 men, selected from the Viceroy's best troops in Soudan, and placed under the command of an experienced officer. Hostile operations were to commence in the country of the Bari tribe, which, though nominally under the Egyptian rule, has hitherto refused to recognize it. Five iron river steamers were ordered by Baker Bey in England. The Egyptian Government spared no expense in order to secure the success of the expedition, the cost of the preliminary outfits, etc., amounting to £25,000. This expenditure, however, was expected to be recovered in the first year of the expedition.

By far the most important event in the history of Egypt, during the year 1869, was the opening of the Suez Canal. The canal commences at Port Said, 140 miles from Alexandria, is about 120 miles long, and runs to Suez through Lakes Menzaleh, Timsah, and Amer. The waters of the Mediterranean were admitted into the Bitter Lakes with complete success, on March 18th. The Viceroy of Egypt was present, and expressed his thorough confidence in the speedy completion of the canal. In September a steamer, with M. de Lesseps on board, made the passage along the whole length of the canal in fifteen hours. Thus was the practicability of the great work, which so many scientific men and politicians have labored to prove the most costly and extravagant of chimeras, conclusively established.

According to soundings, taken all the way through the canal in October, the least depth in it was twenty feet, and the remaining obstacles were being rapidly removed. The work was so vigorously pushed, that, in the beginning of November, 1869, only 1½ million cubic metres of earth remained to be dredged from the bed of the canal to give it the maximum depth of 8 metres (=26¼ feet). In fact, M. Lesseps gave formal notice that the Suez Canal would be opened throughout to navigation on November 17, 1869. For this occasion an invitation had been extended to crowned heads. The Sultan declined the invitation, but France was represented by the Empress, Austria by the Emperor, Prussia by the crown-prince, Italy by Prince Amadeus. The preliminaries commenced at Port Said on November 15th. The Emperor of Austria landed at noon, and was received by the Khedive with great ceremony and a magnificent military and civic display. The houses were decorated, arches were raised over the principal streets, hundreds of flags were flying, and salutes were exchanged between the fleet and the shore. At night the town and harbor were ablaze with fireworks and illuminations. The rigging of the men-of-war and the shipping in the harbor were hung with lanterns of every color, and showers of rockets were rising and falling. The Khedive gave a grand ball on board of his yacht. It was attended by the Emperor, Francis Joseph, and all the distinguished guests assembled at Port Said. On November 16th the Empress Eugenie arrived at Alexandria, and was received by the Viceroy and the Austrian Emperor, and landed amid the thundering of the cannon and the acclamations of the multitudes which lined the shore. On November 17th, the French imperial yacht Aigle, with the Empress Eugenie on board, and followed by forty vessels, anchored at Ismailia, having passed through the first part of the Suez Canal. The trip of the first detachment of the fleet with visitors was made from Port Said to Ismailia in eight and a half hours; they were met by four steamers from Suez, the southern terminus of the canal. On November 18th thirty-four steamers arrived at Ismailia, with an average tonnage of one thousand tons each. The buildings in Ismailia were filled with guests, and the surrounding plains covered with the tents of the native tribes, which were assembled there in immense numbers. On the morning of the 19th of November, the fleet of steamers sailed for Suez, the imperial yacht Aigle, bearing the Empress Eugenie, taking the lead. In the evening they arrived at the light-house in the Bitter Lakes, and anchored there for the night. On November 21st, the canal-inauguration fleet, consisting of forty-five steamers, arrived at Suez, reaching the Red Sea. None were obliged to employ pilots. The only difficulty they had was owing to their numbers. Some were crowded on the banks of the canal several times, but they got off without trouble, the sandy bottom neither holding nor hurting them. On leaving Ismailia several steamers fouled with each other, but no serious damage was done. The water in the canal between Suez and Ismailia is full twenty feet deep at the shallowest spot, and in several parts it is not less than twenty-five feet in depth; but at all these points the canal can easily be deepened. Steamers drawing fifteen feet can navigate the canal from Port Said to Suez with ease, in fifteen hours. The water does not wash away the banks as much as was apprehended. The complete success of the work exceeded all expectations. The imperial yacht Aigle, with the Empress on board, and the entire fleet left Suez on November 22d, and reached the Mediterranean on the next day. The success of the inauguration was complete.

The following table will show the saving effected in distance by the canal over the Cape route between the ports named and Point de Galle, Ceylon, which is chosen as representing a point of mean distance in the Eastern seas:

CITIES.	Distance in Geographical Miles.		Per Cent. of Saving.
	By Cape.	By Suez.	
London	14,340	7,300	49
Marseilles	14,500	5,490	62
Trieste	15,480	5,220	65
New York	15,500	9,400	40

M. de Lesseps estimates that from 2,000,000 to 3,000,000 tons will pass through the canal during 1870, and that this amount will be

doubled the following year. The English and the French will, for some time at least, be the largest customers of the canal company, their rival steamship lines, the Peninsular and Oriental and Messageries Imperiales, furnishing now the chief mediums of communication between Europe and the East. But in this respect, as in many others, this new highway must effect a radical and permanent change. If permanently successful, it must practically cut off Alexandria, Marseilles, and Southampton from the monopoly they have so long held of the Mediterranean trade with Egypt and the East, and open the field to successful competition.

Brindisi and other ports on the eastern coast of Italy, by reason of their greater proximity to Port Said, will share largely in the rich trade of Marseilles and Southampton. Trieste also will become a formidable competitor for the trade of Central Europe. The Austrian Lloyd's line of steamers from the latter port is doing a steadily-increasing business, and already giving evidence that it feels the stimulus. So far as the passenger, mail, and fast-freight traffic with the East is concerned, it seems wellnigh certain that these two ports will supplant their older and wealthier rivals altogether.

The following are the official regulations for the navigation of the Suez Canal:

1. Navigation on the Suez Maritime Canal is permitted to all vessels, whatever their nationality, provided they do not draw more than seven metres and a half of water; the canal being eight metres deep. Steam-vessels may navigate by means of their own steam-power. Sailing-vessels, about fifty tons' burden, must be towed by the service established for this purpose by the company. Steamers requiring to be towed will arrange by special contract. Every vessel towed will provide its own tow-line.

2. The maximum speed of vessels on the canal is provisionally fixed at ten kilometres an hour.

3. Every ship exceeding 100 tons' burden must take a pilot employed by the company, who is bound to furnish every information as to the route to be followed, the captain remaining responsible for the conduct and handling of the vessel.

4. When a vessel requiring to pass the canal has taken up her moorings at Port Said or at Suez, the captain is to enter his vessel at the office and to pay the passage dues, as well as the pilotage fees, towing and harbor fees, when due. A receipt will be given him, which will be available in case of need. He will be bound to furnish the following particulars: Name and nationality of the vessel, name of the captain, names of the owners and charterers, port whence sailed and destination, draught of water, number of passengers, tonnage of the ship according to legal measurement, certified by official documents.

5. In the formation of trains, the captain, furnished with a number according to his receipt, serving as a way-bill, and after having received the pilot on board, will take up the position assigned to him.

6. Every vessel about to enter the canal is to have her yards braced up and booms topped. She must have two anchors—one forward and one aft—to allow of anchoring at the first order of the pilot.

7. (1.) Every vessel must have, during the passage of the canal, a boat in tow with a hawser ready, in order in case of need to carry out her hawser to one of the mooring-piles placed along the two banks of the canal. (2.) The captain is bound to keep watches on deck both night and day, to be ready to cast off or cut the tow-lines at the first order. (3.) During the night, vessels will keep lights burning according to regulation, and a lookout forward. (4.) Every steam-tug or other steamer will whistle at the passage of curves, at the approach of vessels which are to be passed or crossed, and at the approach of dredging or other engines which they may meet. (5.) When two vessels, proceeding in opposite directions, come in sight, they are to slacken speed, each keeping the starboard bank, or stop, according to the order of the pilot. (6.) When a vessel requires to pass another going in the same direction, warning must be given by signal. The vessel going at least speed is to keep close to the starboard bank and to slacken speed as much as possible.

8. (1.) Vessels, which for any cause whatever are obliged to stop in the canal, are, as soon as possible, to place themselves on the windward bank, and moor fore and aft. (2.) In case of necessary stoppage, and when it is impossible to reach a siding, which is always to be done, if possible, the captain must immediately give notice by signals by day and by lamps by night, fore and aft. (3.) In case of grounding, the agents of the company will have the right to direct the means of getting the vessel off, and, if necessary, of unloading—the whole at the expense of whoever may have caused the grounding.

9. Captains are forbidden (1.) to anchor in the canal, except in case of absolute necessity, and not without the pilot's consent. (2.) To throw into the canal earth, ashes, cinders, or any other materials. (3.) In case of any thing falling into the canal, a declaration is to be made to the pilot, who is bound to transmit it to the agent at the nearest station. (4.) The captain is forbidden to fish up any thing fallen into the canal, except under the direction of the company's agents. (5.) The salvage of all objects fallen into the canal is at the expense of the captain, to whom they will be restored on payment of these expenses.

10. Captains will bind themselves, on receiving a copy of these regulations, to obey every order for the purpose of carrying them out.

11. The dues to be paid are calculated on the actual tonnage of the vessel, both as to the transit dues and the towing and harbor dues. This tonnage is determined (until further orders) by the official papers on board. The transit due from one sea to the other is ten francs per ton burden, and ten francs per passenger, payable at the entrance at Port Said or Suez. The towage dues are fixed at two francs per ton; the harbor dues for anchoring at Port Said, at Ismailia, and before the platform at Suez, after remaining twenty-four hours, for twenty days at the utmost, five centimes per ton per day, at the place assigned by the captain of the port.

The pilotage dues for the passage of the canal are fixed according to the draught of water, as follows: Up to three metres, five francs per decimetre; from three to four and a half metres, ten francs; from four and a half to six metres, fifteen francs; from six to seven and a half metres, twenty francs. Every decimetre to be paid for proportionally according to the category to which the vessel belongs.

The pilot kept on board, in case of anchorage, will be paid twenty francs per day. Vessels towed will be entitled to a reduction of twenty-five per cent. on the pilotage dues.

FERD. DE LESSEPS, President Director.

The opening of the Canal has raised the question of its neutralization. The powers were said to be very actively occupied with this question; for, if it is not declared neutral, it runs the risk of becoming the theatre of rivalries and struggles between the great

nations. Austria is understood to be in favor of that step, but would not be in a hurry to pronounce. Prussia is reported to be completely in accord with England, who ardently desires the neutralization. Italy, who sees her Eastern commerce increasing, is strongly disposed to support the project. France and Russia are of a contrary opinion. The former, as the principal promoter of the now completed works, is supposed to hope to obtain certain privileges for the French ships which may wish to make use of the canal; and the latter, who regards with a distrustful eye every road which is opened toward the East, and of which she is not mistress, is believed to entertain the project—if this channel is really accessible to large steam-vessels—of asking for a modification of the treaties which regulate navigation in the Bosporus and the Dardanelles.

ELECTRICITY. *Electro-magnetic Induction Machines.*—Mr. H. Wilde's invention has been somewhat improved during the year by his own efforts and those of others. One of the practical difficulties in the use of his apparatus was the generation of high internal heat in large electro-magnetic machines by the rapid magnetization and demagnetization of the armatures. By means of a current of water circulating in the hollow brass segments which form part of the magnet-cylinder, this heat is now so far reduced as to permit the machines to be worked, for days and nights together, without intermission, and without any sensible diminution of the power of the current. It has also been found that the current from one small magneto-electric or electro-magnetic machine is sufficient to excite simultaneously the electro-magnets of several small machines. In a number of 3½-inch machines constructed for the electro-deposition of copper on a large scale, the currents from two of them are made to excite the electro-magnets of twenty similar machines to a degree sufficient to bring out the maximum dynamic effect of each machine. Mr. Wilde has ascertained that it is not necessary to clutch the armatures together, for it is a property of the current to make them revolve synchronously.

In a paper read before the Manchester Literary and Philosophical Society, Mr. Wilde mentioned the following as some of the results obtained from the quantity armature of a 10-inch machine. The dimensions of the coil of this armature may be represented by a bar of pure copper 67 feet long, and having a sectional area of 1.6 square inches, so that the resistance which this circuit presents to the passage of a current, when compared with that of the liquids in a voltaic battery, is practically null. When the coil is in full action, it will melt 15 inches of iron wire .035 inches in diameter, or the same length of ¼-inch iron rod with equal certainty; and will electrolyze acidulated water in at least 16 voltametres in series; so that the resistance outside of the circuit, whether estimated by the 15 inches of thin wire melted, or by the number of electrolyzing cells in series, is more than 100 times greater than that of the coil in which the current is generated.

New Forms of Batteries.—M. Ney has introduced a battery composed of the ordinary copper and zinc elements, but placed in different solutions from those of the Daniell cell. An amalgamated plate of zinc is put in a vessel filled with a solution of chloride of ammonium; in this vessel is the porous cylinder containing the copper plate, immersed in a solution of carbonate of copper. It is claimed that this battery can be kept a long time in active operation if the liquid ammonia is replenished, which is easily done by dropping in solid chloride of ammonium. The natural carbonate of copper can be used, and sand impregnated with the ammoniacal solution can be employed instead of the solution itself.

M. Rondet finds that his cyanide of potassium battery possesses a magnetic force as compared with a Bunsen of 81 to 93. He gives the following comparisons between various forms of battery: Bunsen, 933; chloride of potassium and chloro-hydrate of ammonia, 601; Marié-Davy, 548; Daniell, 384.

A battery invented by Abbé Martin has been found to have great electro-motive force and peculiar constancy. The exterior jar, having its lower part non-porous and well varnished, contains the liquid amalgam of zinc; above this it is principally porous. Contact is made with the zinc by a gutta-percha insulated wire, whose extremity is bare; this end immediately on entering the liquid amalgam becomes amalgamated and establishes a thoroughly good contact. This interior cell consists of a porous jar not resting on the amalgam, but supported by the upper edge of the outer vessel. Its porosity only extends to the lower half, to prevent the exciting liquids mixing. The negative element consists of a copper plate or a plate of lead, carbon, platinum, or any platinized metal, the exciting liquid depending upon the metal, and being either sulphate of copper, or salts of lead, mercury, silver, etc. The exterior vessel is charged with dilute sulphuric acid, and, by means of the porous portion of the outer vessel, the sulphate of zinc is eliminated, attaching itself to the side of the vessel.

A New Frictional Machine.—M. Ferdinand Carré has recently constructed a new frictional machine for the laboratory of the Sorbonne in Paris. On the same axis are mounted two disks of non-conducting materials. The first, of gutta-percha, passes between two friction cushions, and is provided with a brass conductor furnished with combs. The second disk is larger than the first, but is not provided with cushions—only with a conductor and combs. The action in the second is that of induction, and in turning the handle powerful results are obtained; so much so, that, with disks from 14 in. to 19 in. in diameter, sparks are elicited varying in length from 5 to 7 in.

New Thermo-electric Pile. — MM. Mure and Clamond describe a new pile in which galena forms the negative element and iron the positive. The galena is cut into bars forty millimetres long and eight millimetres thick, and thin sheet-iron plates fifty-five millimetres long and eight millimetres wide are connected. A series of these is arranged so as to form a hollow cylinder, in which a gas-burner is placed. The insulations are formed with thin plates of mica. About forty of these couples produce the intensity of one Bunsen's cell; but it is doubted whether the result affords the electric equivalent of the heat employed.

Whale-catching by Electricity. — Messrs. Bennett and Ward, London, have patented a method of capturing whales by the agency of electricity, galvanism, or magnetic electricity. A galvanic battery with its coils and necessary accompaniments, or other electrical apparatus of the required intensity, is placed in the boat, or whaling-vessel. Properly-insulated wires are put in connection with, and pass from, the opposite poles or terminals of the battery and along the lines by which the harpoons are secured to the boat. The ends of these wires are continued to the points of the harpoons, so that the points shall be in direct communication with the poles of the battery. When practicable, two harpoons are thrown at the whale at the same or nearly the same time, and when the battery is charged the electric current will pass along the wires to the points of the harpoons, and through the body of the whale, thus completing the electric current. The whale (if the battery and accompaniments are sufficiently powerful) will be paralyzed by the shocks, and will lie at or near the surface of the water, without the slightest motion, so that the boat can approach near enough to spear and capture him without danger. Two harpoons may be bound together, so as to form a single harpoon with two separate barbed points parallel to each other, the two component parts of which are insulated from each other, the wire from each pole of the battery passing down or through either part of the compound-harpoon to the point, thus forming the electric circuit. It is not absolutely necessary that the instrument should enter the body of the whale, the same effect being produced if the poles of the battery are in communication with his skin. In the same way electricity may be employed to capture seals, and many other fish and sea or river animals.

Electro-magnetic Engines on Ship-board.— Mr. John Tawse communicates the following statement to *The Engineer:*

Some years ago, when in India, I had a boat on one of the salt lakes of the Coromandel coast, and from experiments I then made I became impressed with the idea that there was an immense mechanical power lying dormant in the simple and natural *galvanic action of salt water on the sheathing of vessels.* Electro-magnetism has hitherto failed as a motive power on the score of economy only. The form of battery used is too expensive, owing to the use of strong acids acting upon a comparatively small surface. Also in this case the electric current is deficient in quantity for mechanical purposes. What seemed to be wanted was a very large area of metallic surface, acted upon by an excitant strong enough to evolve a powerful current, yet not sufficiently so to wear or corrode the plates in a very perceptible degree. I have since published the idea which this gave birth to, in several of our scientific journals. But as I have now worked it out to completion, both by calculation and experiment, I detail it herein for the information of your readers.

A vessel, to be fitted with an electro-magnetic engine attached to an ordinary shaft, is sheathed on one side with copper, and on the other side with zinc. The sheathing is laid on over sheets of gutta-percha, in order to insulate it from the wood-work of the vessel. The nails necessary for this purpose are driven in such a manner that they are nowhere in metallic contact with any part of the sheathing. The two sections of copper and zinc sheathing thus form a battery, acted upon and excited by salt water alone. If any one acquainted with the subject will calculate the result of galvanic action on so large a surface as the area of immersion of a floating vessel, he will perceive that it is the right application of it alone that is wanted to convert it into a powerful mechanical force.

The vessel being so sheathed, a wire from each section of course conducts the current to the electro-magnetic engine. In my first experiments I had a large magnet to work a keeper in connection with a crank in the usual way. Since then I have adopted a mode of multiplying the power enormously. Thus the wires are connected with a thick, small-sized electro-magnet in the first instance. In front of its two poles an armature is made to rotate with great velocity, and the augmented current thus produced is carried to an arrangement of two very large magnets working reciprocally in such a way that the keeper, or soft iron beam between them, which works the crank axle of the screw, flows the current into each separately at every stroke, charging it just before the moment of contact. As regards the wear of the plates, it would be no greater than in the case of ordinary sheathing, with this advantage, that no sea-weed or barnacles would adhere to the sheathing, in constant galvanic activity; ordinary copper sheathing would be quite free from them if the galvanic circle were complete. In fitting the above engine to a vessel the rotating armature working before the first magnet would have to be driven by a small steam-engine.

Electric Alarums for Variation of Temperature.—MM. Besson and Kneider have invented an apparatus to indicate a fall of temperature in hot-houses and other places where it is important to have a steady degree of heat. It consists of a spirit-thermometer, the bulb of which is placed above, and the tube curved in a U shape. A platinum wire in connection with a battery and ball is carried into the bulb and down to the degree of heat it is desired to notify. Below this minimum the curvature is filled with mercury, which is in free communication with a second platinum wire. As the alcohol contracts with the cold, the mercury will, of course, rise, and, reaching the first platinum wire, complete the circuit, and give the warning. This instrument is intended to be used in connection with what is called the maximum thermometer alarum, which is made by carrying one platinum wire, connected with a battery and bell, into the bulb of a mercurial thermometer, and another wire down the tube to the degree of heat it is not desired

to exceed. When the mercury rises to this point the circuit is completed, and notice is given by the ringing of the bell. The same battery and bell will serve for the two instruments, but it will be necessary to interpose a commutator to ascertain through which circuit the current is passing, and whether a rise or fall is indicated when the bell is rung.

Electric Beacons.—Experiments have been conducted by Mr. Thomas Stevenson, of Edinburgh, with a view of testing the practicability of illuminating beacons and buoys at sea with the electric light, produced by means of a battery on shore. A submarine cable, fully half a mile long, was laid between the East breakwater of Granton Harbor and the chain pier at Trinity. The operator occupied a station near the centre of the breakwater, and the light was shown at the point of the pier, in front of an ordinary light-house reflector, producing a most brilliant flash. The flashes were emitted with great rapidity; as many as 500 can be transmitted in a minute, but the machine can be regulated to send one every second, or at any other desired interval. The experiments were witnessed by gentlemen connected with the Board of Trade and Trinity House, and gave them great satisfaction.

A Phono-electroscope.—This is the name of an instrument invented by Mr. Edwin Smith, of England, to illustrate the heating power of the voltaic current. It consists of a rectangular wooden box, ten inches by five, two steel or platinum wires stretched from end to end, a small spindle carrying two quill plectra, and an eccentric wheel for making and breaking the current through one of the wires. The wheel turns under a brass spring, which plays upon a button. The spring is connected with one electrode of the battery, the button with the wire nearest to it, and this wire with the other electrode. To exhibit the use of the instrument: First, tighten the wires, by means of the milled-headed screws, to unison, to about the pitch of middle C.; then turn the spindle so as to sound the two notes in succession *before* the eccentric wheel makes the circuit. After these have sounded in unison, turn the spindle a little more; the circuit is made by wheel and spring, and presently the plectra play a second time on the wires, which now sound, with an interval of a tone or more, according to the quantity of electricity which has passed through one of them. By regulating the time between the instant when the wires sound in unison and the instant when they sound again, and noticing the musical interval caused by one of them becoming flat, we have an audible measure of the expansion of the connected wire, of the temperature to which it has been raised, and of the quantity of electricity which has traversed it to produce that effect. By continuing the movement, the interval between the notes will increase, and, at last, the wire operated on will become too slack to sound at all. If connection with the battery be now broken, and the heated wire be allowed to cool, its note will be heard to rise by degrees to its original pitch. With a single pair of plates, the phono-electroscope answers well. The experiment is a striking one in a lecture-room, very instructive, and easily managed. The apparatus is so simple that any one almost may make it for himself.

Electro-deposition of Copper and Brass.—An invention has been patented by Mr. W. H. Walenn, of England, to make electro-deposits of copper and brass upon iron, or other substances, with less battery power, and greater economy, than formerly. A solution for depositing brass is made as follows: crystallized sulphate of zinc (1 part by weight), and crystallized nitrate of copper (2 parts), are dissolved in the smallest quantity of water that is possible. Sufficient strong ammonia-water is added to precipitate, and then fully redissolve the oxides. The purple tint of this solution is removed by a standard solution of cyanide of potassium. The resulting solution should be left to stand for a day or two, and may then be worked with from one to three battery-cells, using heat if a brass anode be employed. Or porous cell-arrangements may be introduced, the hydrated oxides of copper and zinc being from time to time supplied, and, if necessary, ammoniuret of copper being added. Ammonia-water and a standard solution of cyanide of potassium should be added occasionally to the depositing liquid, in order to keep the salts of copper and zinc well in solution. The hydrated oxides of the metals are mixed and thoroughly incorporated in the proportion of two parts by weight of the copper oxide to one part of the zinc oxide before going into the solution. During working, little or no hydrogen should be evolved. Various modifications of the process are described by the inventor, but the one already mentioned appears to be the simplest. An electro-deposit of copper is made by charging the solvent solution with about one part of sulphate of zinc to ten or twenty parts of sulphate of copper. The addition of sulphate of zinc to acid solutions for depositing copper has long been known to improve the quality of the deposit—the zinc toughening the copper as deposited. Mr. Walenn has also discovered that the addition of a small quantity of bisulphide of carbon to a solution containing one lb. of sulphate of copper to the gallon, and an ounce or two of sulphate of zinc to the gallon, imparts a silky and bright appearance to the cupreous deposit.

The Electric Light for photographing with the Microscope.—A Washington correspondent of the Philadelphia *Press* gives an interesting account of experiments made by Dr. Woodward, of the Army Medical Museum, to procure magnified photographs of objects by means of the electric light. The writer says:

> For the production of the electric light he uses the Duboscq lamp, moved by a battery of fifty small Grove's elements. In this way he finds, not only that

photographs can be taken with any power given by sunlight, but also that the exaggeration of light and shadow, which has prevented the electric light from being generally adopted as a source of illumination in the preparation of ordinary photographs of the natural size or less, proved of infinite advantage in the reproduction of feeble, microscopical images of highly-magnified objects.

The microscopical pictures are clearer and more defined than those produced by sunlight. The electric light is much more manageable than sunlight, and readily arranged to produce negatives with shorter exposures. The magnesium light, though sharing these qualities, is found to be less adapted to the higher powers.

The electric light is considered to be the best. Grove's battery, already spoken of, is placed in a closet just outside the operating-room. The battery used by the doctor is the compact form of the Grove's battery employed by Prof. Tyndall in his celebrated lectures on heat and sound. It was made, we understand, by Mr. Ladd, of London, who manufactures the apparatus used by Prof. Tyndall.

The chief point about this battery is its compactness. It occupies, when set up, a space of a little more than two feet square, and the cells are so small that a little over seven pounds of nitric and three of sulphuric acid, costing altogether much less than one dollar, is sufficient to charge the fifty elements and run the battery for a day's work. The wires from the battery are connected with the Duboscq lamp, which is the one that was exhibited by that ingenious maker at the recent Universal Exposition in Paris. This lamp is provided with a clock-work, regulated by a magnet, and keeps the carbon-points perfectly steady. The light from the burning carbon-points, which approximates in brilliancy the brightness of the sun, is concentrated by a pair of condensing lenses on the achromatic condenser of the microscope, passes thus through the object and the object-glass of the microscope, and projects the image on the sensitive plate, which is placed at a few feet distance. The photograph is then taken by precisely the same chemical process by which portraits are photographed.

This lamp may be substituted for the electric clock and battery in the above process with similar results, but requires somewhat longer exposures. It is not so well adapted to taking pictures with high powers, and at the present price of the magnesium ribbon, which is two dollars and one-half per ounce, is more costly than the electric light.

We are inclined to believe that the above new applications of the electric and magnesium lights will prove of great practical value, by enabling microscopists, laboring in the various branches of medical and scientific research, to reproduce the results of their investigations in such form as to make them instructive to the world.

Dr. Woodward showed us during a recent visit photographs of sections of cancers, tumors, and other morbid tissues, in which the most minute structural points were faithfully reproduced, with powers ranging from 350 to 1,000 diameters; and also of a great variety of test-objects, some of which were magnified as highly as 2,500 diameters. We can readily understand how by the exchange of such pictures microscopists, working at distant points, could cooperate and assist in each other's labors. And we are therefore glad to learn that it is probable that the surgeon-general will publish at an early day a full account of those experiments, which will render the process available for any microscopist of ordinary industry. It is not necessary for the microscopist to be a practical photographer, as any ordinary portrait photographer can be employed by him for the purpose.

We understand that the magnesium and electric lights have both been used for copying maps and drawings, and no doubt much can be done to render this application more economical and simple than hitherto. But it is not likely that these lights will be generally introduced as sources of illumination in taking ordinary photographs, for which they are unfitted by the violence of the contrasts of the light and shade which they produce.

Vegetable Electro-motors.—Mr. Edwin Smith contributes to the London *Chemical News* the results of experiments to determine the electric relations between vegetable substances of a nature to act chemically on each other—an alkaloid and an organic acid, for example. He deemed it probable that, whenever two flavors are habitually conjoined in eating, the reason why they mutually improve each other is because a certain amount of electric action is set up between the substances employed to produce them, and that the *rationale* of the right blending of flavors might be found partly in galvanism as well as in chemistry. He says:

Pursuing this idea, I tried pairs of eatables which generally go together, such as pepper and salt, coffee and sugar, almonds and raisins, and the like, and found that a voltaic current more or less strong was excited in every instance which I tested. Bitters and sweets, pungents and salts, or bitters and acids, generally appear to furnish true voltaic couples, doubtless in consequence of the mutual action of some alkaloid salt and an acid or its equivalent. As others may like to repeat or extend the experiments, I will describe shortly my mode of procedure: Cut two pieces of platinum-foil about five inches by two and a half inches, and a number of pieces of filter-paper a trifle larger. Well-washed linen is sometimes more convenient than filter-paper. Have a small wooden board near the mercury-cups of the galvanometer, and let a short copper or platinum wire, dipping into one of the cups, rest on the board. The substances to be tried must be brought to a state of solution, the stronger the better, by infusion, decoction, or otherwise. Suppose coffee and sugar are to be operated upon: solutions of both having been prepared, dip into each a slip of filter-paper; place one slip on one of the pieces of platinum-foil, and the other on the second piece. Next lay the first slip and its foil on the board, with the metal touching the copper wire before mentioned. Lay the second slip with its platinum upward, so that the coffee and sugar come into even contact with slight pressure, and immediately connect this upper slip, through a bit of copper wire, insulated from the touch, with the other terminal of the galvanometer. Deflection occurs instantaneously, and may be increased to a considerable vibration by breaking and making circuit at the right swing of the needle. After a few distinct vibrations, it is well to turn over the whole pile of slips just as they are, and connect opposite ends with the galvanometer, so as to reverse the current. This is desirable for the sake of confirming your previous observation, and of correcting any slight disturbing cause arising from the wire and mercury-connectors, temperature of the hand, etc. It will be found that coffee and sugar have the same electrical relation to each other as zinc and platinum. Coffee, in fact, is the positive, sugar the negative element. I subjoin a table of the results of numerous experiments, conducted in the manner above described.

Electro-positive.	Electro-negative.
Coffee	Sugar (loaf).
Tea (black)	"
Cocoa	"
Nutmeg	"
Cloves	"
Cinnamon	"
Mace	"
Vanilla	"
Almonds	"

Electro-positive.	Electro-negative.
Rhubarb (tincture)	Sugar (loaf).
Starch	"
Starch-caramel	"
Gum-caramel	"
Cane-sugar caramel	"
Milk-sugar	"
Gum	"
Almonds	Raisins.
Horseradish	Beet-root.
Onion	"
Horseradish	Table salt.
Mustard	"
Pepper (white)	"
Mustard	Tartaric acid.
Ginger	"
Cayenne pepper	"
Pepper (white)	"
Tea (black)	"
Tobacco	"
Quinine (Howard's)	"
Gentian-root	"
Lemon-juice	"
Horehound	"
Lavender-water	"
Quassia	"
Peppermint	"
Raw potato	Lemon-juice.
Rind of lemon	"
Peruvian bark	"
Camphor (tincture)	"
Laudanum	"
Arnica (tincture)	Dilute sulphuric acid.
Peruvian bark	" "
Quinine (Howard's)	" "
Iodine (tincture)	Turpentine.
Caustic potash	"
Starch	"
Starch	Iodine (tincture).
Caustic potash	Neat's-foot oil.

It is somewhat difficult to eliminate from these experiments all error arising from difference of temperature, if the galvanometer is tolerably sensitive. Care must be taken to bring the pair of solutions operated upon to the same temperature before testing them; otherwise a thermo-electric current from the hotter to the colder liquid may affect the needle, and mask the true electrical relation between the two, so far as it depends upon their chemical nature.

Accumulated Magnetic Power.—Experiments recently made by M. Jamin prove that magnetic power may, like electricity, be accumulated. The author had a large horseshoe magnet made, consisting of ten laminæ of perfectly homogeneous steel, each weighing ten kilogrammes. This magnet he suspended to a hook attached to a strong beam, and, having wound copper round each of the legs, which were turned downward, he put the latter into communication with a battery of fifty of Bunsen's elements, by which means the horseshoe might be magnetized either positively or negatively, at pleasure. The variations were indicated by a small horizontal needle situated in the plane of the poles. There was, further, a series of iron plates, which could be separately applied to each of the laminæ. Before attaching any of the latter, the electric current was driven through the apparatus for a few minutes, and then interrupted, whereby the magnet acquired its first degree of saturation, marked by a certain deviation of the needle. One of the iron plates (usually called "contacts") was put on, and supported a weight of 140 kilogrammes. The current having passed through again a few seconds, it was found that the horseshoe would support 300 kilogrammes. The number of contacts was then increased to five, which together, in the natural state, supported 120 kilogrammes, but, after the passage of the current, they sustained 680 kilogrammes, and continued to do so for a full week. No sooner, however, were the contacts taken off, than the horseshoe returned to its usual permanent strength of 140 kilogrammes. This tends to show that magnetism may be condensed, like electricity, for a short period.

Magnetism and the Casting of Iron.—M. Treves has recently experimented to ascertain the effect of magnetism upon the casting of iron. Two small moulds were made to receive equal quantities of precisely similar molten iron, but under different conditions; one was placed so as to be entirely removed from any magnetic influence, while the other was placed in the axis of a powerful electro-magnet, actuated by twelve of Bunsen's elements. The moulds were filled with the molten metal, and, after they had cooled, the two moulds were broken up, when no difference was observed in the crystallization of the iron, but the iron exposed to the magnetic influence had become magnetic, and it remained feebly so.

Electro-capillary Actions.—In his sixth memoir on electro-capillary actions, M. Becquerel describes a process for obtaining a great number of hydrated oxides in the crystalline state. In a vessel containing a solution of nitrate of copper, a smaller vessel, one side of which was composed of parchment-paper, was placed, containing aluminate of potash. Nitrate of potash was produced, but in the place of aluminate of copper; in the porous vessel crystals of hydrated alumina presented themselves, and on the outside crystals of hydrated oxide of copper formed. By replacing the aluminate of potash by silicates, M. Becquerel obtained hydrated silica sufficiently hard to scratch glass.

Experiments with a Great Induction Coil.—Mr. J. H. Pepper details in the London *Chemical News* some remarkable experiments made with the great induction coil at the Royal Polytechnic, London. The following are extracts from his papers:

The length of the coil from end to end is 9 feet 10 inches, and the diameter 2 feet; the whole is cased in ebonite; it stands on two strong pillars covered with ebonite, the feet of the pillars being a diameter of 22 inches. The ebonite tubes, etc., are the largest ever constructed by the Silver Town Works.

The total weight of the great coil is 15 cwt., that of the ebonite alone being 477 lbs.

The primary wire is made of copper, of the highest conductivity, and weighs 145 lbs.; the diameter of this wire is 0.0925 of an inch, and the length 3,770 yards. The number of revolutions of the primary wire round the core of soft iron is 6,000, its arrangement being 3, 6, and 12 strands.

The total resistance of the primary is 2,201,400 British Association units, and the resistances of the primary conductors are respectively—for three strands, 0.733800 B. A. U.; six, 0.366945 B. A. U; twelve, 0.1834725 B. A. U.

The primary core consists of extremely soft straight iron wires, 3 feet in length, and each wire is 0.0625 of an inch in diameter. The diameter of the combined wires is 4 inches, and the weight of the core is 123 lbs.

The secondary wire is 150 miles in length; it is

covered with silk throughout, and the average diameter is 0.015 of an inch.

The total weight of the wire is 606 lbs., and the resistance 33,560 B. A. units. The length of the secondary coil is 50 inches, and the insulation throughout is calculated to be 95 per cent. beyond that required. The secondary wire is insulated from the primary by means of an ebonite tube of one-half an inch in thickness and 8 feet in length.

The length of the secondary coil is 54 inches, the diameter is 19 inches, and without the internal ebonite tube containing the primary wire and iron core it is a cylinder 19 inches in diameter and 6 inches thick.

The condenser, made in the usual manner with sheets of varnished paper and tinfoil, is arranged in six parts, each containing 125 superficial feet, or 750 square feet of tinfoil in the whole.

A large and substantially-made contact-breaker, detached from the great coil and worked by an independent electro-magnet, was constructed and worked very well with a comparatively moderate power of 10 or 20 large Bunsen's cells; when, however, the battery was increased to 30 or 40 cells, it became unmanageable.

The Bunsen's battery used in the experiments was made with the largest porous cells that could be obtained, and each cell contained about one pint of nitric acid.

Some experiments were tried with the battery arranged for intensity, and used with the complete condenser of 750 square feet of tinfoil, and 1,500 square feet of paper. At first five cells were used, and these gave a spark 12 inches in length. The number of cells was gradually increased until 50 were in operation, when a spark from 28 to 29 inches in length was obtained.

Experiments were now tried to ascertain whether any increase in the length of the spark could be obtained by arranging the battery and the primary coil for *quantity*, but no material advantage was obtained by this arrangement: even where three groups of cells were connected, a decrease in the length of the spark is observed when compared with the 45 or 50 cells arranged for intensity, the difference being as 20 to 28.

The spark obtained from the large coil is thick and flame-like in its appearance, and therefore it will be alluded to as the "flaming spark."

When the discharging point and circular plate are brought within 6 or 7 inches of each other, the flaming nature of the spark becomes still more apparent.

Two light-yellow flames, curving upward, appear to connect the opposite poles. If a blast of air from powerful bellows is directed against a flaming spark, the flaming portion can be blown away and increased in area, and thin wiry sparks are now seen darting through it, sometimes in one continuous stream, at another time divided into three or more sparks, all following the direction in which the flame is blown.

The flaming spark is very hot, and, if passed through an asbestos (supported on an insulating pillar), quickly causes the latter to become red-hot.

The flaming spark has been ascribed by some experienced observers to the incandescence of the dust in the air, and especially sodium chloride.

To ascertain whether the "flaming spark" could be obtained with a small number of cells, the large Bunsen's battery was reduced to three cells, and it was found that no appreciable spark could be produced when the whole primary wire was used with less than five cells.

By reducing the length of the primary wire, and using the four divisions separately, with five cells the spark was wiry, and varied from 4½ inches to 6½ inches; with ten cells it was wiry, and varied from 8½ to 9½; in the latter the spark was slightly flaming. With fifteen cells the spark was slightly flaming, and varied from 10 inches to 11½ inches. With 20 cells a flaming spark varying from 11½ inches to 12½ inches was obtained.

When the two wires from the secondary coil are placed in water no spark is perceptible, even when the wire was brought very close together, until they touched.

If the negative wire is passed through a cork, on which a glass tube (a lamp-glass) is fixed containing a depth of 5 inches of water, and the positive wire is brought within half an inch of the surface of the water in the tube, it becomes red-hot, and if drawn further away from the surface the upper part of the tube is filled with a peculiar glow or light abounding in Stokes's rays.

The experiments with the vacuum-tube, and especially Gassiot's cascade, are, as might be expected, very beautiful. When a coal-gas vacuum-tube of considerable diameter, and conveying the full discharge from the secondary coil, is supported over a powerful electro-magnet axially, the discharge is condensed and heat is produced.

If placed equatorially, the heat increases greatly, and when the discharge is condensed, and impinges upon the sides of the glass tube, it becomes too hot to touch, and if the experiment was continued too long the tube would crack.

The enormous quantity of electricity of high tension which the coil evolves, when connected with a battery of forty cells, is shown by the rapidity with which it will charge a Leyden battery.

Under favorable circumstances, three contacts with the mercurial break will charge forty square feet of glass.

On one occasion a series of twelve large Leyden jars arranged in cascade were discharged; the noise was great; and each time the spark (which was very condensed and brilliant) struck the metallic disk, and the latter emitted a ringing sound, as if it had received a sharp blow from a small hammer.

The discharges were made from a point to a metallic disk; and, when the former was positive, the dense spark measured from 18½ to 18¾ inches, and fell to 8½ inches when the metallic plate was positive and the point negative.

Variations of the Leyden-jar experiments were tried by connecting the coil-work by a quantity battery of 25 + 25 cells with six Leyden jars arranged in cascade, and the spark obtained measured 8½ inches.

The same six jars connected with the coil, when the fifty cells were arranged continuously for intensity, gave a spark of 12 inches of very great density and brilliancy.

The Duration of an Electric Discharge.—The *American Journal of Science* for September contains a valuable paper, by Prof. Ogden N. Rood, of Columbia College, on the "Nature and Duration of the Discharge of a Leyden Jar connected with an Induction Coil," originally read before the National Academy of Sciences. The following are the more important portions of the paper:

In the year 1835, Wheatstone published in the Philosophical Transactions, Part II., page 583, an account of his celebrated experiment on the duration of the discharge of a Leyden jar charged by a common frictional machine. The light from the spark was received directly on a plane mirror revolving at rates between 30 and 800 times in a second; the mirror was driven by a set of multiplying wheels connected *by strings*. This apparatus was constructed by Mr. Saxton, of Washington, who at that time was residing in London. The eye of the observer was placed near the mirror, and as the image of the spark was not sensibly drawn out by the rotation of the mirror, Wheatstone concluded that its duration was less than the one millionth of a second, a result which was accepted by the scientific world for about a quarter of a century, passing unquestioned till the publication in 1858 of the first of an admirable series of investigations of this subject by Feddersen (Pogg.

Annalen, Bd. 103, Seite 69). This physicist employed a concave mirror with a radius of half a meter, driven by a train of *toothed wheels*, and obtained as high a rate of rotation as one hundred per second; the spark was generated in one of the conjugate foci of the mirror, and its image, formed at the other conjugate focus on a plate of ground glass, was in a condition to be conveniently seen and measured by the naked eye or to be photographed. It was found that the image of the spark was drawn out by the revolving mirror into a whitish streak, from 20 to 30 millimetres long, which, when a large amount of electricity was employed, was still further lengthened by the addition of a red tail of about the same dimensions, this latter being due to the gradual cooling of the heated particles. With a jar of 2.2 feet inner coating, the distance of the copper balls which served as electrodes being 1.5 millimetres, and all the connections as short as possible, the duration of the discharge exclusive of the red tail was .00004 of a second. It was also found by him, that an increase in the size of the coating of the jar or of the "striking distance" prolonged the duration of the discharge; so, for example with a spark 3.75 millimetres long, the duration of the whitish portion was .00007 of a second.

A series of observations detailed at the end of this article will point out a probable explanation of the great discrepancy existing between the results of Feddersen, which are undoubtedly correct, and those of Wheatstone. Finally, Feddersen in the course of his investigation found abundant proof of the oscillatory nature of the electric discharge, which had been predicted from the results of a set of experiments by Prof. Joseph Henry as far back as 1842.

I arranged in the first place an apparatus like that of Feddersen, but it was soon found that, to attain a rotation of one hundred per second, it was necessary in my case to employ a weight of 200 pounds, and in addition, when using this form, I labored under the disadvantage of not being able to vary the size or curvature of the mirror readily; in short, it was found to lack *flexibility*, a quality more necessary in the present case than in the investigation which engaged the attention of the German physicist. On this account I decided to employ a plane revolving mirror with a stationary achromatic lens. The addition of an extra wheel, with a few other mechanical changes, converted the train of wheels, furnished by Duboscq for Becquerel's phosphoroscope, into an admirable means for driving the revolving mirror, and, with a weight of 30 pounds, 300 rotations per second were readily obtained, the motion being smooth and sufficiently uniform. In order to measure the rate of rotation, the cylinder on the lowest wheel was made to wind up a fillet of paper, upon which dots were made by an electro-magnetic apparatus regulated by a seconds pendulum, when a simple calculation furnished the rate of the wheel to which the mirror was attached. By this method it became possible to put to a sharp test the regularity of the rate of the train, which was found in all cases to be considerably greater than was at all necessary. These determinations were afterward made with a watch having large second-spaces, the dots being made by hand, as the refinement of a seconds pendulum and battery was found for my purpose to be superfluous.

The mirrors employed were always plane, being sometimes silvered at the back, while for the most delicate observations the rear surface was painted with black varnish, so as to destroy the second reflection. They varied in size from 1.5 inches square, down to .2 by .5 in., and were used sometimes double on the axis back to back, and at other times four mirrors were employed together.

When brass points were used as electrodes, the following were the results of experiments to determine the total duration of the discharge, including both the yellow and white portions of the electric spark:

Rate of rotation per second.	No. of observations.	Distance of electrodes in millimetres.	Duration in seconds.
100	10	1	.000025
48	10	1	.000028

When platinum-points were used as electrodes, with a striking distance of three millimetres, the duration, as obtained, varied between .00004 and .00014 of a second. The duration of the yellow portion alone, with a rotation of 206 per second, was found to vary from .000003 to .000007 of a second.

Prof. Rood's greatest difficulty was to ascertain the duration of the white band or portion of the spark, in which a large proportion of its light resides, its superior brightness being to some extent isolated from the rest of the spark when points (instead of balls) are used as electrodes. His plan for effecting the object, and the conclusions at which he arrived, are thus detailed:

A small piece of cardboard was ruled with two black lines; their distance apart was .0067 inches, and they were separated by a space exactly equal to the width of a single line. A small dividing engine was used for their production; they were tested with a microscope. These lines were illuminated by the spark, and their image examined by an eye-piece magnifying five diameters. The breadth of the image of a single line on the ground glass was .011 inches; that is, each line subtended an angle of 2′ 24″, reckoning from the mirror. With a velocity of 223 per second the mirror is able to move the reflected image through 2′ 24″ in the .00000024 of a second. If now this first discharge had actually lasted this minute portion of time, it is evident that the motion of the mirror would just have carried the image of one of the black lines forward, so that, at the end of this infinitesmal period, it would have occupied the space where just before the white line had been traced: hence, owing to the retention of impressions by the retina the white central line would have been obliterated, and, in place of three lines, a gray band would have been seen. On the other hand, if the duration had been only one-tenth or one-fifth of the above-mentioned interval, the white line, not having been much encroached on, would still have remained visible. The correctness of the above reasoning can be experimentally proved, by means of a revolving disk of cardboard with a single slit cut in it, lines being drawn on its white side, and viewed by reflection with a mirror through the slit, the blackened side of the disk being turned toward the eye.

To facilitate matters, *three sets* of these lines were drawn on the small cardboard at considerable distances apart to prevent confusion, and while illuminated by the electric spark were examined with increasing velocities. With low rates they were quite unchanged in appearance, with a velocity as high as 102 per second, a duration of the first discharge of .00000052 seconds would just have obliterated them; they were, however, perfectly distinct, though more faintly traced: the rate of rotation was then by degrees carried up to 223 per second, when the lines were still distinctly visible, though of course with less contrast between the white and black than was the case with low velocities or a stationary mirror.

This experiment proves, then, that the duration of the light accompanying the first discharge is considerably less than .00000024 of a second, probably less than half this period, or less than one ten millionth of a second of time.

Electric Conductivity of Liquids.—Experiments have been made at the Sorbonne to

determine the electric conductivity of liquids, hitherto supposed to be insulators. Some of the results were as follows: Alcohol was easily decomposed, considerable quantities of hydrogen, mixed with some oxygen, being disengaged. Oil of turpentine is a far worse conductor, requiring twice the number of Bunsen's elements to decompose it as alcohol. Rectified petroleum is decomposed with great ease. The gas collected is inflammable, and during its combustion it deposits carbon on the sides of the bell-jar in which it is contained. This deposit may be due to the presence of petroleum vapor in the liberated gas. By the application of resisting coils and the rheostat the comparative conductivity of the various liquids experimented on could be accurately recorded. The following are some of the numbers obtained:

LIQUIDS.	Turns of Rheostat.	Conductivity.
Water	55	1,000
Petroleum	765	72
Sulphide of Carbon	1,000	55
Alcohol	1,130	49
Ether	1,375	40
Oil of Turpentine	2,380	23
Benzole	3,480	16

An Explanation of Polar Auroras and some Lightning Phenomena.—In *Comptes Rendus*, for May 31, 1869, is found a note by M. Le Roux, suggesting an explanation of certain meteorological phenomena. He had studied the luminous effects produced by electrostatic induction in rarefied gases, where the vessels containing them were formed of a continuous insulating material, and devoid of all metallic communication with the exterior, and he regards those effects as manifested by true currents which illuminate the gaseous masses in the body of which they are propagated. The same causes operating on the large scale of Nature, he thinks, must produce the luminous manifestations of the electricity of the globe to which is given the name of polar auroras; and he attributes the diffused part of the glows which constitute them to an electrostatical induction seated in the highest strata of the atmosphere under the influence of the discharges of the aurora. On the same hypothesis he explains a remarkable circumstance which often accompanies the lustre of the lightning-discharge. When the lightning strikes, it produces an illumination which surrounds the perfectly-serene regions of the sky, when there are any. This he supposes to be a manifestation of the return-shock which must take place in the higher regions of the atmosphere at the moment when, through the effect of the discharge which constitutes the lightning, the clouds revert to their neutral condition. As to heat-lightning, so called, which is observed in a clear sky at a certain height above the horizon, he has no doubt that it is due to the same cause—the propagation of electric currents through strata of rarefied air.

ELLIOTT, CHARLES, D. D., LL. D., a Methodist clergyman, editor, author, and college president, born in Killybegs, County Donegal, Ireland, May 6, 1792; died in Mount Pleasant, Iowa, January 6, 1869. He became connected with the Wesleyans very early, and, having resolved to enter the ministry in that connection, commenced a course of study, and in 1815 applied for admission to the University of Dublin, but was refused, because he could not conscientiously take the prescribed test. By the aid of some of the eminent scholars connected with the university, however, he succeeded in obtaining an education fully equivalent to that afforded in its regular course. He emigrated to America early in 1818, and was at once received into the travelling connection of the Ohio Conference. For the first four years he endured with cheerfulness the hardships of the itinerancy in a new country, travelling over extensive circuits, and experiencing all the privations of pioneer life. In 1822 he was appointed superintendent of the mission among the Wyandot Indians, at Upper Sandusky, and was about the same time appointed presiding elder of the Ohio District. In 1827 he was elected Professor of Languages in Madison College, Uniontown, Pa., where he remained four years. In 1831 he was stationed at Pittsburg, Pa., and soon after appointed presiding elder of that district. In 1833 he became editor of the *Pittsburg Conference Journal*, one of the official organs of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and after some years was transferred to the editorship of the *Western Christian Advocate*, at Cincinnati, in which post he remained till 1848. He then entered again upon the regular work of the clergy, but in 1852 was reëlected editor, this time of the *Central Christian Advocate* of St. Louis, and manifested the same ability which had rendered him so popular as an editor in his previous labors in that field of effort. In 1856 he was chosen president of the Wesleyan University at Mount Pleasant, Iowa, and served in that capacity till 1860, when he resigned, to complete an historical work on which he was engaged. In 1864 he was again elected president of the university, and served till 1867, when, feeling the infirmities of age, he asked to be put upon the superannuated-list. Besides his editorial labors, Dr. Elliott wrote a "Treatise on Baptism," 1834; "Reminiscences of the Wyandot Mission;" "Life of Bishop Roberts;" "Delineation of Roman Catholicism," 2 vols., 8vo, 1851; "History of the Great Secession from the Methodist Episcopal Church," 1855; "Political Romanism," 1858; "History of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the South and West from 1844 to 1866," 1868. A thorough scholar, with a vigorous and comprehensive intellect, a powerful and forcible rather than a remarkably graceful writer, and a man who did well whatever he undertook to do, Dr. Elliott has left behind him an enviable reputation.

ELLIS, Sir HENRY, K. H., LL. D., F. R. S., F. S. A., an English bibliographer, antiquarian, and author, for fifty-six years connected with the British Museum, born in London, November 29, 1777; died there, November 15, 1869. He was educated at the Merchant Tailors' School, and at St. John's College, Oxford, where he graduated A. B., in 1799, and B. C. L., 1802; was assistant-librarian of the Bodleian Library, at Oxford, in 1797 and till 1800; in 1800 he was temporarily employed as an assistant at the British Museum; in 1805 he was appointed Assistant-Librarian; in 1806, Keeper of the Printed Books; in 1812 transferred to the Department of Manuscripts; and in 1814 appointed Secretary. In 1827 he was made Principal Librarian of the Museum, and continued in that position till 1856, when he resigned. From 1849 to 1856 he also served as Secretary of the Museum. He was Secretary of the Society of Antiquaries from 1813 to 1854, and Director of the Society from 1854 to 1858, and edited their annual volumes of *Archæologia*, collecting valuable documents for it, and occasionally, though rarely, adding some important essays of his own. Aside from this labor, Sir Henry was, during his long career, constantly engaged in literary labors, mostly rather in the way of editing and compiling than in the production of original works. He edited in this way, with many valuable annotations, and prefaces, and memoirs, three of the fifteen volumes quarto of "Old English Chronicles;" two volumes quarto of "Brand's Observations on Popular Antiquities;" a "General Introduction," in two volumes, 8vo, to "Domesday Book;" a very elaborate edition of Dugdale's "*Monasticum Anglicanum*," in eight quarto volumes; Dugdale's "History of St. Paul's Cathedral," with large additions, in one volume; twelve volumes of "Original Letters Illustrative of English History," the letters being selected with excellent judgment by Sir Henry; four volumes for the "Library of Entertaining Knowledge," on the Elgin, Phigalean and Townley Marbles in the British Museum; seven or eight volumes, and parts of volumes, for the Camden Society, and the "Latin Chronicle of John of Oxenedes," for the Master of the Rolls. He received the Hanoverian Guelphic Order of Knighthood from William IV., in 1833; was elected a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries in 1807, and of the Royal Society in 1811. He was also a Fellow of the Geological Society, Vice-President of the Royal Literary Fund, and member of most of the learned and antiquarian societies of the Continent of Europe.

EUROPE. During the year 1869 affairs in Europe were of a more peaceful character than in 1868. In Spain, the political excitement attending the reconstruction of the country led several times to violent outbreaks. The majority of the Cortes, in union with the Government, showed themselves bent upon restoring the monarchical form of government, while the Republican party, being apparently a minority of the people, but fully controlling most of the large cities and several provinces, showed itself determined to leave no means, including even an appeal to arms, untried to secure to the country the most popular form of self-government, through the establishment of republican institutions. These attempts were, however, unsuccessful; the Government made its authority respected by prompt and energetic action, and came at length to the understanding with the majority of the Cortes that the most suitable candidate for the throne would be the Duke of Genoa, nephew of King Victor Emmanuel of Italy. At the end of the year no election had, however, been held. (*See* SPAIN.)

The Spanish Government remained unwavering in its determination to subdue the revolution in Cuba, continued throughout the year to send reënforcements of troops to the island, and declined to enter into any diplomatic negotiations concerning it with other powers. At the close of the year the war was not ended. (*See* CUBA.)

In France, new elections took place for the Corps Législatif, which proved that the Opposition was gaining a little more ground, and a great deal more courage. The city of Paris elected many of the most violent Republicans of France, adding, to those who were in the Legislative body before, such men as Bancel, Gambetta, Raspail, Rochefort, Emmanuel Arago, and others. In a number of large cities, tumults occurred at the elections, all of which were easily quelled. The Emperor was, however, induced by these movements to make, on opening the Chambers in November, far-going promises of liberal reforms, inviting an abandonment of the principle of personal, and a restoration of constitutional or parliamentary government. This change of government satisfied moderate Liberals, like Ollivier, while the more advanced Radicals will be satisfied with nothing short of the reëstablishment of the republic. (*See* FRANCE.)

In Great Britain, the Liberal Ministry of Gladstone carried one of the greatest reform measures in the history of the country during the present century, the disestablishment of the Anglican Church in Ireland, to a successful end. The House of Lords made a faint attempt to use its power and interpose its veto, but the threat of the Government, that in such a case it would appeal to the country, made the Lords at once recede from their position. The next great question, which is likely to engage the attention of Parliament during the coming year, is the land reform. (*See* GREAT BRITAIN.)

The Liberal Ministry of Austria continues to grapple courageously with the immense difficulties which obstruct the reconstruction and consolidation of the empire. Hungary is fully reconciled, for she obtained all she wanted; but two other powerful nationalities of the

empire, the Czechs of Bohemia and Moravia, and the Poles of Gallicia, are now demanding the same semi-independent administration, and the division of the empire into four autonomous parts. The government, though it has not yet made up its mind to grant these demands, again declared in 1869 its readiness to grant far-reaching concessions, which, of course, will strengthen instead of arresting the decentralizing movement. A serious outbreak, which took place in the latter part of the year among the Slavi of Dalmatia, arose in the first place from an obnoxious military law, not from the nationality question; but the avowed sympathy of the Slavi of Russia and Turkey with the movement must have again convinced the statesmen of Austria that, as long as they do not succeed in bringing the nationality difficulty to a satisfactory close, they must expect serious troubles from every new complication. (*See* AUSTRIA.)

Prussia is still satisfied with the beginning that has been made in the consolidation of Germany, and is quietly awaiting the steps which the South-German Governments may take toward joining the union. In the Grand-duchy of Baden, the government and people are in full accord in desiring to hasten the entrance of Baden into the union as much as possible; but, in Bavaria, the Catholic party is at present master of the situation, and the last elections held in November gave to the uncompromising opponents of union a decided majority in the Second Chamber.

The principal features in the policy of Russia were, again, the efforts to destroy wholly the Polish nationality, and to strengthen and enlarge its conquests in Central Asia. The cruelty with which the former design is carried out has but few parallels in modern history; but none of the great powers found it in their interest to interfere. In the other question, that of Central Asia, Russia is advancing with great caution, in order to allay as much as possible the suspicions of England; but this caution barely conceals the tenacity with which she pursues the traditional policy of establishing Russian ascendency in Asiatic politics. (*See* RUSSIA.)

The Government of Turkey had, in 1869, less than its usual measure of trouble. The insurrection of Candia was, at the beginning of the year, wholly subdued, and no revolutionary movements of importance occurred in any other part of the empire. Serious difficulties arose, however, on the one hand with Persia, and on the other with Egypt. Both, though threatening immediate wars, were diplomatically adjusted, but are certain to appear again. (*See* TURKEY; EGYPT.)

At the close of the year 1869, according to the official censuses, or calculations published at that time, the population of the countries of Europe, in all about 294,500,000, was as follows (the countries being arranged in order of the population):

COUNTRIES.	Population.	Year of Census, or of official Calculation.	Per cent. of Total Population of Europe.
Russia	68,200,000	1863-'65	23.2
France	38,192,064	1866	13.0
Austro-Hungarian Monarchy	35,553,000	1865	12.2
Great Britain and Ireland	30,260,000	1868	10.3
North-German Confederat'n	29,906,092	1867	10.2
Italy	25,527,915	1867	8.7
Spain	16,046,217	1864	5.5
Turkey	10,510,000	(estimated)	3.6
South-German States	8,608,446	1867	3.0
Sweden and Norway	5,815,897	1865	2.0
Belgium	4,897,794	1867	1.7
Rumania	4,605,510	1865	1.5
Portugal	3,984,045	1863	1.4
Netherlands (& Luxemburg)	3,898,000	1867-'68	1.3
Switzerland	2,510,494	1868	0.8
Denmark	1,753,787	1868	0.6
Greece	1,348,522	1861-'65	0.5
Servia	1,222,000	1865	0.4
Papal States	722,121	1863	0.2
Montenegro	100,000	(estimated)	
Andorra	12,000	(estimated)	
Liechtenstein	8,330	1867	0.1
San Marino	7,303	1869	
Monaco	8,127	1865	

The following table exhibits the countries of Europe in order of their extent, together with the percentage each constitutes of the total area of Europe, which is about 3,781,000 square miles:

COUNTRIES.	Square Miles.	Per cent. of total area of Europe.
Russia (European)	2,050,313	54.8
Sweden and Norway	290,930	7.7
Austro-Hungarian Monarchy	240,381	6.3
France	209,428	5.5
Spain	195,607	5.1
North-German Confederation	160,207	4.2
Turkey (European)	133,980	3.5
Great Britain and Ireland	121,115	3.2
Italy	109,837	2.9
Rumania	46,700	1.2
South-German States	44,423	1.2
Portugal	37,977	0.9
Greece	19,353	0.5
Servia	16,816	0.4
Switzerland	15,722	0.4
Denmark	14,732	0.4
Netherlands (and Luxemburg)	12,680	0.4
Belgium	11,373	0.3
Papal States	4,552	0.1
Montenegro	1,700	...
Andorra	149	...
Liechtenstein	62	...
San Marino	21	...
Monaco	5	...

EXETER, Right Rev. HENRY PHILLPOTTS, D. D., Lord Bishop of, an English prelate, author, and controversialist, born in Bridgwater, Somersetshire, May 6, 1778; died at Bishopstowe, near Torquay, September 18, 1869. While he was yet a child, his father removed to Gloucester, and became the landlord of the Bell Inn, of that city. The son received his early education at the Cathedral School of Gloucester, and at the age of thirteen competed successfully for a scholarship at Corpus Christi College, Oxford, where he graduated B. A. in June, 1795, and, a few weeks later, while but

seventeen years old, was elected to a Somersetshire Fellowship at Magdalen College. Under the influence of Dr. Routh, principal of Magdalen College, he commenced the study of theology and of the works of the early fathers, but did not receive deacon's orders till 1802, having previously been elected Prælector of Moral Philosophy, and one of the public examiners of the candidates for honors. In 1804 he was ordained priest, and married the same year to Miss Surtees, a niece of Lady Eldon. He was offered the next year (1805) the principalship of Hertford College, but declined it. He was presented to two livings by the Crown (through Lord Eldon's influence), both sinecures. In 1806 he added to his other appointments that of chaplain to the Bishop of Durham, and defended his patron, in some brilliant pamphlets, against the strictures of Lingard, the Roman Catholic historian. Further preferments awaited him; he was appointed Vicar of Bishop's Middleham, near Durham, in 1806; Rector of Gateshead, and master of King James Hospital there, in 1808; assigned to a prebendal stall in Durham Cathedral in 1809; appointed incumbent of St. Margaret's Chapel, Durham, in 1810; and in 1814 another, and far richer, prebendal stall in Durham Cathedral was conferred on him. Thus, at thirty-six years of age, and when he had been in priest's orders but ten years, he was holding five livings and two prebendal stalls, and, soon after, was offered, but declined, the Irish bishopric of Clogher. Mr. Phillpotts was emphatically High Church in his religious views, and almost necessarily intensely conservative in his political opinions; and with these sentiments he combined a bitter and argumentative hostility to Roman Catholicism. It is not matter of surprise, then, that his earlier as well as his later publications should have been devoted either to the defense of the Conservative Government and its measures, the support of old practices and abuses, or to vigorous, though not always very temperate, assaults on Catholicism. In 1820 the valuable living of Stanhope fell vacant, and was conferred at once by the Bishop of Durham upon Mr. Phillpotts. Here he lived in baronial style, and, being county magistrate as well as clergyman, managed to have some controversy on his hands most of the time. His nature was so combative that he could not rest without some conflict, religious, political, or dogmatical on hand, and, for the next eight years, he bombarded the nation with pamphlets on all these topics, and made himself feared by his opponents. To this period also belongs one of the ablest of his controversial works; and one which, for its exceptional fairness, justice, and logical power, will always be regarded as his greatest contribution to polemic literature—"Letters to Charles Butler, Esq., on his Book of the Roman Catholic Church." A supplementary letter, in a small volume, was published the next year (1826). It is, perhaps, the highest compliment that can be paid to these "Letters," to say that they resulted in cementing a warm personal friendship between Mr. Butler and his able antagonist, which continued through their lives, notwithstanding their widely diverse opinions. In 1827 Dr. Phillpotts discussed in another volume the question, then a vitally important one in English parties, how far it would be safe to concede the Roman Catholic claims? And, while his hostility to the Catholics was in no whit abated, and he vigorously opposed any concessions to them without sufficient guarantees, he yet differed from most of his conservative friends, in avowing his belief that they could give guarantees which ought to be regarded as sufficient, without violating their consciences. He opposed, however, the measures proposed by Canning, then premier, and the bills brought forward by Mr. Stanley (afterward Earl of Derby), (*see* DERBY, in this volume), and persisted that they did not require sufficient assurances of the national safety. In 1828 the Duke of Wellington, then premier, nominated Dr. Phillpotts to the deanery of Chester, and his enemies insisted, most unwarrantably, the duke himself being witness, that this promotion and that to the bishopric of Exeter, which followed in 1830, were the price paid to him for his abandonment of his anti-Catholic prejudices. His subsequent career showed that these charges were utterly unfounded. He was consecrated bishop, January 2, 1831, and the following autumn made several able speeches in the House of Lords, where he soon proved himself one of the readiest and soundest debaters in that body. In these he took, as heretofore, a high conservative position, and opposed the Catholics with all his old vigor. He was, for more than thirty sessions, a very constant attendant upon the sittings of the House of Lords, and was the most active and spirited debater among the lords spiritual. In his diocese he was an active tractarian and ritualist, sustaining with all his old force the Oxford Anglo-Catholic views, and putting the tractarians into the livings of the diocese wherever he could. He had almost always a controversy on hand with some recusant clergyman, and it was a common saying that the peace of the Church was more continually broken in Devonshire and Cornwall than throughout the whole of the rest of the kingdom. Of this fondness for controversy, as well as the extent to which he would carry it, the Gorham case, which made a great stir in its day was a conspicuous example. Mr. Gorham, already an old man, and an incumbent in the Diocese of Exeter, was preferred to the living of Bramford Speke. He was not tractarian nor High Church, and Bishop Phillpotts went out of his way to examine him, pronounced him unsound in the faith, and refused to institute him into the new living. Mr. Gorham appealed to the Privy Council, which gave judgment against the bishop; but he still refused to act. Archbishop Sumner (the Archbishop of Canterbury) hereupon very quietly

instituted Mr. Gorham in the living, over the bishop's head; whereupon that fiery prelate anathematized the archbishop. Mr. Gorham, however, lived and died Vicar of Bramford Speke, and even became reconciled to his diocesan. Archbishop Sumner survived the anathema of Bishop Phillpotts, and he did not venture upon carrying out his denunciations to their legitimate conclusion, by throwing up his see like the non-juring bishops of James II.'s time. The Bishop of Exeter was a most voluminous writer; the titles of his books and pamphlets fill nearly thirty pages of the British-Museum Catalogue; but they are mostly controversial, and comparatively few of them will survive their author.

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FELT, Rev. Joseph Barlow, LL. D., one of the most industrious and learned antiquarian writers and scholars in America, born in Salem, Mass., in 1789; died there, September 8, 1869. He was educated in Salem and at Dartmouth College, N. H., where he graduated in 1813; studied theology under the Rev. Samuel Worcester, D. D., and was licensed to preach in 1815. He was pastor at Sharon, Mass., from 1821 to 1824, and at Hamilton, Mass., from 1825 to 1834. But his largest usefulness was in labors outside of the ministry. Hardly any other man in New England had made himself so thoroughly acquainted with New England history as he. His tastes and habits of thought were those of an antiquarian. Many evidences of his patient labor are among the State archives of Massachusetts. In April, 1836, he was commissioned by Governor Everett to arrange the ancient State papers, which were in almost hopeless confusion. They are now comprised in several scores of carefully-classified volumes. In 1839 he was appointed to visit England to search for duplicate records, the originals of which had been lost. The British authorities declined, however, to allow Americans to have access to their offices at that time, fearing they might find evidence bearing upon the north-eastern boundary question, then pending. Dr. Felt accordingly postponed his visit until 1845, when he spent six weeks in England with successful results. He then returned, and finally completed his labor on the State archives in 1846. Of his published works, the principal are, the "Annals of Salem;" the "History of Ipswich, Essex, and Hamilton," in which are numerous biographies; the "Ecclesiastical History of New England," with various shorter biographical sketches and historical essays. In 1857 he received the degree of LL. D. from Dartmouth; and he bore many honorary titles from various antiquarian and historical societies.

FESSENDEN, William Pitt, LL. D., an American statesman, financier, and Senator, born in Boscawen, N. H., October 16, 1806; died in Portland, Me., September 8, 1869. His father was Samuel Fessenden, a distinguished lawyer in Maine, who preceded him to the tomb but a few months. He graduated at Bowdoin College in 1823, studied law, was admitted to the bar in 1827, opened an office in Bridgton, Cumberland County, Me., and in 1829 removed to Portland. In 1831 he was elected to the State Legislature, and, though the youngest member, he soon acquired marked distinction as a debater. From 1832 to 1839 Mr. Fessenden devoted himself exclusively to his profession, in which he very soon rose to the first rank, both as a counsellor and advocate. In 1838 he declined to become a candidate for Congress. The next year he was again in the State Legislature, and, although a Whig in a Democratic body, he was made chairman of the House Committee to revise the Statutes of the State. In 1840 he was nominated by acclamation as the Whig candidate for Congress, and was elected, outrunning the strength of his party. Although he was then but thirty-five years of age, he made a very favorable impression by his speeches on the Loan Bill, Bankrupt Act, Appropriation Bill, and other measures. He declined a renomination in 1843, and returned to his profession. In the same year he received the votes of his party in the Legislature for a vacant seat in the United States Senate. For the two years following he served in the Legislature. While a member, in 1845, he again received the votes of the Whigs of the Legislature for a seat in the United States Senate. From 1845 to 1852 he was in private life, devoting himself to his profession with a constantly-extending practice and reputation. During this period he attracted great attention in legal circles by his argument before the Supreme Court at Washington, by which he succeeded in reversing a decision by Judge Story. In 1850, in a contest for Congress, into which he had been unwillingly constrained, the seat was given to his competitor, but he declined to contest the decision, although his claims were believed to be valid. He was elected a member of the National Convention which nominated General Harrison for the presidency in 1840; was a member of the Convention of 1848, which nominated General Taylor, in which he supported the claims of Mr. Webster; and a member of the Convention of 1852, which nominated General Scott. In 1853 he was chosen United States Senator by one branch of the State Legislature, but, as a concurrent vote was required, there was no choice. In the succeeding year (1854) Mr. Fessenden was again a member of the Legislature, which was Democratic in both branches.

The Kansas-Nebraska question operating as a disturbing element, Mr. Fessenden was now chosen Senator by both branches on the first ballot by a union of the Whigs and Free-soil Democrats. This signalized the formation of the Republican party in Maine, in which Mr. Fessenden remained ever afterward a leading exponent. He took his seat in the Senate on the 23d of February, 1854, and on the night of March 3d made one of the most eloquent and effective speeches delivered against the Nebraska Bill. He reviewed the whole history of the bill, showed its bearings and necessary results, claiming that the South already received her full dues, and the whole cause of dissension was a desire on the part of the South to rob the North of the little left her. This effort made him at once a leading member of the Senate, and his voice was heard whenever any important question was in order. Thus we find him introducing the French Spoliation Bill; opposing a bill to increase the army; discussing a bill to protect United States officers; speaking on the relations with England, on Kansas affairs, on the Iowa Senatorial election, etc., etc. He reviewed President Buchanan's message on the Kansas question in the most severe manner, charging not only that its tone was partisan and partial, but that it ignored well-known facts, and stated things that could not be true. During all this time he was doing his share of the business of the Senate, and was a leading member of the Finance Committee. Returned to the Senate for six years, in 1859, and that without the formality of a previous nomination, he was at once made chairman of the Finance and Library Committees, and appointed a Regent of the Smithsonian Institution. Bowdoin College had conferred on him the degree of LL. D., in 1858, and Harvard paid him the same compliment in 1864. He was one of the members of the Peace Conference which met in February, 1861. Throughout the war, Mr. Fessenden, in his character of Senator, was a firm friend and ally of the Union cause, giving it the assistance of his logic, eloquence, and counsel, and, as chairman of the Finance Committee, aiding the Secretary of the Treasury in maintaining the national credit. Mr. Chase resigned his secretaryship on the 30th of June, 1864. An instant panic ensued, and gold, that subtle index of public feeling, rose from 90 premium on June 30th to 185 premium on July 11th. The new secretary would be expected to quiet this storm, and Mr. Fessenden was chosen by President Lincoln as the new secretary. He hesitated to accept. His health was delicate, and the responsibility difficult and overwhelming. Senators and Cabinet officers urged, however, and he entered on his duties on the 5th of July. The whole country looked to him for aid. The paper dollar was worth only thirty-four cents. The sale of new loans had been provided for, but they found comparatively few purchasers. Germany, Holland, and Switzerland, were our only foreign markets, and national bankruptcy seemed at least possible. Mr. Fessenden then found it his duty, and a duty as imperative as it was arduous, to raise at once the large sums necessary for carrying on the war, and at the same time to enhance the value of the securities already afloat. What were needed to effect this were victories. Who had faith in victories to come? The people. To them, then, would the secretary appeal, and to them were offered the renowned seven-thirties. The people only needed an opportunity to attest their faith in the future, and the subscriptions poured in by millions every day. By withholding any further immediate issue of greenbacks, the State banks were induced to adopt the national system. So successful had been Mr. Fessenden's policy, that, on resigning his chair to return to the Senate on the 4th of March, 1865, gold had fallen to 99 premium, and on the 11th of May following it stood at 30. Another part of the secretary's policy was urging on Congress the necessity and possibility of a more comprehensive and effective system of taxation. During this time he had been reëlected to the Senate for six years. In the spring of 1868 the trial of President Johnson occupied the attention of Congress. Mr. Fessenden, in his capacity as Senator, was an *ex-officio* juror. As the days passed, now bringing tidings of the close of evidence, the tedious summing up, and the delay of preparing for the question, it became rumored about that certain Republican Senators would vote for the President's acquittal, and among them was named Mr. Fessenden. He had, it was true, voted for the passage of the Tenure-of-office Act over the President's veto; his whole congressional record had been above reproach; and during his secretaryship his judgment had been severely tested. Still, the rumor proved correct, and Senator Fessenden's vote was given on the side of acquittal. For this he gave his reasons. After going over the case at length, he said:

> In the case of an elective Chief Magistrate of a great and powerful people, living under a written Constitution, there is much more at stake in such a proceeding than the fate of the individual. The office of President is one of the great coördinate branches of the Government, having its defined powers, privileges, and duties; as essential to the very framework of the Government as any other, and to be touched with as careful a hand. Any thing which conduces to weaken its hold upon the respect of the people, to break down the barriers which surround it, to make it the mere sport of temporary majorities, tends to the great injury of our Government, and inflicts a wound upon constitutional liberty. It is evident, then, as it seems to me, that the offence for which a Chief Magistrate is removed from office, and the power intrusted to him by the people transferred to other hands, and especially where the hands which receive it are to be the same which take it from him, should be of such a character as to commend itself at once to the minds of all right-thinking men as beyond all question an adequate cause. It should be free from the taint of party; leave no reasonable ground of suspicion upon the motives of those who inflict the

penalty, and address itself to the country and the civilized world as a measure justly called for by the gravity of the crime and the necessity for its punishment.

The power of impeachment is conferred by the Constitution in terms so general as to occasion great diversity of opinion with regard to the nature of offences which may be held to constitute crimes or misdemeanors, within its intent and meaning (some contending that only such crimes are intended as are subject to punishment as a violation of a known law; others claiming that the judges may decide as to what is the crime).

To the suggestion that popular opinion demands the conviction of the President on these charges, I reply, that he is not now on trial before the people, but before the Senate. In the words of Lord Eldon, upon the trial of the Queen, "I take no notice of what is passing out of doors, because I am supposed constitutionally not to be acquainted with it." And again, "It is the duty of those on whom a judicial task is imposed to meet reproach, and not court popularity." The people have not heard the evidence as we have heard it. The responsibility is not upon them, but upon us. They have not taken an oath to "do impartial justice according to the Constitution and the laws." I have taken that oath. I cannot render judgment upon their convictions, nor can they transfer to themselves my punishment if I violate my own. And I should consider myself undeserving the confidence of that just and intelligent people who imposed upon me this great responsibility, and unworthy a place among honorable men, if, for any fear of public reprobation, and for the sake of securing popular favor, I should disregard the conviction of my judgment and my conscience.

His vote was cast in accordance with these opinions, and he endured its effect. For the time he was everywhere condemned, and it seemed that the hold he had so long possessed on the affections of the people of his own State was finally broken. As the months went by, and especially after his active efforts in behalf of the election of General Grant, Mr. Fessenden began to regain his former position; and during the last session of Congress little of the intense bitterness which followed the first announcement of the verdict on impeachment was longer visible, either in the conduct of his fellow-Senators or in his general treatment at the capital and in his own State. In some respects Mr. Fessenden was the foremost Senator during his long time of service. In many critical stages of legislation his word was decisive, and few are the measures adopted by Congress during the last fifteen years which do not bear the marks of his acute intellect and his steady devotion to the public interests. This honorable distinction is not due so much to his learning or to any striking originality of genius, as to the singular harmony of his powers for the legislative arena. He was equally quick and cool; no assault could disturb his equanimity, and his attack was as adroit as it was vigorous. He had a great faculty of condensation, of going straight to the point, of using none but the most direct and lucid English. In his arguments at the bar he rarely exceeded three-fourths of an hour in speaking, and when he was transferred to the Senate he was the best follower that Webster ever had there in clear and compact statement. But what particularly gave force to his words was, the high character of the man. Mr. Fessenden had long suffered from chronic dyspepsia—had been, in fact, for many years, to a greater or less degree, a constant invalid.

FINANCES OF THE UNITED STATES. In the general system of finance adopted by the Federal Government, no change took place during the year. In its administration there was an improvement arising from the more rigid responsibility to which officers of the Treasury Department were held, and from the application of a portion of the receipts to a reduction of the debt. The effect has been to improve the condition of the Treasury, and to rouse the confidence of the public in the value of its obligations.

In the annual report of the Secretary of the Treasury, made December, 1868, there was presented a statement of the receipts and expenditures of the Government for the first quarter of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, and an estimate of the same for the remaining three-quarters of the year. The receipts and expenditures of the first quarter above mentioned, ending on September 30, 1868, were as follows:

The receipts from customs	$49,676,594	
The receipts from lands	714,895	
The receipts from direct tax	15,536	
The receipts from internal revenue,	38,735,663	
The receipts from miscellaneous sources (of which amount there was received, from premium on bonds sold to redeem Treasury notes, the sum of $587,725)	6,949,979	
Total receipts, exclusive of loans		$95,892,867
Expenditures for the civil service (of which amount there was paid, as premium on purchase of Treasury notes prior to maturity, $300,000)	$21,227,106	
Expenditures for pensions and Indians	12,356,647	
Expenditures for War Department	27,219,117	
Expenditures for Navy Department	5,604,785	
Expenditures for interest on public debt	38,742,814	
Total expenditures, exclusive of principal of public debt		$105,152,479

The estimated receipts and expenditures of the remaining three-quarters of the same year—ending June 30, 1869—were as follows:

From customs	$125,000,000 00
From lands	1,000,000 00
From internal revenue	100,000,000 00
From miscellaneous sources	20,000,000 00
Receipts	$246,000,000 00

The estimated expenditures for the same period, if there was no reduction of the army, were—

For the civil service	$40,000,000 00
For pensions and Indians	18,000,000 00
For War Department, including $6,000,000 bounties	66,000,000 00
For Navy Department	16,000,000 00
For interest on public debt	91,000,000 00
Expenditures	$231,000,000 00
Thus making an estimated surplus of $15,000,000.	

The actual receipts and expenditures, however, of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, were as follows:

Receipts from customs	$180,048,426 63
" " internal revenue	158,356,460 86
" " lands	4,030,344 34
" " direct tax	765,985 61
" " miscellaneous	27,752,889 77
Total, exclusive of loans	$370,943,747 21
Expenditures for civil service and miscellaneous	$56,474,061 53
Expenditures for pensions and indians	35,519,544 84
" " War Department	78,501,990 61
" " Navy Department	20,000,757 97
" " interest on public debt	130,694,942 80
" " premium on 7-30 notes	300,000 00
Total, exclusive of loans	$321,490,597 75
Receipts in excess of expenditures	$49,453,149 46

The receipts and expenditures for the quarter ending September 30, 1869, which is the first quarter of the fiscal year ending in 1870, were as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Customs	$52,598,991 96
Internal revenue	47,926,852 51
Lands	806,864 08
Miscellaneous sources	7,412,483 57
Total, exclusive of loans	$108,831,632 02

EXPENDITURES,

After deducting the amount of repayments by disbursing officers and others:

Civil service and miscellaneous	$15,102,202 05	
Indians and pensions	13,547,942 79	
War Department	13,595,468 05	
Navy Department	5,782,630 96	
Interest on the public debt	37,452,270 74	
Total, exclusive of loans		85,480,514 59
Receipts in excess of expenditures		$23,351,107 43

The estimated receipts and expenditures for the three remaining quarters of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1870, were as follows:

RECEIPTS.

Customs	$135,000,000 00
Internal revenue	127,000,000 00
Lands	4,000,000 00
Miscellaneous sources	20,000,000 00
Total	$286,000,000 00

EXPENDITURES.

Civil service and miscellaneous	$40,000,000 00	
Pensions and Indians	21,000,000 00	
War Department	40,500,000 00	
Navy Department	14,000,000 00	
Interest on the public debt	93,750,000 00	
Total		$209,250,000 00
Estimated receipts in excess of expenditures		$76,750,000 00

The amount of the public debt at different periods of the year, as stated by the Secretary, has been as follows:

June 30, 1868		$2,636,390,964
November 1, 1868 (less cash)		2,527,129,552
March 1, 1869	"	2,525,453,260
June 30, 1869	"	.....
December 1, 1869,	"	2,453,559,735

This statement shows a decrease from March to December of $71,903,524. The bonds issued by the United States in aid of railroads, amounting to $62,625,320, being in the nature of a loan, have not been included by the Secretary in the statement of the total amount of the debt.

During the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, there was an excess of receipts over expenditures, including interest on the public debt, of $49,453,149.46. Of this excess, about $12,992,370.03 arose previous to March 1st, and the remainder, $36,460,779.43, between that time and July 1st. This excess of receipts was used from time to time to purchase five-twenty bonds. These purchases have amounted in the aggregate to $75,476,800, up to December 1st. This excess of receipts came from both the direct taxes and the duties on imports, which latter were paid in gold. The amount of coin on hand becoming thus very large, sales of gold have been made from time to time, and the proceeds applied to the purchase of bonds as aforesaid. The average premium on the gold thus sold, subsequent to March 1st, was $32\frac{6}{11}$ per cent., and the average premium paid for bonds during the same time was $16\frac{35}{100}$ per cent. Upon this basis of the sales of gold and the purchase of bonds, the average price paid for bonds in coin was $88\frac{11}{1007}$ per cent.

As early as February, 1862, among the first measures adopted by Congress to provide for the expenses of the war, an act was passed which required that the coin received for duties on imported goods should be annually set apart as a sinking fund to the extent of one per centum of the entire debt of the United States. No action had been taken by the Treasury Department in obedience to this statute, previous to March, 1869. The Secretary reported to Congress, in December, that of the $75,476,800 of bonds which he had purchased, he regarded the amount of $20,044,800 as belonging to the sinking fund, and purchased in conformity with the act of Congress. The remainder, amounting to $55,432,000, he held as a special fund, subject to the action of Congress, and he recommended that it be added to the sinking fund, and that any future purchases that he might make should be likewise so added, until the gross amount shall constitute a fund equal to that which would have been created if there had been no delay in the execution of the law.

While the receipts of the Government continued very favorable, and the debt was somewhat diminished during the year, the currency or Government notes still continued depreciated. This was ascribed by the Secretary to an excessive issue, and to a want of faith in the Government. The extent of this overissue

cannot, in his opinion, be accurately determined until the credit of the Government shall be so improved, at home and abroad, that holders of bonds are disposed to retain them, even when the public mind is excited upon financial subjects. Since the close of the war the wants of the States of the South have increased, and consequently a large amount of currency has been withdrawn from other sections to supply the demand there created. This demand is likely to increase during the next two years. It is likely that not less than thirty millions will be required to meet the substitution of paper for coin by the people on the Pacific coast. It is thought by the Secretary that the coin will thereby be increased on the Atlantic coast, and the difference between paper and coin be diminished.

In this condition of the debt, the revenue and the currency issued, the most important public consideration arose respecting the views and purposes of the Government in its future financial policy. The restoration of a sound currency, and the prompt payment of principal and interest of the debt, with a due regard to the welfare and prosperity of the country, were duties which could be neither avoided nor postponed. How should they be discharged, was the question of the day. The Secretary did not propose an immediate return to specie payments. In his opinion the ability of the country to resume these payments did not depend on any special legislation, but on the condition of its industries and its financial relations to other countries. The argument of the Treasury on this important point is embraced in these words:

"The fundamental condition for the payment of over-due or irredeemable paper is, undoubtedly, that the debtor shall have wherewith to pay. The necessity that the products of industry for export should approach an equality in value with those imported, in order to prevent a demand for specie, is equally true." But there are influences operating an increase or a diminution of the products of industry which seem to be overlooked by the Secretary. Paper money itself exerts a deleterious influence on importations, while excessive taxation is depressing to labor, and, by diminishing ability to consume, reduces the demand for production.

The Secretary, however, considers that one of the most efficient means of strengthening the country in its financial relations with other countries is the development of the commercial marine; that is, the increase of the means for the transportation of merchandise on water. Having done this, and thereby become able to carry exports and imports which are now taken in foreign ships, the country would earn the freight which is now paid to these foreign carriers, and which amounts to forty-seven millions annually. A portion of this amount would be payable to American citizens in foreign countries, and add so much to the ability to pay for the goods imported from those countries. This item thus obtained would undoubtedly add something to the ability of the country. But the development of the commercial marine of the country is a work of years, and requires an entire modification of some of the revenue laws of Congress. So conscious is the Secretary of the little immediate aid to be derived from this source, that he declares such a delay in the resumption of specie payments is not anticipated to be necessary. But he expressly indicates his opinion, that it will not be wise to resume specie payments while so large a part of the interest-bearing debt of the country is represented by five-twenty bonds, and held by European merchants, bankers, and manufacturers. He thinks that from seven to nine hundred millions of these bonds are now held in Europe, and to a considerable extent by persons who retain them for speculative purposes, with the design to put them upon the market whenever the advance shall furnish a sufficient inducement, or when political or financial disturbances may create a demand for other purposes. The view of the Government is, that resumption in itself is a simple matter, but the important point to be gained is, a resumption under such circumstances that the position can be maintained, not only in times of tranquillity, but also in periods of excitement and peril.

Entertaining these views of the circumstances which exist, it becomes a matter of interest to learn the measures by which the Secretary proposes to obviate them. To his view the path into the future opens very plainly. He sees that every measure of the Government bearing upon the subject should tend to appreciate the value of the paper currency, and, as some decrease in the volume of paper may be ultimately necessary, the Secretary should be clothed with authority to reduce the circulation of United States notes about two millions of dollars per month. The effect of this will be to bring the country gradually ($356,113,258 outstanding) into a condition when resumption may be made easy.

With regard to the debt of the country, it presents the following features, which are to be taken into the account in any plan for its adjustment. On December 1, 1869, the principal of the public debt of the United States, not deducting bonds and cash on hand, amounted to $2,605,286,789.82. Of this amount, the sum of $356,113,258.50 was represented by United States notes not bearing interest. A large part of this is needed for circulation, but the amount can be reduced, from the ordinary revenue of the country. The fractional currency in circulation was $38,885,564.68. There were outstanding, also, certificates for gold deposited in the Treasury to the amount of $36,862,940. These certificates are redeemable on presentation. These three items amount in the aggregate to $431,861,763.18, and in making provision for the public debt they are not necessarily to be considered.

Of the loan of January 1, 1861, the sum of $7,022,000 is outstanding, and payable on the 1st of January, 1871. The loan of 1858, of $20,000,000, is payable in 1873. The bonds known as ten-forties, amounting to $194,567,300, are not payable until 1874. The six per cent. bonds, payable in 1881, amount to $283,677,600. The bonds known as eighty-ones and ten-forties, amounting in the aggregate to $478,244,900, are not payable and cannot be paid previous to 1874 and 1881. The five-twenty bonds, amounting in the aggregate to $1,602,671,100, are either payable or will soon become payable, and it is to this class of the public debt alone that attention should be directed.

Of this amount, the sum of $75,477,800 has been purchased since March last, and the bonds are now held by the Government. Before any measure for funding the five-twenty bonds can be consummated, the Government will be able to purchase, at least, $75,000,000 more. There will then remain, on the 1st of July, 1870, about $1,450,000,000 of the five-twenty bonds in the hands of the public creditors. Of the entire indebtedness of the United States only the unimportant sum of $27,000,000, will be payable previous to 1874. It is the funding of the whole amount of these five-twenty bonds, except about $250,000,000, which the Secretary recommends to be done. The amount thus excepted might, in his opinion, be purchased or redeemed previous to 1874. Between 1874 and 1881, the ten-forty bonds could be paid and provision made for the redemption of the bonds payable in 1881. Supposing the proposed loan is for an amount not exceeding $1,200,000,000, he would offer it in three classes of $400,000,000 each, of which the first class should be paid in twenty years, the second class in twenty-five years, and the third class in thirty years. The conditions of the loan should be, that the principal and interest shall be made payable in coin; that the bonds known as five-twenties shall be received in exchange for the new bonds; that the principal shall be payable in the United States, and interest payable either here or in Europe; that the rate of interest shall not exceed four and a half per cent. per annum; that the subscribers in Europe shall receive their interest at London, Paris, Berlin, or Frankfort; that the bonds, both principal and interest, shall be free from all taxes, deductions, or abatements of any sort, unless it shall be thought wise to subject citizens of the United States to such tax upon income from the bonds as is imposed by the laws of the United States upon income derived from other money investments.

In the opinion of the Secretary of the Treasury, the success of his proposed loan depends upon the continuance of the existing revenue system as an essential condition. The magnitude of the national revenue will furnish such a certainty that these bonds are soon to be redeemed, as to induce holders of the five-twenty bonds to surrender them and receive a bond upon a longer time and at a lower rate of interest. The reduction of the revenue is regarded as a measure to take place after this funding of the debt shall have been completed; then also will be the time to enter upon the work of reducing the taxation, which, at the earliest moment, may be at the commencement of another session of Congress.

The three per cent. certificates, of which there were outstanding, on December 1, $49,716,150, are largely held by the banks as a portion of their reserve, and form a substitute, to a considerable extent, for United States notes. These should be redeemed, in the opinion of the Secretary, and an addition of $35,000,000 made to the circulation of the banks in those States where the circulation is less than the share to which they may be entitled.

Such are the views of the Secretary relative to the more immediate arrangement and management of the public debt, but there are other aspects of the subject looking to its future payment, which are dependent on the national resources, the industry and commerce of the country, and which should not be overlooked.

As previously stated, the receipts of the year exceeded the disbursements $49,453,149. The excess of receipts over expenditures since the close of the war has been as follows:

1865-'66	$37,281,679 58
1866-'67	143,905,880 94
1867-'68	28,297,798 46
1868-'69	49,453,149 46

The amount of the public debt on September 1, 1865, less the cash in the Treasury, was $2,757,689,571.43. On December 1, 1869, the public debt, less the cash in the Treasury, was $2,453,559,785.23, making a total reduction since September 1, 1865, of $304,129,886.20, and for the calendar year of $87,147,466.02.

Since the close of the war, the population of the country has shown a general and rapid increase. Its minimum rate is estimated at 1,100,000 per annum. The alien immigration into the country since the close of the war, or during the five years ending June 30, 1869, has been 1,514,816. The course of the Chinese immigration for a series of years has been as follows:

1856	4,733	1863	7,214
1857	5,944	1864	2,975
1858	5,128	1865	2,942
1859	3,457	1866	2,385
1860	5,467	1867	3,863
1861	7,518	1868	10,684
1862	3,633	1869	12,874
Total in fourteen years			78,817

The increase in the construction of railroads during the year 1869, throughout the country, is estimated to reach about 5,000 miles, making the total construction, since the close of the war, about 13,000 miles. The facilities afforded by this additional construction are regarded as reaching an extent of country of 390,000 square miles, which, for the purposes

of general production, may be regarded as new territory. The extension of the telegraph system during the year was greater than in any previous year, and was equal to 7,000 miles.

The great improvement of the country since the close of the war has taken place chiefly in the Southern States. With every industrial interest entirely prostrated in 1865, the first efforts of the people to improve their condition were in the highest degree discouraging. During 1866 and 1867, the crops both of cotton and grain were, to a very great extent, failures. The freedmen were not disposed to work for hire, demanded excessive wages, and too often rendered poor service. In 1868, there was an improvement. The harvest was so abundant as to furnish the people with cheap food, and with a large surplus for the future and for export, while the sale of the exports of that year in the form of cotton, grain, sugar, tobacco, and naval stores, amounted to an aggregate of at least $800,000,000 in currency. Such a result has brought to the people of the South a large degree of strength and prosperity. It has restored the broken lines of railway communication, and is creating new ones; it is enriching the soil and increasing the quality and quantity of the great staple per acre, through the use of fertilizers and improved tools. This evidence of the capacity of the country to repair its waste and extend its production is highly satisfactory, but in connection therewith is a matter of vital interest, which consists not in the mere ascertainment and enumeration of the aggregates of production, but rather the existing relations between national production and national consumption or expenditure; also the determination of the question whether the resources of the country have been utilized to the best advantage. These are questions more especially considered by the Special Commissioner of Revenue, in the examination of which a very complete view is presented of the present and future financial ability of the country.

The present valuation of the property in the United States is estimated at $23,400,000,000, or an increase of 65.8 per cent. since the census was taken in 1860. This estimate is based upon the comparative results of different periods, the average wealth of individuals, and the ratios presented in other countries. In a similar manner the gross value of the annual product of the United States is estimated at $6,825,000,000, which is a *per capita* average of $175 currency to a population of 39,000,000. An important inquiry arises here as to the proportion of the annual aggregate product of the nation which results from the labor of the persons engaged in the various industrial occupations productive of direct wealth. Thus, of the occupations specified in the census of 1860, forty-one per cent. of the individuals, exclusive of slaves, are found to be engaged in the pursuit of agriculture; and probably of the whole number of persons who are in receipt of income from some industrial pursuit, or the investment of capital, one-half are agriculturists. It is considered that the *per capita* product must be sufficient to make up an amount composed of wages, $275; subsistence, $125; waste in animals, etc., $50; interest on capital, $60; total, $510. This sum, multiplied by the number of agriculturists, would give $3,282,000,000 as the proportion of their contribution of the total gross value of the annual national product.

A statement contained in the report of the Special Commissioner of the Revenue presents an estimate in detail of the value of the leading agricultural products of the country for the last year, as tending to assist in forming a judgment in regard to the total annual value of the product of this department of industry. It is as follows:

Cotton, 2,700,000 bales, 450 pounds each, at 25 cents	$303,750,000
Corn, 900,000,000 bushels, at 50 cents	450,000,000
Wheat, 300,000,000 bushels, at $1.25	375,000,000
Oats, 275,000,000 bushels, at 50 cents	137,500,000
Wool, 177,000,000 pounds (estimated clip of 1868), at 42½ cents	75,225,000
Tobacco, 225,000,000 pounds, at 16½ cents	37,125,000
Barley, 25,000,000 bushels, at $1.20	30,000,000
Hay, 25,000,000 tons, at $10	250,000,000
Rye, 25,000,000 bushels, at $1.10	27,500,000
Hides, 6,700,000, at $5.50	36,850,000
Potatoes, 150,000,000 bushels, at 60 cents	90,000,000
Buckwheat, 20,000,000 bushels, at $1	20,000,000
Flesh of animals, deducting value of hay and grain consumed	400,000,000
Dairy products, deducting value consumed of farm products previously enumerated	400,000,000
All other products of agriculture, including the annual increase in the value of cattle and horses, the value of fruits, seeds, and garden products, the annual addition to the value of farms and farm buildings, and implements made by farm labor not classed as mechanical (fences, drainage, etc., etc.)	660,000,000
Total	$3,283,950,000

In respect to the other wealth-producing industries, the statistics of the manufacture of cotton, wool, iron, boots and shoes, and paper, are sufficiently available and exact to allow of the very accurate determination of the increased value which accrues from the labor employed in these several departments:

MANUFACTURE OF COTTON.

Estimated number of spindles in the United States, from the latest returns to the Cotton Manufacturers' Association		6,930,346
Capital represented, at an average of $20 per spindle		$138,606,920
Estimated capacity of cotton, in pounds, per annum		450,000,000
Average number of yarn		28
Product of cloth, allowing one-sixth for waste, pounds		375,000,000
Value of product, on basis of twenty-five cents per pound for cotton:		
Cotton	$112,500,000	
Supplies and repairs	21,000,000	
Labor	42,000,000	
Profits on capital, say	8,500,000	
		$184,000,000
Estimated expenses of transportation and distribution		31,415,000
Hands employed, mostly female, estimated		125,000
Value added to material by each hand		404
Value of the manufactured product ready for transportation and distribution, exclusive of cost of raw cotton		71,500,000

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.

Estimated amount of machinery in carding and combing, equivalent to 6,000 sets of cards. Estimated consumption of wool and substitutes, 1868, in condition, as marketed, pounds		225,000,000
Equivalent in pounds of scoured wool		125,000,000
Value of product:		
Wool	$90,000,000	
Supplies and repairs	25,000,000	
Labor	35,000,000	
Profits on capital, 1868-'69, estimated at six per cent.	6,000,000	
		$156,000,000
Estimated expense of transportation and distribution		$25,000,000
Number of hands employed, mostly males, at fifteen to each set of cards		90,000
Value added to material by each hand		$455

PIG AND BAR IRON.

Present annual product of pig-iron, tons	1,725,000
Value at furnace, at $36 per ton	$62,100,000
Present annual product of rolling-mills and bloomeries, tons	1,222,000
Value of product of rolling-mills, 1,200,000 tons, at $90	$108,000,000
Deducting value at rolling-mills of pig and scrap iron used as raw material, say 1,416,000 tons, at $37.50	53,100,000
Added value of rolling-mill industry	$54,900,000
Product of bloomeries, 22,000 tons, at $130	$3,960,000
Deduct value of pig-metal used as raw material, say 26,400 tons, at $38	1,003,200
Added value of bloomery industry	$2,956,800

RECAPITULATION.

Pig-metal	$62,100,000
Rolling-mill industry, added value	54,900,000
Bloomeries, added value	2,956,800
Total	$119,956,800

The following is an estimate of the number of hands employed in the primary production of iron, viz., pig and bar iron, as returned by the Secretary of the American Iron and Steel Association:

At blast-furnaces	12,500
Preparation of ore and fuel	42,000
At forges and bloomeries	2,500
In rolling-mills	58,000
Total	115,000

There are no accessible data for estimating the royalty paid for ores, or the cost of the transportation of ores to the coal, or *vice versa*. It may also be noted that the profits of iron production, be they large or small, are included in this sum of $119,956,800. If it be all credited to the actual laborers, the value of the work of each hand is $1,043; but a fair deduction for labor of persons not enumerated, and for profits above six per cent., would probably reduce this average to $700 or $750.

LEATHER MANUFACTURES.

Value of leather tanned and dressed in the United States		$124,760,069
Deducting value of hides and skins used as raw material		66,531,114
Value added by labor		$58,228,955
Value of boots and shoes produced		$246,252,000
Deduct value of all materials used, including leather		130,169,608
Added value of boot and shoe industry		$116,082,392
Value of other manufactures of leather, harness, hose, belting, bags, portemonnaies, etc		$63,300,000
Deduct value of materials, including leather		15,000,000
Added value of above industries		$48,300,000
Number of hands employed in the manufacture of leather		30,000
Employed in manufacture of boots and shoes		131,333
Employed in other manufactures from leather		19,000
		180,333

RECAPITULATION.

Value added to hides and skins in the manufacture of leather	$58,228,955
Value added in manufacture of boots and shoes	116,082,392
Value added in other manufactures from leather	48,300,000
	$222,611,347

The total value of product in the manufacture of leather is apportioned as follows:

Raw material	$66,531,114
Supplies and repairs	24,328,955
Labor	30,000,000
Capital	13,900,000
	$124,760,069
Value added to material by each hand (excluding cost of "supplies and repairs")	$1,190
Average wages	6,660

The total value of the product of the boot and shoe industry is apportioned as follows:

Raw material	$130,169,608
Supplies and repairs	9,373,959
Capital	24,625,000
Labor	82,083,433
	$246,250,000
Value added to material by each hand	$812
Average wages	625

MANUFACTURES OF PAPER.

The quantity annually manufactured in the United States is estimated for the Commissioner, by the trade, at 780,000,000 pounds, valued at	$72,000,000
Number of hands employed	25,000

The Commissioner, however, has not the data requisite for separating the value of the labor from the material used.

The addition made to the annual product of the country, through the service rendered by capital and labor employed in railway transportation, has recently been shown by competent authority to be at the rate of about $360,000,000, on an investment of capital of nearly $1,800,000,000.

Unfortunately, and almost inexcusably, the products of the national fisheries have never been enumerated with any such completeness as to enable an estimate of the annual value of the production of this industry to be made with any great degree of assurance or satisfaction. But a recent canvass of certain fishing-fields justifies the conclusion that the value of all the fisheries of the country—including seacoast, lake, and river fisheries—is not less than $100,000,000 per annum.

RECAPITULATION.

A summary statement of the values created by the leading industries of the country would therefore appear to be substantially as follows:

Agriculture	$3,282,950,000
Cotton manufacture	71,500,000
Woollen manufacture	66,000,000
Iron production, pig and bar	119,950,000
Leather manufactures	222,600,000
Railway service	360,000,000
Fisheries	100,000,000
Total	$4,223,000,000

This aggregate, deducted from the estimated gross product of the country, viz., $6,825,000,000, gives $2,602,000,000 as the product of all the industrial classes remaining unenumerated. If we suppose the classes enumerated to embrace 7,165,000 producers (6,435,000 agriculturists and 730,000 engaged in railway service, fisheries, and the manufactures specified), this will leave a product of $2,602,000,000, divided among 5,705,000 producers (the total number of producers having been taken at 12,870,000), giving an average value of the labor of each one of $455 per annum. This large body of producers includes persons of the most various occupations and the most diverse character as regards the capacity of production, embracing as it does many highly-skilled and highly-paid artisans, as well as all the distributors of the country, and also great numbers of domestic servants, women and children, contributing in but a small degree to production, and receiving minimum wages.

The excess of production over expenditure is regarded at the present time as being about eight per cent. of the gross annual product, or $546,000,000 per annum.

All these statements, however, of the valuation, annual product, and annual surplus of the country, present the results merely of the information that is at present available on these subjects. An exact statement would require data which are not at present attainable.

There are still exact and positive data in certain departments bearing upon the subject of the amount and increase of the national wealth, which, although local and limited in their nature, yet, within their limits, indicate a less flattering aspect of national prosperity than is generally entertained. The following table, for instance, presents a statement of the assessed value of real and personal property in six States, at different periods within the last ten years, by which it appears that there has been an advance in only two of the States enumerated equal to the assumed premium on gold, while, had the exact average of the gold premium for 1868 (39.6) been taken for comparison, only one (Rhode Island) of the six States would have been found to make good the gold values of 1861. The calculation has been made without regard to any increase that may have taken place in population during that period. If this were taken into account, probably not one of the States would have exhibited an increase in assessed values:

STATES.	Total value of real and personal property, by assessment of 1861.	Total value of real and personal property, by assessment of 1865.	Total value of real and personal property, by assessment of 1868.	Increase. Per cent. of value in 1861.	Gold premium taken.
Rhode Island	$121,118,126	.....	$187,697,591	55	35
Connecticut	294,962,514	.....	312,574,406	29	35
Ohio	892,850,084	.....	1,143,461,386	28	35
Indiana	441,562,339	.....	587,970,549	33	35
Pennsylvania	569,049,867	$595,591,994	.....	4⅔	35
New York	1,441,769,420	.....	1,766,089,140	22½	35

Again, there is a large amount of American securities held in foreign countries. These consist of United States bonds, State bonds, railway bonds and shares, municipal bonds, and shares of canal and mining companies. The most approved estimates represent the amounts as follows:

NATIONAL SECURITIES.

Fives of 1871 and 1874	$15,000,000
Sixes of 1881	90,000,000
Five-twenties of 1862	380,000,000
Five-twenties of 1864	30,000,000
Five-twenties of 1865, May and November	120,000,000
Five-twenties of 1865, January and July	200,000,000
Five-twenties of 1867	120,000,000
Ten-forties	25,000,000
Registered bonds of all issues	20,000,000
Total	$1,000,000,000

As substantiating the accuracy of the above estimate, it is to be noted that the earlier issues of United States securities have almost entirely disappeared from the American market, and that transactions are now limited mainly to the issues of July, 1865, 1867, and 1868.

STATE SECURITIES.

The following amounts are returned as positively known to the State authorities:

Alabama	$1,468,260
Georgia	72,000
Illinois	1,400,000
Louisiana	5,265,983
Massachusetts	12,277,500
Michigan	800,000
Missouri	1,500,000
New York	2,440,989
Ohio	3,500,000
Pennsylvania	9,458,600
Virginia	7,593,500
Total	$45,691,732

This amount, it is to be noted, only includes those issues which have been "placed" abroad originally through distinct State agencies. To it must be added the larger amount which has been from year to year purchased in the American market, and either sent abroad or held here on foreign account.

Of railway bonds and shares held abroad or on foreign account, the investigations indicate a total of $130,000,000 of bonds and $113,000,000 of shares.

Of the amount of bonds specified, an aggregate of $61,350,349 has been positively reported in behalf of fourteen companies.

Of the amount of railway stocks specified, 7 companies return an aggregate of $83,449,800.

For the companies which have not reported the amount of their stocks and bonds held abroad, estimates have been carefully prepared by the best authorities on this subject. The character of these statements and the representations which accompanied them is such as to show that the aggregate given above, namely, $243,000,000 of stocks and bonds, is not an over-estimate.

MISCELLANEOUS SECURITIES (PARTIALLY KNOWN AND PARTIALLY ESTIMATED).

Municipal bonds	$7,500,000
Canal bonds	5,068,967
Mining shares and bonds	10,000,000

A careful estimate of other forms of foreign indebtedness on November 1, 1869, gives the following additional elements:

Capital lying in the United States in consequence of the comparatively low rate of interest in Europe—credits, bills of exchange, etc	$50,000,000
Cuban moneys temporarily transferred in consequence of the revolution	25,000,000
Foreign capital invested in mortgages of real estate, etc	25,000,000

RECAPITULATION.

State bonds	$100,000,000
Railway bonds	130,000,000
Railway shares	118,000,000
Mining bonds and shares	10,000,000
Municipal bonds	7,500,000
Miscellaneous bonds and shares	5,000,000
Capital temporarily invested	50,000,000
Cuban moneys	25,000,000
Real-estate mortgages, etc	25,000,000
Total	$465,500,000

Adding $1,000,000,000 of Federal securities held abroad, as before estimated, we have, as the total of the present foreign indebtedness of the United States, the sum of $1,465,500,000; on which, at an average of 6 per cent., an annual payment of interest accrues to the amount of $87,930,000; and of which $80,000,000 may be estimated as paid regularly.

But enormous as is this sum, the process of incurring indebtedness still continues as actively as ever. The account of the United States with foreign countries for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, may be exhibited substantially as an adverse foreign balance for 1868–'69, as follows:

Imports of merchandise, gold value		$417,371,765
Exports (gold values)	$275,611,591	
Reëxports, etc	10,907,753	
		286,519,344
		$130,852,421
Less excess of foreign goods, in bond, 1869 over 1868		14,702,079
Adverse balance 1868–'69, merchandise account		$116,150,342

MOVEMENT OF SPECIE AND BULLION.

Exports	$42,915,966
Reëxports	14,292,414
Total	$57,188,380
Imports	19,654,776
Loss of specie and bullion	$37,483,604

If we suppose the excess of specie and bullion exports to have been devoted exclusively to the liquidation of balances incurred on the merchandise account, the remaining balance on this account to be settled for in some other manner would be $78,666,738.

To this sum must be added the following other items:

Obligations for interest (paid), estimated	$80,000,000
Excess of freights carried in foreign bottoms	24,000,000
Expenditures of Americans in foreign countries	25,000,000

The following table exhibits the proportions of the total trade of the country for each year, 1859–1869, inclusive, carried in American and in foreign vessels, respectively, with the gain to the United States or to foreign nations from the excess of freights carried in each year:

YEAR.	IMPORTS, EXPORTS, AND REËXPORTS.				
	Total Trade.	American vessels.	Foreign vessels.	Preponderance of foreign.	Gain to foreigners, calculated at 8 per cent. on gross excess.
1859	$695,557,592	$465,741,381	$229,816,311	* $235,925,170	‡ $18,874,014
1860	762,288,550	507,247,757	255,040,793	* 252,206,964	‡ 20,176,557
1861	530,569,412	350,827,256	179,742,156	* 171,085,100	‡ 13,686,808
1862	435,710,714	217,695,418	218,015,296	319,878	25,590
1863	584,928,502	241,872,471	343,056,031	101,183,560	8,094,685
1864	669,855,034	184,061,486	485,793,548	301,732,062	24,138,565
1865	571,131,290	146,067,245	425,064,045	278,996,800	22,319,744
1866	1,003,066,748	324,141,463	678,925,285	354,783,822	28,382,705
1867	673,064,840	† 296,120,912	† 576,943,928	280,823,016	22,465,841
1868	648,537,647	297,981,573	550,546,074	252,564,501	20,205,160
1869	876,864,060	288,916,927	587,447,133	298,530,206	23,882,416
				$1,868,933,845	$149,514,706

Assuming that the sums chargeable to smuggling and undervaluation of imports are counterbalanced by the undervaluation of exports, the sum total of the adverse balance of indebtedness of the United States to foreign countries will, at the present time, probably average about $210,000,000 per annum.

To meet and settle this constantly-increasing and adverse balance, there would seem to be, under the present condition of prices and cost of production in the United States, but one resource, viz., to remit certificates of indebted-

* Excess of American over foreign. † Partly estimated. ‡ American gain.

ness—national, State, or corporate. And this process is undoubtedly adopted, and goes on, month after month, and year after year, without occasioning thus far any marked disturbance in the trade and commerce of the country.

On this subject the Commissioner remarks: "Now, whether so great an exchange of evidences of indebtedness for foreign commodities or foreign services is advantageous to the country at large, or how long such a method of liquidating balances can continue, are questions which it is not necessary to immediately consider, inasmuch as we would rather direct attention at this point to the fact that, while before the war we were able to wholly pay for our foreign imports and services with the products of our own industry, including, after the discovery of California, and up to the beginning of the war, such a proportion only of our product of gold as it would have been practically useless and even mischievous for us to retain, we are not now so doing; and this latter circumstance would seem to prove beyond question that the aggregate of national production does not maintain the same proportion as formerly to the aggregate of national consumption.

"It must not be forgotten, furthermore, that by the remittance of bonds we have simply deferred payment, and must hereafter export products to meet these obligations; and, whenever such export of products in payment for past imports shall be made, it will of necessity be in addition to the export then made to pay for current imports. Product for product is the absolute condition on which alone commerce is possible."

To show the effects of an excessive inflation of the currency to disturb the ratio that formerly existed between national production and consumption, it is asserted that, during the last few years, large numbers of the population, under the influence and example of high profits realized in trading during the period of monetary expansion, have abandoned pursuits directly productive of national wealth, and sought employments connected with commerce, trading, or speculation. As a consequence, there are everywhere large additions to the population of the commercial cities, an increase in the number and cost of buildings devoted to banking, brokerage, insurance, commission business, and agencies of all kinds, the spirit of trading and speculation pervading the whole community, as distinguished from the spirit of production, and all the external appearances of healthful activity. These things, however, are not to be regarded as the legitimate growth of a really sound commerce, but rather as the results of influences which have originated almost exclusively in currency inflation.

The following statements, showing that a degree of disorganization in the labor of the country exists, are made in the report of the Special Commissioner of the Revenue, and are too important to be overlooked:

But, be the cause what it may, one thing is certain, viz., that national production has suffered in consequence; *directly* by the withdrawal of labor from productive to unproductive or less productive employment, and *indirectly* by infusing a spirit of discontent among those who, by the force of circumstances, are compelled to earn subsistence in agriculture or the mechanic arts, thereby impairing both the quantity and quality of the products of their industry. A most intelligent observer, the superintendent of one of the largest manufacturing establishments in the Middle States, thus writes to the Commissioner:

> Those who observe the laborer find that he shows less and less interest in the work he performs, his only anxiety being to hear the bell announce the hour of his discharge from labor.

Another, superintendent of an extensive manufacturing company, in answer to a question as to the comparative amount of work performed by mechanics and laborers in 1860 and 1869, submits the following statement:

> *October* 1, 1869.
>
> In reply to your favor of the 29th, I would say that I now employ seventy-eight men as mechanics, some of them in building (new machinery), but most of them in the way of ordinary repairs. It is impossible for me to state accurately the quantity of work done by them as compared with what would have been accomplished by an equal number of mechanics in 1860, but I think it quite safe to say it is *twenty-five* per cent. less. This difference is occasioned in part by a feeling that they are less favored regarding the hours of labor than mechanics who are employed by the Government, but chiefly because many of them are not really mechanics, having never served as apprentices, and lack the skill which would have secured such employment when help was more abundant.

With a view of obtaining further information concerning the relative product of labor in 1869, as compared with 1860, the following question was appended to a circular (relative to wages) extensively forwarded by the Commissioner to the largest and most intelligent employers of labor in different sections of the country: "Please state whether, in your opinion, mechanics and laborers perform as much work in a day now as formerly."

The following is an abstract of the answers returned, the names of the parties or firms making the same being omitted:

Maine, Portland.—"No, surely;" "and yet they do all they get pay for"—"the row the mechanic now hoes is a hard one."

New Hampshire, Manchester.—"Only about two-thirds as much."

Connecticut, Bridgeport.—"Mechanics perform more, on account of the improved machinery, and laborers less."

Massachusetts, Worcester.—"I think we don't get as much work as formerly by fifteen per cent." *Milford.*—"I think five men did more work in 1860 than six men do now." "Good hands more scarce now than at that time."

New York, New York City.—"I think they perform from one-fourth to one-third less work since than before the war." *Buffalo.*—"Twenty-five per cent. discount." *Troy.*—"No, not by fifteen per cent. in the average." *Albany.*—"Three stone-masons or bricklayers will not do as much as two did formerly."

New Jersey, Jersey City.—"They do not perform more than two-thirds as much as formerly."

Pennsylvania, Lancaster.—"As much as before, since the ten-hour system has begun." *Philadelphia.*—"Three men do the work of two."

Ohio, Cleveland.—Three responded in the negative, and one to this effect: "We think they do now, but there was a time, for two to six years, when they did not." *Cincinnati.*—"No." *Dayton.*—"No."

Missouri, St. Louis.—"No, by fifteen to twenty per cent."

Illinois, Chicago.—"One-eighth less."

The Commissioner would further add, that of the answers received, as above, about one in nine indicated that the amount of work performed in a given time, in 1869, compared favorably with that performed at former periods.

The following statement, furnished to the Commissioner by the proprietor of the Morgan Iron Works of the city of New York, also indicates a change in the productiveness of labor in this department of industry which it is to be hoped is somewhat exceptional. Thus, in 1858, a marine engine was built at the above works, at a cost of $23,000 (including profit to the builder), which required 2,323 days' labor. In 1869 another engine, precisely similar as respects pattern and weight, was constructed at the same works on contract, for $40,000. The result was a loss to the builder of $5,000, and a necessary expenditure of 3,538 days' labor, or 1,215 more days' labor than was required for the performance of the same work eleven years previously.

Here, then, are certain facts which the Commissioner, in the discharge of his duty, is bound to make public. The laborer appears to be less worthy of his hire than heretofore, and to have lost his interest in his work. If an explanation of the cause is demanded of the Commissioner, he can return but this general answer: because a vicious currency and unequal taxation take from the laborer a portion of the result of his work, and give him no return. The laborer feels this, but knows not the cause, and seeks in strikes, in eight-hour laws, and trades' unions, the artificial remedy, where the natural remedy would be simply to restore to him good money, an honest measure of value, and such laws as will secure an equal distribution of the surplus of annual wealth which results from the excess of production over expenditure.

Again, the general result of the business of the last fiscal year to the merchants and manufacturers of the country is thus expressed by a recognized industrial authority:

Those who, at the end of the fiscal year, have made a living, and have their capital unimpaired, should be content, for they will be doing better than the majority.—*Iron Age, June 24, 1869.*

The undoubted decrease in farm stock and animal products in certain sections of the country also indicates a change, to at least a limited extent, in the relations which production formerly sustained to consumption and population. Thus, in the State of Ohio, for whose domestic statistics a greater degree of accuracy has been claimed than for those of any other State, the official report for 1869 states that, comparing this latter year with 1868, the whole number of sheep has decreased 1,416,205, or from 7,688,845 to 6,272,640; the hogs 356,629, or from 1,812,572 to 1,455,943; the cattle from 1,512,666 to 1,492,581; and the mules from 25,411 to 25,020. In respect to sheep generally, extensive returns, published by the Department of Agriculture, conclusively prove a very large decrease in almost every section of the country. This decrease for the year 1868–'69 is estimated by the Bureau at not less than 4,000,000; while others, competent to judge, report to the Commissioner that the reduction in the whole number of sheep in the United States within the last two years has been at least twenty-five per cent. In one of the leading wool-growing States of the West, the wool-clip for 1869 is estimated at thirty-five per cent. less than that of the previous year, 1868.

Other considerations exist, which might be taken into account for a complete view of the probable surplus of national industry, which there is not space here to notice.

The operation of the internal revenue system has been to yield the Treasury, during the fiscal year, the sum of $160,039,344. The receipts for the first six months of 1868 and 1869 were:

From July to December, 1869	$67,296,388
" " " " 1868	66,110,030
Total gain for six months	$1,186,358

The following tables shows the aggregate receipts from the same general sources of revenue for the first and last six months of each of the fiscal years ending June 30, 1868 and 1869; and also the gain or loss per cent. of those in the latter over those in the former period.

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	RECEIPTS FOR THE FIRST SIX MONTHS OF THE FISCAL YEAR.		Gain.	Loss.
	1868.	1869.		
Spirits	$9,537,940	$19,124,462	$9,586,522	.....
Tobacco	10,059,456	9,991,224	.....	$68,232
Fermented liquors	3,035,575	3,088,311	52,836	.....
Gross receipts	3,246,659	3,216,675	.....	29,984
Sales	2,264,589	3,930,693	1,666,104	.....
Income, including salaries	21,801,114	13,053,615	.....	8,747,499
Banks and bankers	1,494,376	1,339,065	.....	155,311
Special taxes not elsewhere enumerated	5,109,985	3,674,366	.....	1,435,619
Legacies	653,624	546,220	.....	107,404
Successions	511,577	484,054	.....	27,523
Articles in Schedule A	576,394	341,628	.....	234,766
Passports	20,365	13,040	.....	7,325
Gas	773,878	853,116	79,238	.....
Penalties	483,271	491,227	6,956	.....
Net receipts from stamps	6,540,327	7,148,692	608,365	.....
Total	$66,110,030	$67,296,388	$12,000,021	$10,813,663
Total gain for the above period	.....	.....	$1,186,358	

During this period the amount gained on spirits is $9,586,522
The amount gained on stamps is 608,365
The amount gained on sales is 1,666,104
The greatest loss from any one source of taxation for this period was upon incomes, which amounts to 8,747,499
In special taxes, not included under spirits, tobacco, etc., the loss was 1,435,619

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	RECEIPTS FOR THE LAST SIX MONTHS OF THE FISCAL YEAR.			
	1868.	1869.	Gain.	Loss.
Spirits	$2,917,691	$25,901,940	$16,784,249	.....
Tobacco	8,670,639	13,439,483	4,768,844	.....
Fermented liquors	2,920,394	3,011,568	91,174	.....
Gross receipts	3,030,507	3,084,324	53,817	.....
Sales	2,331,089	4,276,146	1,945,057	.....
Income, including salaries	19,654,484	21,738,241	2,083,757	.....
Banks and bankers	1,862,753	1,996,451	133,698	.....
Special taxes not elsewhere enumerated	5,289,180	5,127,089	.....	$162,091
Legacies	864,764	698,617	.....	166,147
Successions	793,447	705,702	.....	87,745
Articles in Schedule A	529,985	541,233	11,248	.....
Passports	7,915	16,413	8,498	.....
Gas	1,128,203	1,261,890	134,687	.....
Penalties	772,611	385,862	.....	386,749
Net receipts from stamps	7,506,286	8,356,301	850,515	.....
Total	$64,479,948	$90,542,760	$26,865,544	$802,732
Total gain for the above period	$26,062,812			

It will be observed that the gain on distilled spirits during this period of comparison is	$16,784,249
On tobacco	4,768,844
On fermented liquors	91,174
On incomes	2,083,757
On stamps	850,515
From gas companies	134,687
From banks and bankers	133,698

The only articles on which a loss was sustained are legacies, successions, and penalties—special taxes not included under spirits, etc.—and these aggregate only $802,732.

The following statement of the receipts from the several general sources of revenue for the first quarter of the present and last fiscal years includes the returns of twenty out of the twenty-six districts. The receipts of the following districts only are, therefore, not included in the receipts for the year 1870: Third Mississippi and Ninth Kentucky, for the month of July; Third Mississippi, for August; Eleventh New York, Sixth Tennessee, and Fourth Texas, for September:

SOURCES OF REVENUE.	RECEIPTS FOR FIRST QUARTER OF FISCAL YEARS.	
	1869.	1870.
Spirits	$8,465,443	$10,017,081
Tobacco	4,295,674	8,131,298
Fermented liquors	1,790,602	1,739,609
Banks and bankers	886,078	1,246,286
Gross receipts	1,514,750	1,727,206
Sales	1,739,513	1,961,888
Special taxes not elsewhere enumerated	2,969,427	3,244,684
Income, including salaries	11,201,809	13,278,504
Legacies	278,590	340,861
Successions	254,065	265,287
Articles in Schedule A	300,843	317,984
Passports	8,695	2,583
Gas	341,128	400,577
Sources not otherwise herein specially enumerated. Articles now exempt from taxation	874,431	126,338
Net receipts from stamps	3,393,472	3,685,078
Penalties	306,402	156,111
Total	$38,620,898	$46,641,415

Total gain, $8,020,517, or 20.8 per cent.

It will be seen that the gain on tobacco during this period of comparison is increased, and that on stamps is sustained, while that on spirits is fully sustained. The gain on tax of banks and bankers is likewise more than sustained by this comparison, and the entire table affords ample promise of satisfactory future results.

The expenses of collecting the revenue have been as follows:

There were paid for expenses incident to the collection of the revenue for 1868		$8,776,814
For 1869	$7,894,895	
Deduct the amount paid to storekeepers, act of July 20, 1868	608,918	
Leaving for this year on the basis of the account for 1868		6,785,477
Decrease in favor of 1869		$1,991,337

The following statistics of this department present a summary of the magnitude and importance of its labors:

Number of seizures for violation of law for the fiscal year 1869	1,744
Number of seizures for violation of law for the first quarter of 1870	1,021
Number of cases compromised during the fiscal year 1869	152
Amount received as tax thereon	$156,004 86
Assessed penalties fixed by law	$44,130 63
In lieu of fines, penalties, and forfeitures	$125,169 98
Number of cases compromised during the first quarter of 1870	144
Amount received as tax thereon	$79,227 39
Assessed penalties fixed by law	$10,611 06
In lieu of fines, penalties, and forfeitures	$58,817 08
Number of compromise opinions prepared from March 11 to September 30, 1869	304
Number of suits brought in Federal Courts during the fiscal year 1869	4,578
Of these, the number of proceedings *in rem*	844
Number of indictments found	2,552
Number of other proceedings *in personam*	1,182
Number of judgments in proceedings for forfeiture	719
Number of convictions on indictments	1,020
Number of acquittals	207
Number of suits decided in favor of the United States	2,166
Number of suits decided against the United States	432
Number of suits settled or dismissed	1,359
Number of suits pending July 1, 1869	4,007

Amount of judgments in suits *in personam*	$994,531 48
Amount collected and paid into courts	$114,791 01
Amount of forfeitures paid into courts	$480,796 89
Number of suits and proceedings begun in the United States Courts during the first quarter of 1870, as reported by United States District Attorneys, *in rem*, 276; *in personam*, 460; total	736
Number of claims for abatement considered during the fiscal year 1869	82,115
Number of claims for refunding considered	3,173
Amount rejected of same	$320,156 08
Number of refunding claims considered first quarter of 1870	548
Amount refunded for same time	$53,597 00
Amount rejected	$91,096 93
Number of accounts examined and passed during the fiscal year 1869	51,566
For the first quarter of 1870	8,897
Certificates of deposits received, examined, and entered for 1869	65,870
For the first quarter of 1870	13,067
Orders received for internal revenue stamps for 1869	11,278
For the first quarter of 1870	3,487
Number of stamps received from printers during 1869	578,109,811
Value thereof	$89,098,161 86
Number for the first quarter of 1870	180,532,387
Value thereof	$49,228,728 38
Number of internal revenue stamps issued for the year 1869	575,415,263
Value thereof	$78,090,298 11
For the first quarter of 1870	174,640,302
Value thereof	$30,783,465 50
Value of tobacco-stamps received for the first quarter of 1870	$15,730,289 74
Value of tobacco-stamps issued for the same time	$10,906,428 81
Value of beer-stamps received for the first quarter of 1870	$2,820,042 25
Value of beer-stamps issued for same time	$1,884,150 00
Value of stamps for distilled spirits received for the same time	$17,232,925 00
Value of same issued for the same time	$6,892,750 00
Number of stamp-agents' bonds examined	850
Number of claims for refunding stamps unnecessarily used	650
Number of instruments examined for photograph companies	800
Number of letters received and registered for the fiscal year 1869	60,898
For the first quarter of 1870	17,329
Number written and recorded for 1869	46,652
For the first quarter of 1870	17,270
Number of blanks prepared and sent out for 1869	8,046,360
For the first quarter of 1870	1,695,741
Number of distilleries registered	864
Number of officers connected with the internal revenue service who report to this bureau	6,003

MONTHLY RANGE OF GOVERNMENT SECURITIES AS REPRESENTED BY DAILY SALES AT THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE BOARD DURING THE YEAR 1869:

Months.		6's of 1881.		6's (5-20 years) Coupon.						5's. 10-40
		Coup.	Reg.	1862.	1864.	1865.	new.	1867.	1868.	Coup.
January	Opening	111⅛	109⅛	111⅜	107¾	108⅜	107	107⅜	107⅛	106
	Highest	112⅜	111⅛	113⅝	109¾	110⅝	108⅝	109	109⅛	108⅝
	Lowest	111	109	111⅛	107⅝	107¼	106⅝	106⅞	107¼	105¾
	Closing	112¼	111⅜	113⅜	109⅛	110⅝	108⅝	108⅝	109	108½
February	Opening	112⅜	111⅛	118	104¾	110⅛	108⅜	108⅝	108⅞	108⅛
	Highest	116⅜	114⅛	118⅛	115¼	116⅝	118¼	113⅛	112¼	110¼
	Lowest	112⅛	111⅛	118	109¼	110⅛	108⅜	108⅝	108⅞	108¼
	Closing	116⅜	114⅛	118⅛	115¼	116⅛	118¼	113⅛	112¼	110¼
March	Opening	115¾	115⅛	118	114¾	115	112⅞	113	112¾	106¼
	Highest	117¼	116⅛	120	115⅛	118	113¾	113⅝	114	106¼
	Lowest	115⅜	114⅞	117⅜	113¾	114⅞	112½	112⅛	112¾	105⅛
	Closing	115⅜	115	118	113⅞	115⅞	113	113	113	105⅛
April	Opening	115⅜	115	118	114	115⅞	112⅞	112⅞	113⅞	105
	Highest	118¾	118	123	117⅜	119⅝	116⅛	116⅝	116⅛	108⅛
	Lowest	115⅜	115⅛	117¾	118⅜	115⅞	112⅝	112⅞	113⅝	105
	Closing	118¾	118	121⅝	117⅝	119⅛	116⅛	116⅛	116⅛	108⅛
May	Opening	118⅝	119	117⅞	118⅝	115⅝	116⅛	116⅛	116⅛	108⅛
	Highest	123⅛	122⅛	123⅝	117⅛	119⅛	120¼	120¼	120¼	110
	Lowest	118	118⅛	117⅛	118⅛	114⅛	115⅞	115¾	115¾	107⅛
	Closing	123	121⅛	122¾	117	118⅞	120	120	119⅝	109⅞
June	Opening	122⅜	117⅛	122⅜	117¼	118⅞	120	120	120¼	109⅛
	Highest	123⅜	117⅛	122¾	117⅝	119	120	120⅛	120¼	109⅛
	Lowest	121	116⅛	121⅝	116¾	117⅞	119	119¼	118⅞	107⅞
	Closing	121⅛	117	121⅝	116⅞	118⅜	119⅛	119⅛	119⅝	107¾
July	Opening	117⅛	117⅛	121⅝	117⅛	118⅛	116⅛	115⅜	116⅛	108
	Highest	123¼	122⅛	125⅛	123⅛	123¾	122¼	122⅛	123	114⅝
	Lowest	116¾	117⅛	121¼	117⅛	118⅛	116⅛	115⅜	116	107⅛
	Closing	123¾	122⅛	125⅛	123⅛	123⅛	122¼	122⅛	123	114⅜
August	Opening	124⅛	124¼	125¼	123⅞	123⅝	122⅜	122⅝	122⅛	116
	Highest	125	125	125¾	124	124⅛	122⅝	122⅞	123¾	116⅛
	Lowest	121⅜	122⅝	122⅜	120⅛	120⅝	119⅛	119⅜	120⅛	112⅛
	Closing	123¼	123⅛	123⅛	122⅛	122⅝	121⅜	121⅝	120⅛	115⅛
September	Opening	123	123¼	123¼	122¼	122⅛	121⅜	121⅛	120¾	112¼
	Highest	123	123¼	123¼	122⅛	122⅛	121⅜	121⅛	120¾	112¼
	Lowest	119	119	119¼	118⅛	118¼	116¾	116⅞	117	108¼
	Closing	119¼	119	119¼	118⅛	118⅞	117¼	117⅜	117	108¼
October	Opening	119⅜	119	120	119¼	119⅝	117⅞	118⅛	118⅛	109⅜
	Highest	120¼	120	121	119⅛	120	118⅜	118⅛	118⅛	109⅜
	Lowest	119	118⅛	119¼	117	117	115⅞	115⅞	116¼	107⅜
	Closing	119⅛	119¼	119¾	117¾	119⅝	116⅛	116⅜	116⅜	107⅜
November	Opening	119¼	119¾	116	113⅜	114	119	116⅛	116⅛	108
	Highest	119¼	119¾	116	113⅜	114	116⅛	116¼	116¼	108
	Lowest	115⅜	115¼	112⅜	110¾	111	113⅛	113¾	113¾	106⅛
	Closing	115	115¼	112¾	111	111⅜	113⅛	113¾	113¾	107
December	Opening	115⅞	112¼	112⅝	110⅛	110¾	118	118¼	118	106⅜
	Highest	120⅝	116⅛	116	113⅛	114⅛	116⅛	116⅛	116¼	111⅞
	Lowest	115⅞	112¼	111⅞	110⅛	110¾	113	113¼	113	
	Closing	118⅛	114¼	111⅞	112	111¾	115⅛	115¼	115	

The following table, from the office of the *Journal of Commerce*, shows the comparative prices of articles of produce in the New York market for each of the last twelve years:

	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	1869.	1870.
Ashes—												
Pots, 100 lbs	5.62½	5.12½	5.00	6.25	8.25	8.50	......	8.00	8.25	8.37	7.87	7.50
Pearls, 100 lbs	6.00	5.37½	5.00	6 25	8.25	9.75	......	......	11.00	......	......	......
Breadstuffs—												
Wheat-flour, State, bbl	4.30	4.30	5.25	5.50	6.20	6.70	9.90	8.00	10.25	9.50	6.80	5.35
" Western	4.60	5.29	5.30	5.50	6.25	6.90	10.45	8.90	11.35	9.55	6.60	4.85
Rye-flour, bbl	3.75	4.00	4.00	3.87½	4.50	6.00	......	5.75	7.00	8.75	7.00	5.00
Corn-meal—Brandywine, bbl	3.40	3.90	3.15	3.00	4.50	6.00	8.80	4.60	5.25	6.50	5.50	5.00
Wheat—Michigan, bush	1.25	1.50	1.45	1.50	1.47	1.59	2.65	2.60	3.20	3.20	2.12½	1.55
" California, bush	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	......	3.00	3.05	2.15	1.40
" No. 1, spring, bush	88½	1.18	1.18	1.30	1.30	1.46	2.29	1.87½	......	2.45	1.70	1.30
Rye—Western, bush	78	92	75	88	85	1.27	1.73	98	1.23	1.80	1.50	1.02
Oats—State, bush	53	46½	37	42	70	92	......	62	69	67	78	65
" Western, bush	55	45½	38	42	69	93	1.09	63	64	84	76	62
Corn—old Western, mixed, bush	78	90	72	64	78	1.30	1.87	95	1.12	1.41	1.10	1.10
" new Southern, bush	75	88	72½	68	......	......	2.08	98	1.15	1.40	1.05	1.02
Cotton—												
Middling, upland, lb	12	11	12½	35¼	67½	81	1.19	52	35	16	26	25½
" Orleans, lb	12½	11¾	12¾	36	67½	81	......	53	36	16½	26½	25½
Fish—												
Dry cod, quintal	4.00	4.50	4.50	3.50	4.25	6.50	9.00	8.00	6.50	5.50	80	7.50
No. 1 Bay mackerel, bbl	15 50	16.00	13.00	16.00	16.00	20.00	16.25	17.25	18.50	10.00	24.50	27.50
Fruits—												
Raisins, layers, box	2.05	2.35	1 75	3.20	3.60	4.20	6.25	4.50	3.85	3.80	3.50	4.20
Currants, lb	7½	6	4½	9	13	14¾	21	15¾	12¾	12½	10¾	13½
Hay—shipping, 100 lbs	80	1.10	90	77½	80	1.40	1.50	80	1.28	1.20	90	85
Hemp—Manila, lb	6½	6¼	5½	7½	8¾	12¾	18½	12	12	10½	11¼	14½
Hops—lb	15	16	25	20	22	30	50	60	60	60	30	25
Iron—												
Scotch pig, ton	25.00	24.50	21 00	23.00	33.00	43.00	68.00	51.50	47.00	36.00	40.50	33.00
English bar, ton	55.00	53.00	52.00	57.00	65.06	95.00	200.00	120.00	115.00	85.00	85.00	85.00
American pig, ton	......	......	......	......	......	......	59.00	51.00	40.00	39.00	40.00	36.00
Laths—M	2.12½	2.00	1.30	1.25	1.40	1.50	2.50	5.00	3.25	3.00	2.90	2.55
Lead—												
Foreign, lb	5.50	5.65	5.25	7.00	7.87½	10¾	15	6¾	6¾	6½	6.37½	6.25
Leather—												
Hemlock, sole, light, lb	24	20	19½	20¼	25	30	38	36	31	25½	29	30
Oak, sole, light, lb	30	30	27	28	32	42	50	31	37	38	40	42
Lime—												
Common Rockland, bbl	75	75	75	65	85	1.35	1.15	1.70	1.70	1.50	1.60	1.50
Liquors—												
Brandy, gallon	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	5.40	6.10	15.00	6.00	6.00	6.50	8.00	6.00
Domestic whiskey, gallon	24½	26	19¾	20½	39	92	2.24	2.27	......	......	98	98
Molasses—												
New Orleans, gallon	37	53	37	53	50	60	1.40	1.20	80	85	75	78
Cuba clayed, gallon	21	24	20	25	30	42	55	37	43	39	35	35
Naval Stores—												
Crude turpentine, bbl	3.68¾	3.43¾	2.75	10.00	......	......	......	3.25	5.50	3.75	3.87½	4.25
Spirits turpentine, gallon	49	44½	35	1.47½	2.50	2.90	2.15	1.01	66	51	47	43½
Common resin, bbl	1.55	1.65	1.25	6.00	18.00	32.00	28.00	6.50	5.00	3.00	2.45	2.10
Oils—												
Crude whale, gallon	55	52	51	48	83	1.05	1.48	1.57	1.20	70	1.00	85
" sperm, "	1.36	1.40	1.40	1.40	1.70	1.60	2.12	2.47	2.63	2.15	1.75	1.60
Linseed, gallon	65	57	50	86	1.25	1.48	1.50	1.44	1.30	1.08	98	90
Petroleum—												
Crude, gallon	......	......	......	......	25	34½	51	40	18	16¾	18	15½
Refined in bond, S. W., gallon	......	......	......	......	47½	46½	73	62	30	24	31½	30½
Provisions—												
Pork, mess, bbl	17.00	16.87½	16.00	12.00	14.50	20.00	41.00	29.12	19.12	21.00	28.00	29.75
" prime, bbl	13.00	11.75	10.50	8.50	12.00	15.00	35.50	23.00	17.00	18.00	22.00	24.50
Beef, plain, Western, bbl	9.50	9.50	9.00	11.00	13.00	12.00	21.50	18.00	16.00	16.00	14.00	14.00
" prime mess, tierce	9.00	9.00	6.00	5.50	20.00	23.00	......	......	......	32.00	28.00	27.00
" hams, extra, bbl	15.00	14.50	14.00	14.50	15.50	18.00	26.50	33.00	35.00	33.75	32.00	33.00
Hams, pickled, lb	9½	9½	8	6	7	10	20	16	12½	12	15½	15
Shoulders, pickled, lb	6¼	6½	5½	4¾	5½	8	18	13	10	8½	11	12
Lard, Western, lb	11½	10½	10¾	8¾	9½	12	24	19¾	13	12¾	17½	17½
Butter, Western, lb	18	16	14	15	20	26	45	35	32	45	40	30
" prime State, lb	20	20	18	19	23	29	60	40	43	......	48	42
Cheese, fine factory, lb	9	11	10	7	13	16	24	18¾	17	15	19½	17½
Rice—good, 100 lbs	3.50	4.20	4.00	7.00	......	......	......	8½	cur. 9	8½	9½	7½
Salt—												
Liverpool ground sack	90	1.15	75	86	1.25	1.80	2.45	2.50	2.00	2.00	2.10	1.70
" Ashton's sack	1.88	1.95	1.60	1.70	2.15	2 80	4.75	4.50	3.75	3.90	3.85	2.50
Seeds—Clover, lb	9½	8½	8¾	7½	10½	12	26	18	13	12¾	13	13
Sugar—							19	11¾	10	11½	11½	10¾
Cuba, raw, lb	7	7¾	6½	8½	9½	12						
Refined hards, lb	9¾	10	5½	10¾	13½	16½	28½	18½	15	16¾	15½	14½
Tallow, lb	10¾	10½	9¾	9¾	10½	12	17¾	13¾	11½	10¾	11¾	10
Wool—Ohio fleece, lb	42	40	30	50	62	80	95	70	60	48	57	51

The following tables show the price of gold for each day of the year, and the highest and lowest prices of shares at the N. Y. Stock Exchange in each month the same period. By reference to the table of prices of gold, it will be seen that there are no reports of sales on September 25th, 27th, 28th, and 29th. This was the period since known as the "gold panic," which was made a subject of investigation at the ensuing session of Congress.

DAILY PRICE OF GOLD IN 1869.

The following Table will show the highest and lowest prices of Gold each day during the Year 1869.

DAY OF MONTH.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1	*Holiday.*	135⅝—136¼	131⅛—132	131⅜—131⅝	134⅛—134⅞	138⅜—139⅛	136⅞—137⅛	S.	133⅛—133⅛	130 —130⅛	128⅛—128⅜	121 —122⅛
2	134¾—135⅝	135⅛—135¾	131¾—132¼	131⅛—132	S.	138⅛—139⅛	136⅛—137⅜	136 —136⅛	133¼—135⅛	129¾—130⅝	127¼—128	122⅛—123⅝
3	S.	135⅛—135¾	131¾—132⅜	131⅜—131⅛	135⅛—136	138⅛—138⅛	136¾—137⅛	135⅝—136⅛	135⅜—136	S.	127 —127⅝	122⅛—122⅛
4	135¼—135⅝	135¼—135⅝	131⅝—131⅞	S.	135¾—136¼	137¾—138¼	S.	135¾—136	135⅝—137¼	128⅝—130	126⅜—127⅛	122⅜—123
5	134⅝—135⅛	135 —135¼	131 —131⅝	131⅜—131¾	135⅛—135¾	138⅜—138¾	*Holiday.*	136 —136⅜	S.	128⅞—130¼	126⅜—127⅛	S.
6	134⅞—135⅛	135 —135¼	130⅜—130⅞	131⅝—131⅞	136 —136¼	S.	135¼—137	136⅛—136⅜	137 —137⅝	130 —131	126⅝—127⅜	122¾—123⅝
7	135⅛—135¼	S.	S.	131⅝—131¾	136⅝—137¾	138⅛—138⅞	134¼—135⅜	136⅛—136¼	136⅛—137	131⅛—132	S.	122⅞—123¼
8	134⅞—135⅛	135¼—135⅜	131⅜—132	131⅝—132⅛	137⅝—139	138⅜—139	135¼—135⅞	S.	134⅞—136	130⅝—131⅛	126⅝—126⅞	123⅝—124
9	135⅛—135⅜	135 —135⅜	130⅞—131⅜	132⅛—133⅛	S.	138¾—139¼	135¾—136¼	135⅝—136⅜	135⅛—135⅞	130⅛—130¾	126⅞—127⅜	123⅜—123⅞
10	S.	134¾—135⅛	131⅛—132	132⅞—133¾	137 —137¾	138⅝—139¼	135¾—135⅞	135⅝—135¾	135 —135¼	S.	126⅞—127⅛	122⅞—123¼
11	135⅛—135⅝	135⅛—135⅜	131⅜—131⅞	S.	137⅞—138¾	138⅞—139⅝	S.	135 —135⅛	135¼—135⅞	130¼—130¾	126⅝—127	123⅛—123⅜
12	135¼—135⅝	135⅛—135⅜	131 —131⅜	133 —133⅛	137⅞—138⅝	138⅞—139⅝	136¼—137⅛	134¼—135⅛	S.	130⅛—130⅜	126⅝—126⅞	S.
13	135⅝—135⅞	134⅞—135⅛	131¼—131¼	132⅛—132⅞	137⅞—138⅝	S.	136¾—137¾	134⅛—134¾	135⅛—135⅞	130⅛—130¼	126¾—127	122¼—123
14	136⅛—136⅜	S.	S.	132⅜—133	138⅛—138¾	138⅞—139⅜	137 —137⅛	133⅞—134⅜	135¾—136⅛	130 —130⅜	S.	122 —122¼
15	136¼—136⅜	135 —135¼	131 —131⅛	132⅛—132¾	139⅛—139¾	137¾—138¾	136⅝—137	S.	136⅛—136⅜	130 —130⅜	126⅝—127⅛	121⅛—121¾
16	136⅛—136⅜	135 —135⅛	131⅜—131¼	132⅝—133⅜	S.	137⅜—138⅛	135¾—136¾	133⅛—134	136¼—136⅜	130 —130⅛	127⅛—127¼	121⅛—121⅞
17	S.	134⅞—135¼	131⅛—131⅞	133⅛—133⅜	141 —141¾	137⅞—138¼	135⅜—135⅞	133 —133⅝	136⅜—136¾	S.	126⅞—127⅛	120⅛—121⅞
18	135⅞—136⅛	134⅞—135¼	130⅞—131¼	S.	141⅛—142⅛	136¾—137⅞	S.	132⅞—133⅜	136⅝—136¾	130 —130⅜	*Thanksgiving*	120¼—120⅞
19	135⅛—135⅝	133⅜—134¾	130⅝—131¼	133⅛—133⅞	141⅞—144	136⅛—137	135¾—136¼	132¾—133¼	S.	130 —130⅛	126⅛—126¾	S.
20	135¼—135⅜	133¼—133⅜	130¾—131⅛	133⅞—134¼	143⅝—144¾	S.	135⅛—135⅛	132⅜—133	136¾—137⅜	130 —130⅛	126⅛—126⅝	120⅜—121⅛
21	135⅝—135⅞	S.	S.	134¼—134⅝	141¾—144⅛	136⅛—137¾	135 —135⅛	131⅜—132	137⅛—137¾	130⅛—131⅛	S.	119⅞—121⅛
22	135⅛—135⅞	*Holiday.*	131 —131⅜	134 —135⅝	140⅛—141¾	137⅛—138¼	135⅛—135⅛	S.	137⅛—141¾	130⅞—131¾	126¼—126⅛	120⅛—120¾
23	135⅞—136⅛	132⅜—133⅛	131 —131¼	133⅜—133¾	S.	137 —137⅜	135¼—135¾	131⅛—132⅛	141⅛—143¾	130⅞—131⅜	126⅛—126⅞	120⅝—120⅞
24	S.	132⅜—132⅞	131¼—131⅛	133¼—133⅛	141¼—142⅛	136¾—137⅛	135⅝—136⅛	132¾—132⅞	133 —162⅛	S.	125¾—126⅝	‡120⅜—120¾
25	136⅛—136⅝	132¾—133¼	131 —131¼	S.	140¾—141¼	137 —137⅜	S.	132⅞—133¾	*...........	130⅝—131⅛	124¾—125¼	*Holiday.*
26	136¼—136⅝	131⅞—132¼	*Good Friday.*	133⅜—133⅝	139⅝—140⅞	137¼—137⅝	136⅛—137¼	132⅞—133⅞	S.	130⅛—130¼	124⅛—124⅞	S.
27	136⅜—136⅝	130⅞—131¾	130⅞—131¼	133⅛—134	138⅞—139⅛	S.	136⅝—137⅝	132⅛—134¼	*...........	129⅞—130⅛	123⅞—125	120⅛—120⅝
28	136⅜—136⅝	S.	S.	133⅛—133⅞	139¼—139¾	137¼—137⅝	135⅞—136¾	133⅞—134¼	*...........	128⅞—129¾	S.	120 —120⅜
29	136⅜—136⅝	....	131⅛—131⅜	133¾—134¼	139¼—140⅛	137⅛—137⅛	135¾—136⅛	S.	*...........	128¼—128¾	121¾—123	119¾—120
30	136 —136⅜	....	131⅜—131⅛	134⅛—134⅛	S.	137 —137¼	136¼—136⅝	133⅛—134	†129¾—133	128⅝—129¼	121⅛—122¾	119⅛—120
31	S.	....	131¼—131⅜	....	138⅛—139	....	136⅛—136⅜	133⅝—133⅞	....	S.	....	119⅝—120⅜
Average	134⅝—136⅝	130⅞—136¼	130⅜—132⅛	131⅜—134⅝	134⅛—144¾	136⅛—139⅝	134¼—137¾	131⅜—136⅛	129¾—162⅛	128¼—132	121⅛—128⅜	119⅛—124

* No transactions; Board adjourned. † Called at National Stock Exchange, highest and lowest prices of sales at that Board. ‡ Adjourned at 11 30 A. M., out of respect to the memory of Hon. E. M. Stanton.

STATEMENT SHOWING THE HIGHEST AND LOWEST SALE PRICES OF SHARES AT THE NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE BOARD IN EACH MONTH OF THE YEAR 1869.

STOCKS.	January.	February.	March.	April.	May.	June.	July.	August.	September.	October.	November.	December.
1. RAILROAD SHARES:												
Chicago & Alton	151 —147	161 —152	159 —149⅛	162 —149	161 —156	162 —152⅛	166 —158	168 —153	154¼—135	146 —135⅛	152 —145	146⅛—141
" " preferred	150 —148	160 —153	156⅛—154	161⅛—150	161 —159⅛	160 —159	166 —159	162½—155	156 —135	147 —136⅛	149¾—146⅛	145⅛—140
Chicago, Burlington & Quincy	230 —185	190 —187	174⅛—172	175 —172	199 —180	199 —190	191 —188	200 —193⅛	170 —160	165 —159⅛	155 —147	151 —147⅛
Chicago & Northwestern	84⅛— 81	84¾— 82	85⅛— 81	87⅝— 83	94 — 85	93¼— 77⅜	83 — 78¾	93⅛— 83⅞	86⅛— 63	73¾— 69¾	75⅞— 65⅝	76⅛— 66¾
" " preferred	92 — 83⅛	92¾— 90	92⅜— 89⅛	98⅛— 91⅛	106⅜— 96¾	105⅛— 93⅜	96¾— 93⅝	101 — 93¾	95 — 79	85⅞— 83¾	89 — 83⅛	90⅜— 87⅞
Chicago & Rock Island	135⅝—117⅛	132 —126⅛	131 —124⅝	139 —128	138⅛—125	128 —115	118⅞—113⅛	118¼—114⅛	115⅛—102	110 —103⅜	106¼—102⅜	108⅛—101⅞
Columbus, Chicago & Ind. Cent.	59 — 43⅛	56 — 45⅝	46 — 42⅛	49 — 38⅛	47 — 41⅛	43¾— 39	39⅛— 36	37 — 33	34 — 24⅛	26⅛— 22	28 — 24¼	23 — 19
Cleveland & Pittsburg	98⅛— 82¼	94 — 89⅞	89⅛— 87	94 — 86⅛	99¾— 92	108⅛— 91¾	109⅛—102	108⅛—104	112 — 82	104 — 86⅛	86 — 79	84 — 79
Delaw'e, Lackawanna & West'n	120⅛—119	119⅛—115	117⅛—113⅞	116 —113	119⅛—115	119 —113	113 —110	113 —111⅛	113 —105⅛	111 —109	111 —104⅜	108 —105⅜
Erie	40⅛— 38	38 — 38	....	....	....	....	....	....	42 — 27	34⅜— 29⅛	30 — 27	27⅛— 21
" preferred	64 — 61⅛	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	71 — 57⅛	59⅛— 54	53 — 42	46 — 39
Hudson River	137⅛—130	138⅛—135	140⅛—135¾	156 —138	164⅛—152	166⅛—153¾	194 —159¾	188⅝—179⅛	186⅝—134	174⅛—156⅛	172¼—154	....
Illinois Central	144⅛—139	145 —138¾	141 —139	145¾—139	148 —145	147 —143	146 —140¾	142 —139⅛	139 —134	139 —132	140 —131	134 —130
Michigan Central	121 —114	120 — 17⅛	118⅛—117⅛	132 —118⅛	129⅛—126	136⅛—128	136⅜—127⅛	132¾—128	181 —116	124 —119	121 —119⅛	124⅛—117
Mich. South'n & North'n Ind.	96 — 87⅛	97¾— 93⅛	97⅝— 94⅜	103⅜— 95¾	118⅞—105	119 —107¼	....	....	....	....	....	....
Milwaukee & St. Paul	77⅛— 68	67 — 64⅛	71⅝— 64⅛	81 — 71⅛	79⅛— 75⅛	80 — 70⅛	78⅜— 78	84⅞— 78	80⅜— 61	70 — 65⅜	71 — 65¾	74⅝— 66⅛
" " preferred	96⅝— 87⅛	81⅞— 77	80⅛— 76	88 — 80	91⅛— 85	91 — 81⅛	89¼— 84⅝	92⅞— 86⅜	89⅛— 75	83⅛— 79⅝	84⅛— 78⅛	87⅞— 81⅛
Morris & Essex	87⅛— 85⅛	87 — 86	88 — 86⅞	89⅛— 87⅛	91 — 90	93⅛— 89	90 — 87⅛	89⅛— 87⅛	88⅛— 87⅛	88⅛— 86⅛	88 — 87	88⅛— 85
New Jersey	130 —128	130 —129⅛	129 —129	126 —124	127 —127	133 —130	....	123 —123	123⅛—120	120 —117⅛	120 —120	119⅛—119⅛
" scrip	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	112 —112	....
New Jersey Central	116⅛—112⅜	114 —110	112 —108⅜	112 —108	121 —111	122⅛—108	104⅛— 97	109⅛—108	107⅛— 97	108 — 94⅛	98⅛— 88	94⅛— 85⅛
New York Central	166⅝—154⅛	165⅛—160	164⅛—155⅛	173⅜—159⅛	194⅛—172¾	197⅛—183	217⅞—189¾	212⅝—197	206⅛—158	190 —171¾	192⅛—169⅛	....
New York & New Haven	160 —139	154 —143	... .	121 —120	140 —130	140 —135—	131 —125⅛	145 —132⅛	140 —135	140 —125	141 —138⅛	140 —140
" " scrip	....	....	....	....	125 —120	125 —124⅛	128 —124	140 —128	130 —130	131 —130	141 —132	140 —137
Norwich & Worcester	100 — 95	105 — 98	103⅛—100	104 —100	105 —104	105 —105	105 —104¾	112 —112	112 —112	....	108 —108	....
Ohio & Mississippi	39 — 32⅝	33¾— 33	34 — 32	34⅛— 32⅛	36⅛— 32⅛	37 — 32	33 — 31⅛	32⅞— 31⅛	32⅛— 24	28¾— 26	27⅞— 24⅛	26⅛— 22⅛
" " preferred	77 — 77	77 — 75⅛	76 — 75	76 — 75	79⅜— 76⅛	70 — 70	....	....	....	70 — 70	69 — 69	....
Panama	348 —340	340 —332	335 —330	330 —325	325 —300	300 —295	285 —270	270 —230	251 —240	240 —200	207⅛—203	205 —198
Pittsburg, Fort Wayne & Col.	124⅜—112¾	123 —117⅛	125⅛—117	139 —123	159⅛—140	159 —152⅛	157⅛—150	154⅛—151⅛	....	....	....	....
" " guaranteed	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	90 — 88⅛	....	85⅜— 88¾	88 — 85	89⅛— 85⅛
Reading	98⅛— 93	96⅛— 91⅞	92⅞— 91	97⅞— 91	101⅞— 95	100⅜— 96⅛	99⅜— 92⅛	98 — 95⅛	97⅛— 91	97 — 98	99⅝— 95⅞	101⅛— 97¾
2. COAL-SHARE LIST:												
Cumberland	39 — 37	38⅛— 36	37 — 37	33 — 30	36 — 30	36 — 33⅛	33⅛— 30	35¾— 33	31⅛— 28	29 — 26⅛	28 — 26	26⅛— 24
Delaware & Hudson Canal	132 —125⅛	129 —125	129 —127	130 —125⅛	134 —130	134 —130	131 —127	128 —126	126 —122	124 —120	122 —120	121 —120
Pennsylvania	222 —215	....	217 —212⅛	....	....	225 —225	....	....	....	250 —220	....	235 —235
3. TELEGRAPH:												
Western Union	39⅛— 33⅛	39 — 36⅛	38⅛— 36¾	43⅞— 39	44⅜— 42	43⅛— 38	39 — 36	39 — 37	37⅞— 35	37 — 36	36⅞— 34⅛	35⅛— 32
4. STEAMSHIP SHARES:												
Atlantic Mail	22 — 21	....	20 — 20	22 — 22	....	....	....	....	20⅛— 20⅛	....	....	....
Pacific Mail	123⅜—117⅜	120 — 97⅞	101⅛— 88⅛	95⅛— 89⅛	96⅝— 80⅛	93⅛— 80⅛	92⅛— 81⅜	87 — 79	80⅜— 59⅛	69⅛— 56⅜	68 — 51	53⅛— 43

FITZPATRICK, BENJAMIN, a Southern statesman and political leader, born in Greene County, Ga., June 20, 1802; died in Autauga County, Ala., November 25, 1869. Left an orphan at an early age, he emigrated, in 1815, in company with an elder brother, to Alabama (then Mississippi Territory), and settled in what is now Autauga County. Here, by assiduous study, without teachers, he acquired a fair education, and in 1821 obtained a license to practise law. Soon after, before he had quite attained his majority, he was elected solicitor of his judicial circuit, and, by reëlection, continued to exercise its duties till 1829, when his declining health forced him to abandon his profession. From 1829 until 1840 he lived the life of a retired farmer in Autauga County, but in the fall of 1840 he stumped the State as a candidate for elector for the State at large, was elected, and voted for Martin Van Buren. In 1841 he was nominated by the Democratic party for Governor, and, after a spirited contest, defeated his opponent by a majority of more than 10,000 votes. In 1843 he was reëlected without a contest, and at the close of his term, in 1845, received from the State Legislature a vote of thanks for the able manner in which he had administered the affairs of the State. In 1848 he was appointed United States Senator to fill the unexpired term of Dixon H. Lewis, and again, in 1853, to fill the vacancy occasioned by the election of the late William R. King to the vice-presidency. The latter appointment was ratified by the next ensuing Legislature, which elected him to serve out the remainder of Mr. King's term. In November, 1855, he was reëlected for a full term of six years, and in 1860 received and declined the nomination for Vice-President of the United States on the same ticket with Mr. Douglas. While in the Senate he served for several sessions as president *pro tem.* of that body. In 1861 he left the United States Senate, to take part in the secession movement. About the time of his withdrawal, viz., January 19, 1861, he united with S. R. Mallory and John Slidell, in entering into a correspondence with President Buchanan in relation to the demand of South Carolina for the surrender of Fort Sumter. Governor Fitzpatrick was active in his support of the Confederacy during the war, and did what he could for the Confederate soldiers. After the close of the war, he retired to his farm, and had not since appeared in public, except at the Philadelphia "National Union Convention" of 1866, to which he was a delegate.

FLETCHER, RICHARD, LL. D., a learned and accomplished jurist of Massachusetts, born in Cavendish, Vt., January 8, 1788; died in Boston, Mass., June 21, 1869. He graduated at Dartmouth College, in 1806, at the early age of eighteen, and studied law in the office of Daniel Webster, at Portsmouth. He was called to the bar in 1809, and settled at Salisbury, N. H., where he remained until about 1825, when he removed to Boston. He at once took a high rank among the leaders of the bar, and within two or three years was retained as leading counsel for the Warren Bridge proprietors in the famous case of the Charles River Bridge against them. His associate was the late William C. Aylwin; the opposing counsel being Daniel Webster and Lemuel Shaw. The Supreme Court of Massachusetts were equally divided on the main question involved; Justices Wilde and Morton adjudging that the charter of the Warren Bridge was constitutional, and Chief-Justice Parker and Mr. Justice Putnam holding that it was a violation of the charter of the Charles River Bridge, and therefore unconstitutional. The case was taken by writ of error to the Supreme Court of the United States, where the constitutionality of the Warren Bridge charter was sustained by a majority of the court. The volumes of Pickering's and of Metcalf's Reports from this time prove the extent of Mr. Fletcher's practice and the importance of the cases in which he was engaged. His practice in the United States Courts was also very large. He was for many years the peer and associate of such men as Justice Samuel Hubbard, Prof. Simon Greenleaf, Peleg Sprague, Franklin Dexter, Rufus Choate, and Charles G. Loring. Among these eminent men few equalled and none surpassed Judge Fletcher in professional ability. He was repeatedly retained against Mr. Webster and Mr. Mason, and showed himself no unworthy antagonist of them; while veteran lawyers have declared that, for general legal and especially for *nisi prius* business, he had but one equal, and that was Mr. Choate. He was a formidable opponent before a jury, and was equally eminent in arguing questions of law in bank. His range of learning and practice extended over all the branches of the law—real estate, commercial, criminal, admiralty, and maritime. Although he practised for many years in the country, he was distinguished in commercial and maritime law, and particularly in the law of marine insurance. Mr. Fletcher had been a member of the Massachusetts Legislature, and in 1837 he was elected to Congress, but resigned his seat at the end of one session. In 1848 he accepted a seat on the Supreme bench, which had more than once been offered him before. He gained much reputation here throughout the country by his able judgments, but the position was not much to his taste, and he resigned it in 1853. He returned for a short time to practice, from which he finally retired in 1858. He was for very many years a trustee of Brown University, and for a short time an overseer of Harvard College. He received the degree of LL. D. from Dartmouth in 1846, and from Harvard in 1849. Judge Fletcher was never married. In his religious life he was not only exemplary but active in all good words and works. In the sabbath-school, in the church, in missionary and other benevolent enterprises, he was always active and ready to

give his personal service as well as the necessary pecuniary aid. He left in his will a bequest of $100,000 to Dartmouth College.

FLORIDA. The second regular session of the Legislature, under the new constitution, was convened on the 5th of January. The question of the impeachment of Governor Reed was still pending. A committee was appointed by the Assembly, on the second day of the session, to investigate the charges against the Executive. On the 26th of January, this committee, having concluded their investigation, submitted a report containing the testimony taken before them. Having listened to the reading of the testimony, the Assembly, on the following day, made a final disposition of the impeachment matter by passing the following resolution by a vote of 43 to 5:

Whereas, The committee appointed on the 6th day of January, to inquire into and investigate the conduct, acts, and doings of Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida, have, pursuant to instructions, reported the results of their investigations to this body, accompanied with the testimony taken in the said matter: therefore, be it

Resolved by the Assembly of Florida, That the said Assembly finds nothing in said report or testimony justifying an impeachment of Harrison Reed, Governor of Florida.

Prior, however, to the announcement of this result, Lieutenant-Governor Gleason, who had vacated the office during the impeachment proceedings, on the 9th of January, formally resigned his position as presiding officer of the Senate.

The question of the right of Mr. Mobley, who had been elected a Senator from the Twenty-second District, to retain his seat in the Senate, came up in that body, and caused no little discussion. This gentleman, after his election and qualification as Senator, had accepted an appointment as State Attorney. It was claimed that no person could legally hold both of these offices at the same time, and that whoever accepted one became for the time being ineligible to the other. The question came before the Senate on the 9th of January, when it was decided, by a vote of 11 to 9, that Mr. Mobley was ineligible as a Senator, and his seat was declared vacant. The Senate then passed a resolution calling upon the Executive to issue a proclamation ordering a special election in the Twenty-second District to fill the vacancy.

Efforts were made at this session of the Legislature to unseat Senator Gilbert, who had been elected to the United States Senate for the term of six years from the 4th of March, 1869, by the Legislature which was in session in the summer of 1868. Mr. Gilbert's election at that time, it was claimed, was invalid, on the ground that there was no vacancy in the office. Failing to establish the illegality of Mr. Gilbert's election, efforts were then made to secure the election of another Senator for the same seat, and leave it to Congress to decide the claims of the two contestants. This movement also failed, and Senator Gilbert was admitted to his seat in the United States Senate on the 4th of March.

The act passed at this session, "to establish a uniform system of common schools and a university," reflects great honor upon the State, as being a liberal and comprehensive system of instruction, adapted not only to the present needs of the State but looking also to its future growth and advancement. The bill provides for the appointment of a State Superintendent, and a State Board of Education, consisting of the State Superintendent, the Secretary of State, and the Attorney-General, and also a County Superintendent, and a Board of Public Instruction in each county. All persons between the ages of six and twenty-one years are entitled to the advantages of free instruction, in support of which provision is made for the levying of a tax not to exceed one per cent. The bill has in view the future establishment of a State University on a broad and liberal basis, the object of which will be to afford instruction in the various professions, sciences, and languages.

Having provided for the establishment of a Bureau of Immigration as a means for the dissemination of information intended to encourage immigration to the State, the Legislature adjourned on the 1st of February.

In the early part of January, the commissioners (Messrs. J. L. Pennington, A. J. Walker, and Charles A. Miller) who had been appointed by the Executive of Alabama, pursuant to a resolution of the Legislature of that State, passed in December, 1868, "to negotiate with the State government of Florida for the annexation to the State of Alabama of that portion of Florida lying west of the Choctawhatchie River," arrived at Tallahassee, for the purpose of opening negotiations in reference to the proposed transfer. In the communication addressed to Governor Reed, of Florida, stating the object of their mission, the commissioners took occasion to set forth some of the motives that had induced the Legislature of Alabama to make the proposition for the annexation:

"The idea of making West Florida a part of Alabama," they said, "has long been cherished, and a glance at the map suggests it. The regularity of geometrical figure which it would give to Alabama; the improvement which it would make in the outlines of Florida; the fact that West Florida is traversed by streams, some of them having their origin in Alabama, and some of them their upward limits of navigation in that State; the facility and frequency of communication and trade between West Florida and Alabama, and the homogeneity of tastes, sentiment, and interests, between their peoples, combine to afford arguments for a political connection so obvious, that they have long been generally recognized. We venture to say, and we do so with the utmost respect, that the people of West Florida have

far more identity of interest and feeling with the people of Alabama than with the people of Middle, East, or South Florida. This is the result of natural causes, which it would be unreasonable and unjust to make a ground of personal censure. But, high as these arguments are in favor of the inclusion of West Florida in Alabama, they are not the arguments which have led to our present mission. In Central Alabama we have the finest deposits of coal and iron upon the American Continent. We think we are justified in making this assertion, after an examination into the subject of the value of like mineral resources in Pennsylvania. Pensacola must be the handmaid in the development of those immense coal and iron interests, unless our own Mobile should be able to improve its harbor. The coal and iron of Alabama are destined to supply the demands of the South and of the steam marine floating upon the Gulf of Mexico and the Caribbean Sea. The supply will be afforded through the port of Pensacola, if it is an Alabama city. If the legislation hereafter as to the port of Pensacola can be directed in reference to its ancillary influence upon the development of the mineral interests of Central Alabama, it will become a great city—probably the Birmingham of America—and Alabama will make it the gateway through which prosperity shall flow in upon its people and spread throughout its borders."

This communication was immediately submitted by Governor Reed to the Legislature, with the recommendation "that a commission be appointed to receive and consider, in behalf of the State of Florida, any propositions which may be presented in behalf of Alabama." Messrs. C. E. Dyke, W. J. Purman, and N. H. Moragne were appointed by the Legislature to act in behalf of Florida in the negotiations. These gentlemen subsequently had a conference with the Alabama commissioners, and agreed upon the terms of transfer. In pursuance of the provision requiring the question to be submitted to a popular vote in the district proposed to be transferred, Governor Reed, on the 25th of June, issued a proclamation for an election in West Florida, in which were embodied the terms of the agreement made by the commissioners. These stipulated that the assent of Congress should be obtained, and that a consideration of one million dollars be paid by Alabama.

At the election on the 2d of November, the result was as follows:

Whole number of votes cast	1,823
Number of votes cast for annexation	1,162
Number of votes cast against annexation	661
Majority in favor of annexation	501

In Jackson County no election was held. Had there been an election in this county, it is believed that the vote would have been much larger in favor of annexation.

The Governor, in his message to the Legislature in January, 1870, reports the vote on the proposed cession to Alabama, and quietly remarks that he presumes no very considerable portion of the people of the State, or their representatives, seriously entertain the idea of ceding one-fifth of their territory and population, and the finest harbor on the gulf, to the jurisdiction of another State, almost without consideration.

Pursuant to the call of the Executive for an extra session of the Legislature, that body met on the 8th of June. Although the session was short, several measures closely allied with the welfare of the State were passed. One of the most important of these was the bill effecting a complete and much-needed revision of the revenue and tax laws. The system of taxation and revenue had been in a very defective condition, from which the State had suffered heavy losses. The revenue was inadequate to meet the necessary expenditures of the government. In some parts of the State property of great value had escaped taxation entirely, either through the negligence of the assessors or their fraudulent returns. In one county it was reported that property, which, many years ago, was valued at eighty cents per acre, had been uniformly assessed according to that standard, although its increased value was from ten to twenty dollars per acre. In calling the attention of the Legislature to these evils, the Executive said: "In connection with this subject, I would remark further, that it cannot be doubted that, under the present system, a very large amount of property is not taxed, and the system of assessment is so radically defective, that the assessor is really able to know but little of it. A proper system for the assessment of all the taxable property in the State, at a fair cash value, will result in great relief to that portion of our citizens who have heretofore borne the burden and expense of maintaining the State government. Immense tracts of land, owned by non-residents and others, some of which lands are among the most valuable and productive, have either escaped taxation altogether, or been charged so slightly that they have been withheld from market and from cultivation, thus impeding immigration and the increase of population, and throwing the burden of maintaining the government, the improvement of roads and bridges, and opening the avenues of commerce and agriculture, upon the property of others, and upon individual industry and enterprise."

Not only was the system defective in regard to the assessment of taxes, but the State had suffered heavy losses through the neglect of collectors or their default in making returns to the treasury. To remedy these and other evils it was necessary thoroughly to revise the revenue and tax laws. It is believed that the bill passed by the legislature at this session will introduce an equitable and efficient system of taxation which will yield a revenue adequate to the needs of the State.

The legislation in behalf of the railroad interest seems to have been made necessary by the reduced condition of the roads, the facilities of which were by no means such as the demands and welfare of the people required. The "Railroad Bill" grants to certain companies State aid in the form of loans to the extent of $14,000 per mile. A company is also incorporated to construct a railroad across the upper part of Florida "between Jacksonville on the Atlantic coast and Pensacola on the Gulf coast and Mobile in Alabama," to be known as the Jacksonville, Pensacola, and Mobile Railroad. The bill provides that this road shall be completed within three years from June, 1869.

Governor Reed had previously memoralized Congress to grant to the State certain lands for railroad and canal purposes, and there is little doubt but that the efforts made and the inducements held out will attract capitalists to the State to build up its internal improvements.

The Fifteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified in the House on the 11th of June, by a vote of 26 to 13, and in the Senate on the 16th of June, by a vote of 18 to 8.

After passing the homestead law and other measures of a local nature, the Legislature adjourned on the 24th of June.

As there were no general elections during the year, there was no political canvass. A convention of Republicans assembled at Tallahassee on the 27th of October, for the purpose of adopting measures for the better organization of the Republican party in Florida. Although the call for this convention was not issued by the State Republican Committee, about seventy delegates, representing fifteen counties, were present, and organized with Mr. Josiah T. Walls as president of the convention. In reference to the organization of the Republican party, it was

Resolved, That the State Executive Committee be called upon to organize the Republicans of this State, and call upon this committee to appoint county executive committees in the several counties of the State, for the purpose of a thorough organization of the Republican party.

There were loud complaints, in the convention, of outrages that had been committed in various parts of the State, in gross violation of law; and, also of the discriminations made in public conveyances and public inns against colored citizens.

In reporting upon the condition of Florida, the committee said:

Your committee beg leave to report, that they find existing, in the counties of Jackson, Hamilton, and Madison, a condition of things much to be deplored. They have reliable information of the murder of peaceable men, women, and children, and these outrages have prevailed to such an extent in the county of Jackson that, in the opinion of your committee, this convention should recommend and most earnestly urge upon the Governor that martial law be immediately proclaimed in that county, and that the expenses thus incurred in the protection of the lives of the inhabitants, and restoring order and obedience to the laws, be collected from the taxable property of the county, under the supervision of the officer commanding the troops; and also that, in all other counties where the officers of the law are threatened and defied, the same remedy should be applied; and that this convention pledge its hearty support to the Governor in carrying out these measures, and protecting all our citizens in the right of life, liberty, and property, and the pursuit of happiness.

The platform adopted by the convention was as follows:

Whereas, All permanent peace and welfare of a State must be based upon the recognition and security of the "inalienable right to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness" of every individual, this convention, by the sentiment of justice which it represents, and by every broad consideration of duty, would make this avowal of its principles and purposes:

1. We indorse the platform of principles enunciated by the Republican Convention at Chicago, May 20, 1868.

2. We heartily indorse the Administration of President Grant and the financial policy of his Administration, and approve of his vigorous efforts to secure the retrenchment of the expenses of the Federal Government.

3. We favor the adoption of the Fifteenth Amendment to the United States Constitution as indispensable to the lasting peace and security of the country.

4. We congratulate the country on the success of the Republican party in the late elections in the Northern States.

We most deeply deplore the alienation and divisions in the ranks of the Republican party in this State, as indicating disaster to our common cause, and we call upon all Republicans to discard selfish schemes, and the blind support of *individual men*, regardless of consideration of that unity of party action and harmony in which only consists our strength.

In view of the outrages upon human rights and human life in Jackson County, we do most earnestly urge upon the Governor the absolute necessity of declaring martial law in that county, as a protection to its citizens and a vindication of the authority of the State government.

We call the attention of the Executive to similar outrages in Hamilton, Madison, and other counties, and we recommend the same remedy in these counties.

We also urge the propriety of the citizens of such counties being taxed to bear the expenses of such necessary vindication of law and justice in those counties, and that such tax be assessed and collected under control of the military authorities in charge.

Resolutions were passed by the convention in favor of "urging upon the Legislature at its next regular session the necessity of enacting such laws as will secure, to the colored citizens as well as to the white, equal and exact privileges upon all railroads, steamboats, and other public conveyances running, plying, and doing business throughout this State, and at all public inns."

After listening to an address by Governor Reed, the convention adjourned.

The complaints of the delegates to this convention, in reference to outrages that had been committed, were not without foundation. These disorders, however, were not general throughout the State, but were mostly confined to Jackson County, which was the scene of a series of assassinations as mysteri-

ous as they were horrible, in which the victims were in several instances colored citizens. The first of these assassinations, following closely upon a serious affray that had just taken place between United States soldiers at Jacksonville and colored citizens, occurred on the 26th of February, at Marianna, in Jackson County, when Mr. W. J. Purman, a prominent Republican politician, and a member of the State Senate, and Dr. J. L. Finlayson, the Clerk of the Circuit Court, while peaceably returning to their homes, were fired upon by concealed assailants. Dr. Finlayson was killed, and Senator Purman seriously wounded. It was believed that the motives which prompted the assassination were purely political. This same locality, in the latter part of September, was the scene of other mysterious tragedies. On three different occasions, in different parts of the county, persons were fired upon by assailants concealed in the woods. During one week no less than five persons were killed and several wounded—victims of the assassin's bullet. As might have been expected, these occurrences caused much indignation on the part of the citizens, who formed themselves into organizations, and every effort was made to bring the offenders to justice.

The action of the convention above-mentioned was not without its effect, for, a month later, on the 25th of November, the Republican State Executive Committee, seeing the need of a more complete organization of the Republican party throughout the State, held a meeting at Tallahassee for the purpose of taking some action with reference to that object. At this meeting, it was decided to issue an address calling upon the Republicans of the State to meet in county conventions or mass meetings in their respective counties, "and in all the counties upon the same day, to consider the principles and policy of the Republican party, and to determine upon its present and future course of action in the State." It was the opinion of the committee that a State Convention should not be called until after the assembling of the county conventions.

The address of the committee was issued on the 28th of November, and the 20th of December was fixed upon as the day for holding the various county conventions. The address reaffirms the leading and commonly-accepted principles of the Republican party, announces the importance of united and harmonious action on the part of the Republicans, and appeals to the Republicans of the State "to unite in urging the Legislature and the Executive to the adoption of all proper measures, and to the use of all available means, to secure such an enforcement of existing laws, and such additional legislation, as will insure to all *in fact* that absolute equality of right before the law, and that entire and equal security of person and property, which, guaranteed *in theory*, is the first and paramount duty of a truly Republican party to secure." The position of the party on the important questions before the people of Florida was also defined.

In accordance with the suggestions contained in the address, conventions or mass meetings were held in the various counties on the appointed day, and much interest and enthusiasm were manifest in the proceedings. There was a general determination on the part of the people assembled to take a more active share in public affairs in the future, and to make the organization of the Republican party of Florida more thorough and effective.

The first instance of the admission of a negro to the practice of the law in Florida occurred during this year, when Harvey S. Harmon was admitted to the bar at a term of the Alachua Circuit Court, held by Judge J. H. Gross.

The condition of the various public institutions of the State is becoming more favorable every year.

The State debt, at the close of the year 1869, was represented to be $1,011,756.20, which was composed of the following items:

Bonded debt of January 1, 1869		$578,045 08
Viz.: seven per cent. bonds, 1856,	$220,000 00	
Seven per cent. bonds in school and seminary fund	262,045 08	
Seven per cent. bonds in internal improvement fund	66,000 00	
Eight per cent. bonds Constitutional Convention	30,000 00	—$578,045 08
Of this there was paid, bonds of 1867, the past year		25,000 00
Leaving of bonded debt of 1869		$553,045 08
Accumulated interest on the $220,000 seven per cent. bonds of 1856		122,500 00
Interest on Convention bonds one year, at eight per cent		2,400 00
New bonds sold		76,000 00
Amount of outstanding treasury warrants and certificates		151,825 32
Amount due on hypothecated bonds		105,985 80
Total State debt		$1,011,756 20

The payments to be made during the year 1870 are stated (upon the basis that all past dues are to be met) as follows:

Accumulated interest as above stated	$122,500 00
Warrants and certificates outstanding	151,825 32
To redeem hypothecated bonds	105,985 80
Convention bonds and interest	32,400 00
Interest on $553,045 08 bonds, at seven per cent	38,713 15
Interest on $76,000 bonds, at six per cent	4,560 00
Total floating debt	$455,984 27
Expenses for State government and contingencies	200,000 00
Repairs on Capitol, and addition to Penitentiary	50,000 00
Total	$705,984 27

To meet this amount, the total resources are estimated to be $545,100. In regard to the remaining $160,884.27, Governor Reed, in his last message to the Legislature, suggested that "the further issue of warrants and treasury certificates should cease, and a cash basis be established. If this cannot be done, a temporary issue of treasury notes for general circulation, if admissible under the Federal Constitution, may be resorted to. An issue of $100,000, or perhaps $200,000, for circulation

in the State, would be a local convenience, and a relief to the treasury; but it should be well guarded, and under such restrictions as will preclude fraud and corruption."

Much time was lost in inaugurating the new system of common schools; but, during the latter half of 1869, the people became much interested in the subject, and more than two hundred schools were organized, and about seven thousand pupils admitted. Valuable aid has been received from the Freedmen's Bureau at Washington, which has built many fine school-houses, and furnished many competent teachers.

At the close of the year there were ninety-four convicts in the Penitentiary. The Board of Public Institutions have contracted for the labor of about fifty of these for three years at a price deemed advantageous. The organization of the Penitentiary, as a military institution, is reported to be an unwise system, as it requires a heavy guard, and escape is comparatively easy; and it is recommended that cells and proper safeguards be introduced, in order to make the institution self-sustaining, and secure the confinement of criminals.

As there are many good citizens who are of opinion that the further disfranchisement of those who participated in the rebellion is unnecessary, Governor Reed has recommended to the Legislature that "Congress be asked to pass a bill relieving all citizens of this State from disability on account of participation in the rebellion, upon their filing with the Secretary of State an application for such relief."

FOLSOM, GEORGE, a diplomatist, antiquarian, and author, born in Kennebunk, Me., May 23, 1802; died in Rome, Italy, March 27, 1869. He was fitted for college at Phillips Academy, Andover, and entered Harvard College in 1818, graduating in 1822. After leaving college, he studied law in Saco, Me. On his admission to the bar, he established himself in practice in Framingham, Mass. From Framingham he removed to Worcester, where he continued in the practice of his profession, and where he soon became associated with the American Antiquarian Society, and, as chairman of the committee of publication, edited the second volume of its Transactions. About the year 1837 he removed to New York, and became a member of the New York Historical Society. He was soon elected its librarian, and took a leading part in the restoration of that society to its original activity and usefulness. He was the principal, if not the exclusive, editor, in 1841, of a volume of collections devoted to the Dutch annals of the State, upon which a very high value was placed by historical students. His next publication was a translation of the dispatches of Hernando Cortez, written in 1520 and 1526, and sent to the court of Spain, from the seat of war in Mexico, with a valuable introduction and elaborate notes. This was the first translation of these dispatches into English. Following upon this, he prepared for the press a small volume, "The Political Condition of Mexico." Mr. Folsom was elected to the Senate of New York in 1844, and thus became a member, *ex officio*, of the Court of Errors of that State, in whose discussions and decisions his early legal training was turned to the best account. In 1850 he was appointed by General Taylor *chargé d'affaires* at the Hague, where he remained until 1854, discharging the duties and administering the hospitalities of his mission to the entire satisfaction of his own Government, and of the country to which he was accredited. After travelling in Europe two years, he returned to New York and renewed his relations with the various literary and charitable associations with which he had been previously connected. He was a director of the New York Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, President of the Citizens' Savings Bank, and President of the American Ethnological Society. The state of his health, however, had incapacitated him of late for any active pursuit of literary or historical studies, and he had repeatedly sought restoration in tours to Europe. His large and valuable library was a great consolation to him in his failing health.

FRANCE, an empire in Europe. Emperor, Louis Napoleon (Napoleon III.), born April 20, 1808; chosen hereditary Emperor by the *plébiscite* of November 21 and November 22, 1852. Heir-apparent, Napoleon Eugene Louis Jean Joseph, born March 16, 1856. The area amounts to 209,428 square miles.

The new ministry, appointed on July 17, 1869, consisted of the following members: Keeper of the Seal, Minister of Justice and of Worship, J. B. M. Duvergier; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Prince de la Tour d'Auvergne-Lauraguais; Minister of the Interior, De Forcade la Roquette; Minister of Finance, Magne, Senator; Minister of the Navy and of the Colonies, Admiral Rigault de Genouilly; Minister of Public Instruction, L. O. Bourbeau, Deputy; Minister of Public Works, Gressier; Minister of Agriculture and Commerce, Le Roux, vice-president of the Corps Législatif; Minister of the Imperial House and Fine Arts, Marshal Vaillant, Senator (July, 1869); President of the Council of State, Marquis J. N. S. P. Chasseloup-Laubat, Senator; Minister of War, Le Bœuf, General of Division (August 21, 1869).

President of the Senate, Rouher, appointed 1869; first vice-president, Boudet, appointed December 23, 1865. The president and vice-president of the Legislative Body are now (since 1869) elected by the Legislative Body, and no longer, as before, appointed by the Emperor.

At the head of the French Army were, in 1869, eight marshals of France, namely: Count J. B. P. Vaillant (December 11, 1851); Count A. Baraguey d'Hilliers (August 28, 1854); Count J. L. C. A. Randon (March 18, 1856); F. C. Canrobert (March 18, 1856); Count A. M. E. Regnault de St. Jean d'Angely (June 5, 1859);

M. E. P. M. McMahon, Duke of Magenta (June 5, 1859); C. F. Forey (July 2, 1863); F. A. Bazaine (September 5, 1864). All the marshals are members of the Senate.

The army is divided into seven army corps. The district of an army corps is called an *arrondissement militaire*. The arrondissements are divided into divisions and subdivisions. The total number of divisions is 25; the number of subdivisions equals that of the departments. The headquarters of the army corps are as follows: 1. Paris; Commander-in-chief, Marshal Canrobert. 2. Lille; Commander-in-chief, General of Division, De Ladmirault, Senator. 3. Nancy; Commander-in-chief, Marshal Bazaine. 4. Lyons; General of Division, Cousin Montauban, Count de Palikao. 5. Tours; Commander-in-chief, Marshal Count Baraguey d'Hilliers. 6. Toulouse; Commander-in-chief —vacant. 7. Algiers; Commander-in-chief, Marshal McMahon, Duke of Magenta.

Minister of the United States in France, E. B. Washburne, appointed May 23, 1869; minister of France in the United States, J. Berthemy, appointed December 5, 1866.

The population of France, according to the census of 1866, was (exclusive of 125,000 soldiers stationed outside of France) 38,067,064, of which 11,595,348 (or 30.5 per cent.) lived in towns, and 26,471,716 (or 69.5 per cent.) in the country. In the following departments more than 70 per cent. of the total populations lived in the towns: Seine (98.9), Loire-inférieure (72.4), Boucher-du-Rhône (85.7), Rhône (70.4); while, on the other hand, less than 20 per cent. inhabited towns in the following departments: Oise (19.4), Meuse (17.9), Haute-Marne (16.9), Haute-Saône (19.6), Savoie (18.4), Ozère (17.2), Hautes-Alpes (15.1), Dordogne (19.7), Hautes-Pyrenées (18.7).

The religious statistics of France, in 1866 (inclusive of the military), are given in the official *Statistique de la France*, as follows:

	Population.	Per ct.	Algeria.
Catholics	37,107,212	97.48	211,195
Protestants			
Reformed Church... 515,759			
Confess. of Augsburg. 286,506	846,619	2.23	5,022
Other Prot. denom... 44,354			
Israelites	89,040	0.23	35,737
Other non-Christian sects	1,400	0.06	17,232
Religion unknown	22,786		
Mohammedans	.....	....	2,688,746

Forty-eight of the 89 departments have a Protestant population of less than 2,000. The largest Protestant population is in the departments—Gard, 123,179 (35.78 per cent.); Bas Rhin, 181,213 (31.25 per cent.), and Seine, 46,591 (3.20 per cent.).

As regards nationality, the *Statistique de la France* numbers 37,412,028 Frenchmen (98.33 per cent.) and 635,495 resident foreigners (1.67 per cent.); 19,541 remaining unaccounted for. Among the foreigners were 275,888 Belgians, 106,606 Germans, 99,624 Italians, 42,270 Swiss, 32,550 Spaniards, 29,856 Englishmen. The difference of language among the natives of France has never been the subject of an official census. It is estimated that about 1,200,000 of the population (Alsace and Lorraine) speak German as their native tongue, 200,000 Flemish, 1,800,000 Walloon, 1,100,000 Breton.

The population of the colonial possessions of France was, in 1868, reported as follows:

ASIA.—India—Pondicherry, Karikal, Mahe, Yanaon, Chandernagor (1866)	253,171
Cochin China—the three old provinces.	502,116
" the three new provinces (Vinhilong, Chaudoc, and Hatien)	477,000
Possessions in Asia	1,232,287
AFRICA.—Senegambia	607,398
Gold Coast	133
Gaboon	186,000
Island of Réunion (1866)	208,336
Islands of Mayotti and Mossi-Be (1865).	20,717
Island of St. Marie (1865)	6,110
Possessions in Africa exclusive of Algeria	1,028,694
OCEANICA.—New Caledonia	29,000
Loyalty Islands	15,000
Marquesas Islands	10,000
Possessions in Oceanica	54,000
AMERICA.—St. Pierre and Miquelon (1866).	2,924
Martinique (1866)	154,358
Gaudaloupe and dependencies (1866)	151,741
Guiana (1866)	25,174
Possessions in America	334,697
Total of French colonies	2,649,678

Under the protectorate of France are the kingdoms of Cambodia (1,000,000 inhabitants); Porto Novo, on the Gold Coast in Africa; Tahiti, Gambier, and other islands in Oceanica, together with a population of 1,043,897. The aggregate population of colonies and countries under the protectorate amounts to 3,693,575.

In the "Definite Budget for 1869" (exclusive of the "Special Budget") the revenue appears as 1,755,843,203 francs; expenditures, 1,751,241,931 francs; surplus, 4,601,272 francs. The budget for 1870, as voted by the Senate and Legislative Body, is as follows: Regular receipts, 1,738,467,393; specie budget, 280,298,910; extraordinary budget, 124,841,311; total receipts, 2,056,022,969; total of expenditures, 2,054,588,469; surplus, 1,434,500. The public debt, in 1869, amounted to 12,923,718,073 francs.

The army,* according to the new law of February 1, 1868, consists of the active army and the reserve, each numbering 400,000 men. A "Garde Nationale Mobile," which will number about 550,000, was to coöperate for the defence of fortresses, coasts, and frontiers. The National Guard has a military organization, and is placed under the Minister of War. It comprises 250 battalions, having each eight companies of 2,000 men, and 125 batteries of 200 men. Together, the active army, the reserve, and the National Guard, number 1,350,000 men.

* The composition of the active army is given in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

The fleet on January 1, 1869, was composed as follows:

VESSELS.	AFLOAT.		IN COURSE OF CONSTRUCTION.	
	Number.	Guns.	Number.	Guns.
Screw-steamers—iron-clad..	55	1,082	8	68
" " non-iron-clad..	233	2,618	23	144
Wheel-steamers	51	116	.....	.....
Sailing-vessels	100	914	.....	.....
Total	189	4,680	31	212

At the head of the marine force, which altogether consisted, in 1869, of 72,446 men, there were two admirals, C. Rigauld de Genouilly (January, 1864); F. T. Trehouart (February, 1869); 16 active vice-admirals (besides 10 in reserve); 30 active counter-admirals (and 19 in reserve). The number of marine and colonial troops amounted to 28,882.

The special commerce* of France with America and some European countries was, in 1867, as follows (value expressed in francs):

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.
AMERICA—		
United States	140,990,000	156,800,000
Mexico and Central America	4,000,000	12,100,000
Hayti	22,900,000	4,900,000
Spanish Colonies	31,800,000	18,100,000
Brazil	46,600,000	64,400,000
Argentine Republic and Uruguay	129,900,000	111,900,000
Chili	14,400,000	30,500,000
Peru and Ecuador	45,600,000	25,500,000
U. S. of Colombia and Venezuela	16,500,000	23,400,000
Other American States	4,300,000	9,700,000
Total America	456,600,000	456,100,000
EUROPE—		
Great Britain	551,800,000	896,900,000
Belgium	380,900,000	255,000,000
Zollverein	257,600,000	212,900,000
Switzerland	106,900,000	232,900,000
Italy	318,700,000	179,700,000
Turkey	135,500,000	56,100,000
Spain	90,000,000	103,300,000
Total Europe	2,176,500,000	2,110,800,000
AFRICA	91,800,000	54,900,000
ASIA	129,100,000	28,000,000
OCEANICA	3,000,000	4,600,000
ALGERIA, and other Colonies	169,500,000	177,000,000
Total	3,026,500,000	2,825,900,000

The following is a summary of the movement of commerce from 1858 to 1867 (value expressed in millions of francs):

YEARS.	SPECIAL COMMERCE.		SPECIE AND PRECIOUS METALS.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exp'ts.
1867.	3,026.5	2,825.9	849	253
1866.	2,793.5	3,180.6	1,065	554
Annual average, 1863-'67.	2,663.3	2,983.3	768	496
1858-'62.	1,948.3	2,119.9	643	444
1853-'57.	1,588.9	1,654.4	553	427

* By special commerce those imports are understood which are intended for consumption in France, and those exports which are produced in France.

The movement of shipping in 1867 was as follows:

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
French	11,607	2,266,418	68,470	1,880,005
Foreign	20,989	4,080,288	13,416	2,265,893
Total	32,596	6,366,706	21,890	4,125,898

The merchant navy, on December 31, 1867, comprised:

Sailing-vessels	15,189	915,831
Steamers	420	132,158
Total	15,603	1,048,679
Coasting-vessels	8,892	67,077

The railroads of France are private property, which, after the expiration of their term of concession, will become the property of the state, which grants to the companies aid for the construction of the roads. On the 1st of January, 1869, the total length of railroads which were in operation was 2,188.5 geographical miles (1 geographical mile = 1.153 English miles); besides permission had been granted for the construction of 794.3 miles. The postal statistics, in 1868, were as follow:

	All France.	Paris alone.
Private letters	354,185,000	88,687,830
Official correspondence	121,000,000	9,543,868
Newspapers and printed matter	230,552,000	228,098,004
Money letters	5,230,000	891,753

The total length of telegraphic lines, in 1868, was 5,137.7 geographical miles.

A new legislative session was opened by the Emperor on the 18th of January.

Messieurs les Sénateurs, Messieurs les Députés: The speech which I address to you every year at the opening of the session is the sincere expression of the thoughts which guide my conduct. To explain frankly to the nation, before the great bodies of the state, the progress of the Government, is the duty of the responsible chief of a free country. The task which we have undertaken together is arduous. It is not, indeed, without difficulty that, on a soil shaken by so many revolutions, a Government is founded sufficiently impressed with the wants of the age to adopt all the benefits of liberty, and sufficiently strong to bear even its excesses. The two laws which you passed during the last session, and the object of which was the development of the principle of free discussion, have produced two opposite effects, which it may be useful to point out. On the one hand, the press and public meetings have created in a certain quarter a factious agitation, and have caused the reappearance of ideas and passions which were believed to be extinguished; but, on the other hand, the nation, remaining insensible to the most violent incitement, and relying upon my firmness for the maintenance of order, has not felt its faith in the future shaken.

Remarkable coincidence! The more adventurous and subversive minds sought to disturb public tranquillity, so much the more profound became the peace of the country; commercial transactions reassumed a fruitful activity, the public revenues increased considerably, the public interests were reassured, and the greater part of the recent elections gave a new support to my Government. The army

law and the subsidies granted by your patriotism have contributed to strengthen the confidence of the country, and in the just consciousness of its pride it experienced a real satisfaction the moment it learned that it was in a position to confront every eventuality. The land and sea forces, strongly constituted, are upon a peace footing. The effective strength of the active army does not exceed that which existed under former systems, but our armament rendered perfect, our arsenals and our magazines filled, our reserves well trained, the National Garde Mobile in course of organization, our fleet reconstructed, and our strongholds in good condition, give to our power a development which was indispensable.

The constant object of my efforts is attained, and the military resources of France are henceforward on a level with its destiny in the world. In this position we can loudly proclaim our desire to maintain peace. There is no weakness in our saying so when we are ready to defend the honor and the independence of our country.

Our relations with foreign powers are most friendly. The revolution which has broken out beyond the Pyrenees has not altered our good relations with Spain, and the Conference, to stifle a threatening conflict in the East, is a great act of which we should appreciate the importance. This Conference approaches its termination, and all the plenipotentiaries have agreed upon the principles calculated to bring about a reconciliation between Greece and Turkey. If, therefore, as I firmly hope, nothing shall arise to disturb general harmony, it will be our fortune to realize many projected improvements, and we shall endeavor to solve all the practical questions raised by the agricultural investigations.

Public works have been sufficiently endowed; parochial roads are being constructed. Education of all classes continues to be successfully developed, and, thanks to the periodical increase of the revenue, we shall soon be able to devote all our solicitude to the diminution of public burdens. The moment is drawing nigh when, for the third time since the establishment of the empire, the Legislative Body will be constituted afresh by a general election, and each time it will have attained the limit of its legal duration—a thing hitherto unknown. This regularity is due to the harmony which has always existed between us, and to the confidence which I feel in the sincere exercise of universal suffrage. The popular masses are stanch in their faith as in their affections, and, if noble passions are able to rouse them, sophism and calumny scarce ruffle the surface. Sustained by your approbation and your concurrence, I am thoroughly resolved to persevere in the course which I have laid down—that is to say, to adopt all real progress, but also to maintain, without discussion, the essential bases of the Constitution which the national vote has placed under shelter from all attacks. 'A good tree is known by the fruits it bears,' says the Gospel.

Well, if we cast a glance at the past, which is the Government that has given to France seventeen years of ever-increasing quiet and prosperity? Certainly, every government is liable to error, and Fortune does not smile upon all enterprises; but that which constitutes my strength is the fact that the nation does not ignore that for twenty years I have not had a single thought, I have not done a single deed, of which the motive was other than the interest and greatness of France. Nor is it ignorant of the circumstance that I was the first to desire a rigorous control over the conduct of affairs; that I with this object increased the powers of the deliberative Assemblies, persuaded that the real support of a government is to be found in the independence and patriotism of the great bodies of the state. This session will add fresh services to those you have already rendered to the country. Soon the nation, called together in its *comitia*, will sanction the policy which we have pursued. It will once more proclaim by its votes that it does not desire revolution, but wishes to rest the destinies of France upon the intimate alliance of power with liberty.

The session of the Legislative Body was terminated on April 26th by President Schneider, who thanked the Chamber for its sympathetic coöperation, and praised its enlightened and patriotic devotion. He added:

The legislation of this session will make its mark in history. We have advanced with a firm step in the liberal development of our institutions, asserting our control without impeding the progress of legislation, and constantly seconding, at the same time, the initiative of the sovereign in the development of our public liberties under a power which gives effectual protection to order and security. In concert with the sovereign we have realized a solid and durable progress favorable to the moral and material prosperity of France. I hope that the next Chamber will manifest similar sentiments of duty toward the country, and of respect and gratitude toward the Emperor.

Among the changes in the administration which were effected in the beginning of the year, was the abolition of the *livrets* or service-books of working-men. The Emperor, on the 24th of February, delivered on this subject the following address in the Council of State:

GENTLEMEN: I have felt anxious to preside this day over the Council of State, in order to explain to you in what order of ideas I had placed myself in inviting the ministers to submit to you a bill relative to the suppression of workmen's livrets.

Society in our time, all must admit, comprises many opposite elements. Do we not see, in fact, on one side, certain legitimate aspirations and just desires of improvement, and on the other subversive theories and blamable cupidities? The duty of the Government is to resolutely satisfy the first, and to firmly repudiate the second.

When the present state of the greatest number is compared with what it was in the last century, there can be only congratulation on the progress obtained, on the abuses destroyed, and on the improvement in public manners. Nevertheless, if the social plagues of the most flourishing populations be probed, there will be discovered, under the appearances of prosperity, many unmerited grievances which call for the sympathies of all generous hearts, and many unsolved problems which solicit the coöperation of all intelligent minds.

It is with such feelings that laws have been elaborated by you and adopted by the Legislative Body, some entirely philanthropical, like those of public assistance, mutual aid and insurance in case of accident or death; others authorizing the workmen to unite their savings, to oppose the solidarity of wages to that of capital, allowing them at the same time to discuss their own interests at public meetings, and, in fine, accrediting their testimony in the courts of justice.

The suppression of the livrets—an act demanded above all as a moral satisfaction in order to relieve the workmen from vexatious formalities—will complete the series of measures which place such persons within the sphere of the common right, and exalt them in their own estimation.

I do not suppose that in following that policy I shall dissipate all prejudices, disarm all animosities, or augment my own popularity. But of one thing I am well convinced—that I shall derive from it a fresh energy for resisting evil passions.

When all useful ameliorations have been accepted, when every thing that is right and just has been done, order is maintained with the more authority, that

force, in such a case, finds its support in the fact of reason and conscience being fully satisfied.

The text of the bill which was approved of by the Council of State, on the 23d of March, was as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The law of June 22, 1854, and all other provisions relative to workmen's service-books, are and remain abrogated. The contract between the directors of manufacturing establishments and their men is subjected to the enactments of the common law, and the terms may be stated in a book for the purpose. A regulation of the public administration will determine the conditions on which that document may serve as a passport.

ART. 2. However, the provisions of the law of March 18, 1806, relative to the service-books acquired by the Lyons trade, will continue to be executed, as well as the act of March 22, 1841, on the labor of children in factories, and that of March 7, 1850, on the account-books for weaving and spinning.

The proposed transfer of a Belgian railway to the (French) Eastern Company led, in consequence of the prompt opposition of the Belgian Chambers (*see* BELGIUM), to unpleasant relations with Belgium, which, for a time, assumed a threatening character. Belgium showed itself willing to facilitate in every possible manner a closer commercial intercourse between the two countries, but remained inflexibly firm in refusing to transfer to a French company rights which appeared to be fraught with dangers to the independence of the country. In April, the Belgian minister, Frère-Orban, went to Paris, to confer with the French ministers, and succeeded in effecting a peaceable settlement of the controversy. On the 27th of April a protocol was signed, instituting a joint commission to draw up the basis of new treaties between the French and Belgian railways. This commission finished its work on the 9th of July, by declaring: "The commissioners convinced that the aim to be attained was to substitute for the treaties drawn by the Eastern Company, the Grand Luxembourg Company, and the company for the working of the Dutch and Liegeois Luxembourg Railways, new combinations to facilitate the development of the commercial relations between Belgium, Holland, and France; moreover, inspiring themselves with the feeling of conciliation that dictated the protocol of the 27th of April last, they have carefully discussed and admitted, by a common accord, the dispositions which, in their opinion, offered mutual advantages to the economical interests of both countries. Thus those dispositions stipulate the organization of transit direct services between the Antwerp port and Basel on the one side, and between the Dutch frontier and Basel on the other. The last service can, with the Dutch Government's sanction, be extended to Rotterdam and Utrecht. The commissioners have formulated in the two documents stipulations which lay down the bases of the treaties to be intervened between the Eastern Company, with the administration of the railways belonging to the Belgian Government on the one side, and with the company for the working of Dutch railways and Liegeois-Limburg line on the other."

A new election of the Legislative Body took place on the 23d and 27th of May, amid great excitement, which led to tumults in Angers, Lille, Amiens, Toulouse, St. Etienne, Dijon, Calais, Toulon, and other places. The opposition again carried the large cities, as Paris, Lyons, Marseilles, and others, though the Government, on the whole, obtained a complete victory. The opposition gained, however, many new members; as, in addition to the former leaders of the democratic opposition, such as Simon, Favre, Thiers, a number of ultra-radicals—as Gambetta, a young lawyer of great promise; Bancel, who, in 1851, as a defender of the republic against Louis Napoleon, had been exiled; Raspail, a lifelong leader in all republican conspiracies—were elected. Henry Rochefort, the editor of the *Lanterne*, and later of the *Marseillaise*, was defeated at the supplementary elections, held in those districts, in which no candidate has obtained an absolute majority; but when, in November, new elections were held in a few districts, in consequence of some of the members having been elected in two places, Rochefort was elected in one of the Paris districts, and with him Emmanuel Arago, and Cremieux. Emile Ollivier, who had forfeited the confidence of the Liberal party, was defeated in Paris, but elected in a country district. A semi-official paper, *La France*, gave the following statistics of the votes cast at the election of May: Total number of votes registered, 10,315,523; actual votes, 8,098,566; of which were cast: 1. For the official candidates of the Government, 4,455,287; 2. For the third party and other adherents of the imperial dynasty who were not official candidates, 1,124,598: 3. For the candidates of the monarchical opposition, such as Orleanists, Catholic party, Legitimists, etc., 786,020; 4. For Democratic candidates, but who are not Radicals, 1,507,648; 5. For Radical Democrats, 153,263; 6. Scattered votes, 71,742. The votes of the first and second classes, representing the combined strength of the adherents of the Napoleonic dynasty, together number 5,579,885; those of the third, fourth, and fifth classes, representing the combined strength of the opponents of imperialism, number 2,446,931. As regards, however, the principle of "personal" in opposition to "constitutional" government which had hitherto been the guide of the imperial administration, the votes of the second class were no less in opposition to the former policy of Napoleon than those of the three following classes; and in this sense the aggregate vote of the opposition reached the large figure of 3,648,271, against 4,455,287 votes cast for the imperial policy.

This partial success of the opposition at the elections in May, and at the first supplementary elections in June, called forth very excited and

riotous demonstrations in Paris and in other cities. On the 7th and 8th of June the crowds at various central points, especially in the Boulevard St. Michel, in the Latin quarter, at the Hôtel de Ville, and in the Boulevard Montmartre, displayed their feelings in *vivas* for Rochefort, the republic, and cries of "Down with the police!" but they were easily dispersed by the sergents de ville, who were out in great force, without any serious injury to the populace. On the 9th of June the crowds assembled again in increased strength at these centres, and a decidedly revolutionary tendency was displayed. Tens of thousands of people had assembled in the Boulevard Montmartre at an early hour, and speedily interrupted the traffic in that main thoroughfare of Paris. The police were again out in great force, powerfully supported by regiments of the Gardes de Paris, massed in the side streets ready for service, and aided by companies of the mounted police. At midnight, the crowd having become denser and bolder, and the sound of the "Marseillaise" chanted by hundreds of voices filling the air, mingled with cries of "Down with the Emperor!" "To the Tuileries!" and other seditious cries, the Gardes de Paris made a charge and dispersed the crowd, not before it had smashed all the lamps on the streets, sacked several *cafés* and crushed in all the glass in the various *kiosks* on the boulevard, besides doing a great deal of bodily damage to the police, whom they showered with stones, iron chains, and any kind of missiles that they could lay their hands on. In this affair several police were killed and many of the mob, and an immense number of arrests were made. A like disturbance occurred near the Bastile, where the mob was defiant and bellicose. The troops were compelled to use their bayonets in order to clear the streets, and several of them were seriously wounded by gunshots and stones. In the Boulevard St. Michel the mounted police charged the crowd, and, after great efforts, dispersed it. The most serious disturbance was caused by a body of workmen wearing blouses, who marched from Bellville to the Boulevard du Temple armed with iron rails wrested from the fence of the market, with which they battered down every lamp post on the entire route, destroyed all the kiosks, and sacked a number of cafés and stores, besides overturning all the omnibuses and carriages that they came across. At one point they attempted to raise a barricade with a couple of omnibuses which they had overturned, but the mounted patrol were on the spot quick enough to prevent an act that might have been very serious in its results. This band got down as far as the Boulevard du Temple, leaving its path strewn with wrecks of carriages, cafés, lamps, kiosks, signs, and every thing that could be reached by the mob, when the cavalry charged it and put it to flight. The loss of life was somewhat serious, but it is difficult to obtain the figures. Hundreds of arrests were made, and by two o'clock the city had resumed its wonted quiet and tranquillity. On the 10th of June there was another demonstration in the Boulevard Montmartre, which was still more serious than any preceding one. At half-past eight o'clock the Boulevard was literally crammed with people, some singing the "Marseillaise" and uttering seditious cries, and all more or less excited. Before nine o'clock all the omnibuses and carriages were turned off the boulevard to make their way as best they could by the side streets. The police were soon on the ground, more than 2,000 strong. Several companies of Gardes de Paris were also brought up, while the mounted police were stationed in the side streets in full strength. The police attempted to keep the street open by pushing through strong bodies of sergents de ville *en masse*, but they only infuriated the crowd, and made matters still worse. The demonstrative portions of the crowd were made up of blouses and black coats, about equally divided. They were exceedingly noisy. They sung the "Marseillaise," hurrahed for Rochefort, cried "Down with Napoleon!" and shouted all sorts of seditious calls. The cafés and stores were closed long before ten o'clock, and the aspect of affairs was accordingly gloomy. About midnight there was a tremendous charge of troops, on foot and mounted, and the crowd was slowly dispersed, not without dashing off into side streets and wreaking their vengeance upon lamp-posts, kiosks, and every breakable window. The damage to public and private property was very considerable, and will long be manifest. All the theatres were emptied at an early hour by the revolutionary cries of the mob, although strong detachments of soldiers were stationed at every entrance. Until two o'clock of the morning of the 11th of June the mob was at its work of destruction, and the police were engaged in making arrests. More than 1,000 persons were arrested during the night, but it did not seem to affect the spirits of the balance of the mob in the least. Several persons were killed and a great many wounded by cavalry and infantry charges. The police and soldiers suffered considerably from flying stones and gunshots, though the latter were very few. In the Faubourg St. Antoine, about the Bastile, the situation was exceedingly threatening. Large masses of people had assembled in the quarter near the Bastile. Charges of cavalry were required to disperse the crowd around the Column of July, and many were wounded in the affair, that threatened to become very serious at one time, but which passed away before the vigorous action of the authorities. In all that part of the city the excitement was intense, and many bands of workmen and roughs circulated through the streets and pillaged many shops and cafés. On the evening of the 11th new disturbances broke out, which again required the employment of cavalry. Similar tumults

took place in the cities of Nantes and Bordeaux, which had likewise to be put down by the troops. On the 16th of June there was a bloody encounter between the troops and the miners of St. Etienne. On the 24th of June, the Emperor, on visiting the camp of Chalons, made a speech to the soldiers, in which he said he was pleased to see that they had not forgotten the great cause for which they fought ten years ago. The Emperor continued as follows: "Preserve the remembrance of the battles fought by your fathers and yourselves; for our victories are the history of the progress of civilization. You will thus maintain the military spirit, which is the triumph of noble over vulgar passions; it is fidelity to the flag, devotion to country. Continue in the same course, and you will always be worthy of so great a nation."

On the 28th of June, the Legislative Body met for the "verification of powers" of the newly-elected deputies. The Minister of State, Rouher, read the following address:

Messieurs les Députés: In accordance with the Constitution, the Legislative Body is convoked within the six months following the dissolution. The longest delay for your meeting is the 26th of October, but it would have been impossible at that date to lay before you the projects of law on the finances and those concerning other affairs of state. An extraordinary session of the Legislative Body was, therefore, thought necessary. In this situation the Government of the Emperor considered it wise and politic to proceed immediately to the verification of your powers, and thus to put an end to all uncertainty as to the validity of the electoral operations in each district. In the opinion of the Government the present session has no other object. The renewal of the Legislative Body by universal suffrage is the supreme occasion for the nation to manifest its thoughts, its aspirations, and its requirements. The study of the political results of that manifestation should not be precipitate. During the ordinary session it will submit to the high consideration of the public powers the resolutions and the projects which may have appeared to it best calculated to realize the wishes of the country. In the name of the Emperor I declare the extraordinary session of the Legislative Body open.

To the surprise of the Government, a very large portion of the Legislative Body (116 members), embracing a number of stanch adherents of the dynasty, expressed a wish to be made at once acquainted with the reforms which the Government intended to introduce. The Emperor yielded to this pressure, and, on the 12th of July, the Minister of State read the following imperial message announcing the basis of the proposed reforms:

Messieurs les Députés: On the 18th of June my Government informed you that on the opening of the next ordinary session it would place before the representatives of the people the resolutions and projects which it considered capable of answering the wishes of the country.

But the Corps Législatif appears to be anxious to know immediately the reforms decided on by my Government.

I therefore think it necessary to anticipate its aspirations.

The Corps Législatif must be convinced that my firm intention is to give to its attributes the extension compatible with the fundamental basis of the constitution, and I hereby make public the determination I have decided on in council.

The Senate will be convoked as soon as possible, to examine the following questions:

1. Right of the Corps Législatif to make its own rules and elect its own committees.
2. Simplification of the mode of proposing and examining amendments.
3. That the Government be obliged to submit to Legislative approval the tariff modifications which in future may be stipulated in international treaties.
4. Voting of the budget by headings, in order to render the control of the Chamber more effective.
5. Abrogation of the constitutional enactment which at present disqualifies a deputy from becoming a minister of the crown, and fulfilling certain other public functions.
6. Extension of the right of interpellation.

My Government will also examine the questions which concern the attributes of the Senate.

The more efficacious solidarity which will establish between my Government and the Chambers the faculty of exercising at the same time the functions of minister and deputy, the presence of all the ministers in the Chamber, the examination in council of the affairs of the state, and a loyal understanding with the majority, constitute for the country all the guarantees which we in our common solicitude consider necessary.

I have already shown you several times how, for the good of the public, I am disposed to give up certain prerogatives which belong to me. The modifications which I have decided on proposing are the natural development of those which have successively been made in the institutions of the empire; they must, however, leave intact the prerogatives which the people have more explicitly confided to my care, and which are the essential conditions of a power which protects order and society ("Hear, hear," cheers, and cries of "Vive l'Empereur!").

Done at the palace of St. Cloud, this 11th day of July, 1869. NAPOLEON.

This message was followed by the dismissal of Rouher as Minister of State, and the formation of a ministry of transition from personal to parliamentary government;* but, in order to escape the threatened interpellation concerning the reform question, the Legislative Body was prorogued even before having finished the verification of the elections. A serious sickness of the Emperor, more serious than at any preceding time, which even prevented him from celebrating the centenary birthday of the first Napoleon in the camp of Chalons, spread considerable alarm. An amnesty for political offences brought back to France a number of implacable enemies of the empire, and added fuel to the flame. Amid this excitement the Senate, in which Prince Napoleon made a vigorous speech in favor of liberal changes, deliberated on the reforms which had been promised by the Emperor, and on the 8th of September it adopted a *senatus consultum* embodying them. The *senatus consultum* gives to the Emperor and the Corps Législatif the initiative in making laws. Cabinet ministers can be members of the Senate or Corps Législatif; the sittings of the Senate are to be public; each body is to make its own internal

* The names of the ministers have been given above.

regulations; the members of both Chambers have the right to address interpellations to the Government. No amendment to a law is to be adopted unless it has been previously referred to a committee, charged with the duty of examining the project and of communicating it to the Government; if the latter does not accept it, the Council of State will advise the Corps, which will then pronounce definitely on the subject. The budget is to be submitted by chapters and articles. Modifications of the tariff and postal service by international treaties are to be made obligatory only by laws enacted for that purpose.

As the regular session of the Legislative Body was not convoked by the Government within the six months following the dissolution (which time expired on the 26th of October), the idea was thrown out, and violently applauded by the radical population of the capital, that the deputies of the opposition should, on the 26th of October, proceed to the chamber of the Legislative Body, for the purpose of opening the session themselves. The deputies of the left regarded, however, such a course as injudicious, and at a meeting held on the 18th of October, at the residence of Jules Favre, agreed upon issuing the following manifesto:

To our Fellow-Citizens: We are asked from various quarters if we intend to repair to the Chamber on October 26th. We will not do so, and for the following reasons: In proceeding there we should of necessity provoke a manifestation of which no one could, in present circumstances, regulate the march and the extent. But we have no right to deliver up to chance the fate of liberty, now reviving. When a great revolution—one eminently pacific—has been commenced, when day by day its inevitable *dénouement* is more clearly perceived, there would be a great want of tact in furnishing to the Government any pretext whatever to regain strength from a riot. If the authorities trample under foot the constitutional rules which it has itself traced out, the Democracy has for the moment only one thing to do—to take note of such conduct. That constitution, which the Government thinks fit to undo with its own hands, we have been obliged to submit to, and we ought not to attempt to restore it by taking up its defence. In this situation we have resolved to wait for the actual opening of the next session. Then we shall call the Executive to account for this new insult to the nation; then we shall show, by the very experiment which has been made during the last three months, that the personal power, while pretending to give way in presence of the public reprobation, has never ceased to act and speak in the character of a master. Then we shall pursue on the ground of universal suffrage and national sovereignty—the only one that can henceforth subsist—the work of democratic and radical reform, the flag of which has been placed by the people in our hands.

The imperial decree, making, in execution of the *senatus consultum*, certain modifications in the relations between the Government and the Senate and the Legislative Body, was published on the 8th of November, and is as follows:

ARTICLE 1. The bills (*senatus consulta*) and regulations of public administration, prepared by the different ministerial departments, are submitted to the Emperor, who delivers them, or has them forwarded by the minister whom they concern, to the minister presiding over the Council of State.

ART. 2. The orders of the day for the sittings of the Council of State are sent beforehand to the different ministers, and the minister presiding over the Council of State sees that the head of each department is always informed in good time of every thing relating to the examination or discussions of bills, *senatus consulta*, or regulations of public administration, sent for the consideration of the council.

ART. 3. The bills, or *senatus consulta*, after being examined by the Council of State, in conformity with article fifty of the constitution, are delivered to the Emperor by the minister presiding over that body, and who joins the names of the Government Commissioners, whom he proposes to support them, in the discussion before the Legislative body and Senate.

ART. 4. A decree of the Emperor orders the presentation of the bill to the Legislative Body, of the *senatus consultum* to the Senate, and appoints the Councillors of State or Government Commissioners charged to defend them conjointly with the ministers, and the vice-presidents and presidents of section in the Council of State.

ART. 5. This decree is countersigned by the minister presiding over the Council of State, and the minister to whose department the measure refers. A copy of the decree is transmitted by that minister, with the bill, or *senatus consultum*, to the Legislative Body or Senate.

ART. 6. In all deliberations of the Senate or Legislative Body, the Government is represented by the ministers, the vice-president or presidents of section in the Council of State, or by Councillors of State and Government Commissioners delegated by special decrees.

RELATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT WITH THE SENATE.

ART. 7. The bills adopted by the Legislative body are, with the decrees which name the Councillors of State and the Government Commissioners charged to support them in the discussion, transmitted to the president of the Senate by the minister whose department the measure concerns.

ART. 8. The result of the deliberations in the Senate is transmitted by the president of that body to the minister to whose attributions the law belongs.

ART. 9. The *senatus consulta* proposed by the Government are carried to the Senate by the minister appointed for the purpose by the Emperor.

ART. 10. *Senatus consulta* created by the initiative of the Senate, as well as proposals for modifications of the constitution made in conformity with article thirty of the fundamental law, are, immediately after being deposited, transmitted by the president of the Senate to the Minister of Justice.

ART. 11. The result of the deliberations on *senatus consulta* and proposed modifications of the constitution is communicated to the Emperor by the president of the Senate.

ART. 12. Any proposal of a Senator, with the object, within the terms of article thirty of the constitution, of presenting to the Emperor a report laying down the bases of a bill, is transmitted by the president of the Senate to the competent minister. The draft of the report by the committee, and subsequently the report itself, if adopted, are also sent to him by the president of the Senate.

ART. 13. When an act is deferred by the Government to the Senate as unconstitutional, the decree which submits the question to that body, and which appoints the Councillors of State to take part in the discussion, is transmitted by the Minister of Justice to the president of the Senate.

ART. 14. If the unconstitutional nature of the act is denounced by a petition, the president of the Senate informs the minister whose department it concerns. In all cases the decision of the Senate is transmitted by the president to that minister, as well as to the Minister of Justice.

ART. 15. The register of petitions is always communicated beforehand to the ministers. If the decision is taken to refer to a petition to the minister whom it concerns, a copy of it and an extract of the deliberations are, by order of the president of the Senate, transmitted to that minister and to the Minister of Justice.

ART. 16. At the commencement of each session the report to the Emperor on the results of the petitions sent by the Senate to the different ministers, during the preceding session, is distributed to all the members of the Senate.

RELATIONS OF THE GOVERNMENT WITH THE LEGISLATIVE BODY.

ART. 17. The bills presented by the Government are, with the decrees appointing the Councillors of State and Government Commissioners, charged to support them in the discussion, communicated and read to the Legislative Body by the ministers designated in the decree of presentation, or are transmitted to the president of the Legislative Body, who reads them in a public sitting.

ART. 18. The amendments on which the Council of State is called to give its opinion, in conformity with article eight of the *senatus consultum* of September 8, 1869, are transmitted directly by the president of the Legislative Body to the minister presiding over the Council of State, who informs the minister whose department they concern. The Council of State is immediately convoked, and its opinion is addressed to the president of the Legislative Body, and to the competent minister by the minister presiding over the Council of State.

ART. 19. Every bill proposed by a deputy is immediately transmitted by the president of the Legislative Body to the minister whose department it concerns, and to the Minister of Justice.

ART. 20. The minutes of the bills adopted by the Legislative Body are signed by the president and secretaries and deposited in the archives. A copy, bearing the same signatures, is communicated to the Emperor by the president.

ART. 21. The president of the Legislative Body transmits to the Minister of the Interior an account of every deliberation by which the Legislative Body invalidates an election. Resignations by deputies are also addressed by the president of the Legislative body to the Minister of the Interior.

RELATIONS BETWEEN THE SENATE AND THE LEGISLATIVE BODY.

ART. 22. The bills introduced by the initiative of the Legislative Body are transmitted direct by the President to the president of the Senate. A copy is sent by the president of the Legislative Body to the minister whom the measure concerns.

ART. 23. When the Senate, by the terms of article five, of the *senatus consultum* of the 8th of September, 1869, decides that the law shall be sent back to the Legislative body for a fresh deliberation, the president of the Senate transmits direct to the president of the Legislative Body the law with indications provided for by the said article. A copy is sent by the president of the Senate to the minister to whose department the measure relates. In case the Senate should not send it to the Legislative Body for reconsideration, the president communicates to the president of the latter assembly the result of the deliberations.

ART. 24. Our ministers are charged, each in what concerns him, with the execution of the present decree.

Given at our palace of Compiègne this 8th day of November, 1869. NAPOLEON.

Countersigned, DUVERGIER, Minister of Justice.

On the 20th of November, the Emperor Napoleon in person opened the legislative session by delivering the following speech from the throne:

Messieurs les Sénateurs, Messieurs les Députés: It is not easy to establish in France the regular and peaceful exercise of liberty. Some months back society seemed to be menaced by subversive passions, and liberty to have been compromised by excesses committed by the public journals and at public meetings. Every one was asking how far the Government would push its policy of long-suffering, but already the good sense of the public reacts against culpable exaggerations. Impotent attacks have only had the effect of showing the solidity of the edifice founded by universal suffrage; nevertheless, the uncertainty and disquietude which exist in the minds of the people cannot last, and the situation requires more than ever frankness and decision. We must speak without any circumlocution, and declare loudly what is the will of the country.

France desires liberty, but liberty united with order. For order I will answer; aid me, gentlemen to save liberty, and, to attain this object, let us keep at an equal distance from reaction and revolutionary theories. Between those who pretend to preserve every thing without change, and those who aspire to overthrow every thing, there is a glorious ground to take up. When I proposed the *senatus consultum* of last September as the logical sequence of previous reforms, and of the declaration made in my name by the Minister of State on the 28th of June, I meant resolutely to inaugurate a new era of conciliation and progress. In seconding me in this path, you have been unwilling to be renegades to the past, disarm power, or overthrow the empire.

The measures which the ministers will submit for your approbation all bear a sincerely liberal character. If you adopt them, the following improvements will be realized: The mayors will be selected from among the municipal councils, excepting in special cases, for which provision will be made by the proposed enactment. At Lyons as well as in the suburban communes of Paris, the formation of these councils will be committed to universal suffrage. In Paris itself, where the interests of the city are linked with those of the whole of France, the municipal council will be elected by the Legislative Body, which is already invested with the right of settling the extraordinary budget of the capital. Cantonal councils will be instituted, principally with the object of uniting the communal power, and of directing its employment. Fresh prerogatives will be granted to the general councils; even the colonies will participate in this movement of decentralization; and, lastly, a bill, enlarging the circle in which universal suffrage works, will determine the public functions compatible with a seat in the Chamber. To these administrative and political reforms will be added legislative measures of more immediate interest for the people, viz., the more rapid development of gratuitous primary instruction; the decreasing of legal expenses; the removal of the demidecime war-tax, which weighs heavily upon the registration duty in matters of succession; the affording greater facilities of access to the saving banks, and the placing them within the reach of the inhabitants of rural districts through the aid of treasury agents; a more humane regulation of infant labor in manufactories, and an increase of the salaries of subordinate officials.

Other important questions, no solution of which is as yet ready, are being considered. The agricultural inquiry is concluded, and useful propositions will emanate from it so soon as the superior commission shall have given in its report. Another inquiry has been commenced in reference to the *octrois*. A customs bill will be submitted to you, reproducing those general tariffs to which no serious objection has been taken. As regards those tariffs which have evoked loud complaint from certain branches of industry, the Government will not bring forward any scheme until it has surrounded itself with the enlightenment of all the sources of information calculated to assist your deliberations. The statement of the situation of the empire presents satisfactory results. Commerce is not at a stand-still, and the indirect reve-

nues, whose national increase is a sign of prosperity and confidence, have produced, up to the present, 30,000,000 francs more than last year. The current budgets show notable surplusages, and the budget for 1871 will allow of our undertaking to effect an improvement in several branches of the public service, and to make suitable grants for public works. But it is not enough to propose reform, to introduce savings in the finances, and to administer affairs in an effective manner; it is also necessary that, by a clear and firm attitude, the public bodies, in accordance with the Government, should show that the more we widen the paths of liberty the more we are determined to preserve the interests of society and the principles of the constitution intact and superior to all acts of violence. It is the duty and within the power of the Government, which is the legitimate expression of the national will, to cause that will to be respected—for it has right and might upon its side.

From home affairs, if I gaze beyond our frontier I congratulate myself on seeing foreign powers maintaining with us friendly relations. Sovereigns and nations desire peace, and they are engaged in advancing civilization. Whatever reproaches may be made against our century, we have, certainly, many reasons to be proud of it. The New World suppresses slavery, Russia liberates her serfs, England does justice to Ireland, the littoral countries of the Mediterranean seem to be once more calling to mind their ancient splendor, and from the assembled Catholic bishops at Rome we need only expect a work of wisdom and conciliation.

The progress of science brings nations together. While America joins the Pacific with the Atlantic Ocean by a railroad one thousand leagues in length, and in all parts capitalists and intellects agree to unite by electric communication the most distant countries of the globe, France and Italy are about to clasp hands through the tunnel of the Alps, and the waters of the Mediterranean and the Red Sea mingle already by means of the Suez Canal. All Europe was represented in Egypt at the inauguration of this gigantic enterprise, and if the Empress is not here to-day at the opening of the Chamber, it is because I have been desirous that by her presence in a country, where our arms were once rendered illustrious, she might testify to the sympathy of France toward a work due to the perseverance and genius of a Frenchman.

You are about to resume the extraordinary session interrupted by the presentation of the *senatus consultum*. After the verification of the elections the ordinary session will immediately commence. The great bodies of the state, closely united, will come to an understanding to apply faithfully the latest modification made in the constitution.

The more direct participation of the country in its own affairs will constitute for the empire a fresh source of strength, and the Representative Assemblies will have henceforth a larger share of responsibility. Let them use it for the benefit of the greatness and prosperity of the nation. May the various shades of opinion disappear when required by the general interest, and let the Chambers prove equally by their enlightenment and their patriotism that France, without again falling into deplorable excesses, is capable of supporting those free institutions which are the honor of civilized countries.

As it was known that the Emperor regarded it as necessary to relinquish the principle of personal government, and to introduce, gradually, that of constitutional government, there was, of course, a considerable modification in the position of the several political parties in the Legislative Body. Even the most fanatical adherents of the empire, the "Extreme Right," with Baron Jerome David at its head, and which now number about thirty members, could not, in view of the imperial declarations, defend the whole of the personal-government theory; but the members of this section, as well as those of the "Right" having, as chief, M. de Benoist, and numbering about twenty members, appeared to regard the imminence of the radical change with considerable distrust, and showed a disposition, not to support a ministry which would make too great concessions to liberalism. The chief support to the new policy was expected from the "Right Centre," numbering about 120 members, of whom M. Emile Ollivier was the most prominent, and who defined their position by the following programme:

Considering that the duties of the representatives of the nation is to set forth the wishes of public opinion; considering that in the first rank among such aspirations is the sincere application of the parliamentary system, which is the necessary form of the government of the country by itself under a monarchy; considering that such a *régime* implies a free press and untrammelled elections, a homogeneous and responsible ministry, and a compact majority around principles clearly marked out and agreed to; the undersigned deputies, without intending to reject new reforms when the necessity of them is demonstrated, declare that for the present they are in accord to require:

Abroad, peace. At home, the abrogation of the law of public safety. Interdiction to receive large salaries for more than one employment. The examination of a system of decentralization which may constitute on the largest possible basis the autonomy of the commune, canton, and departments, and the obligatory nomination of the mayor from among the members of the Municipal Council. An electoral reform effected before renewal of the Legislative Body, having for its object, particularly to determine, by a law, the number and extent of the circumscriptions, and to protect freedom of election. The modification of article seventy-five of the constitution of the year eight, in electoral matters, or when personal liberty is concerned, or an illegal violation of a private dwelling has been made. The application of the jury to political offences committed by the press. The suppression of the stamp-duty on newspapers, and its replacement by a postage-charge. The suppression of the privilege accorded to the prefects to designate the journals which are to receive judicial advertisements. Liberty of superior instruction. A parliamentary inquiry into the working of the commercial treaty. And lastly, a constant endeavor to find out means to improve the moral, intellectual, and physical situation of the greatest number.

A shade more liberal is the Left Centre, under the leadership of the Marquis d'Andelarre, which numbered about 41 members, who accepted the following report of their leader as a programme of their political conduct:

Gentlemen: We had undertaken the work which you had intrusted to us, and this task was rendered easy by your previous deliberations, when we received a programme drawn up and signed by a great number of our colleagues. The analogy between that document and the one which, presented by one of those acting with us, had more particularly fixed your attention, is such that, in analyzing the two, paragraph by paragraph, we were able to prove that they contained for the most part almost identical features. We can, therefore, only regard with entire satisfaction so great a number of our colleagues affirming the principle of parliamentary government

—one which has always been our own, and we shall be happy to pursue with them its sincere and complete application. Nevertheless, our brother deputies will have observed that the execution of this plan, notably in the case of reforms which relate to the electoral circumscriptions and to the nomination of mayors, cannot take place without changes in the constitution, and they desire, without doubt, as we do, to demand from the Government to use its initiative to make the country henceforth participate by means of the representatives in all the constitutional modifications which may be thought necessary. They will think with us, doubtless, that the provisional solution indicated in their proposal for the nomination of mayors will not give to the communes an adequate participation in the choice of those magistrates; and that without law, otherwise so necessary on communal, cantonal, and departmental organization, there is a great necessity to provide for so great an interest by special law.

In laying these reservations before you your committee is inspired by your resolutions and your previous votes. It is acting again under the same influence when it affirms in conclusion that its most serious care and most active solicitude are directed to the necessity of union and accord between all the elements of the liberal and conservative parties. The conclusions of this report have been adopted unanimously by those present. (Here follow the signatures.)

The "Left," embracing men like Jules Favre, Jules Simon, Gambetta, and Bancel, numbered 27 members, while Raspail and Rochefort were classed as "Extreme Left," or "Radicals."

On the 28th of December, the *Journal Officiel* announced the resignation of the ministry and the Emperor's determination to accept the same. It also contained a letter from the Emperor to M. Emile Ollivier, requesting him to name persons who would, associated with himself, form a homogeneous Cabinet, faithfully representing the legislative majority, and resolved to apply, in letter and spirit, the *Senatus Consultum* of September 8th. The Emperor counted on the devotion of the Corps Législatif to the great interests of the country, no less than on that of M. Ollivier, to aid him in the task he had undertaken, of putting into successful operation a constitutional *régime*.

The Emperor's letter was generally regarded as the close of the personal government in France, and as the first chapter in the history of the constitutional empire. The construction of the new ministry by Ollivier was not completed before January, 1870; it consisted of members of the Right and Left Centres, the combined support of which it was hoped would give to the new ministry a decided majority in the Legislative Body.

The verification of the election returns being completed, the extraordinary session of the Legislative Body was closed, and a new (the regular) session began. The Legislative Body, for the first time exercising the right of choosing its President, reëlected M. Schneider, by 190 to 40 votes.

The French "Yellow-Book," composed of diplomatic documents, and the "Blue-Book," containing the annual statement of the situation of the empire, were distributed to the members of the Senate and of the Legislative Body on the 11th of December. The former compilation, which is the thirteenth of the series, has 115 pages. Fourteen are devoted to general considerations on political affairs, and thirteen to commercial matters.

The *exposé* of the political and commercial affairs in the "Yellow-Book," thus refers to the most important foreign questions of the year:

The situation of the North-German Confederation and the Southern States has not been sensibly modified. We have not seen in the questions which have arisen in the course of the year any reason to depart from the reserve we had observed in presence of the transformations which have occurred beyond the Rhine. Our relations with Germany have not ceased to be very friendly.

Under favor of the tranquillity which prevails in the States of the Church the bishops of the whole world are about to assemble in Rome. The Pope has convoked at the Vatican an Œcumenical Council. The affairs which will be discussed there are, as a rule, beyond the competence of the political powers of our days, and under this aspect the situation differs materially from that which existed in past centuries. Also, the Emperor's Government, renouncing the use of a prerogative which the sovereigns of France had always exercised without protest, has resolved not to interfere in the deliberations of the Council by sending an accredited ambassador. It has considered not only that this determination was most in accordance with the spirit of our times and the relations between Church and State, but that such a course was most suitable to free the French executive from all responsibility in any decisions which may be taken. The Holy Father himself, moreover, seems to have recognized the value of the considerations which guide us, since he has abstained from inviting the Christian princes to send representatives to this meeting of prelates. However, we have no intention of remaining indifferent to acts which might exercise a great influence on the Catholic populations of all countries. His Majesty's Government would find, in case of necessity, in the laws of the country the powers requisite to maintain *the public rights free from all deterioration*. We have, besides, too much confidence in the prudence of the prelates in whose hands are placed the interests of Catholicity not to believe that they will know how to take account of the necessities of the period in which we live.

At the moment when the European Cabinets were discussing the question of Eastern difficulty with the Sultan and the Khédive, a work essentially peaceful in its character, and of a nature to inspire all states with thoughts of union and concord, was completed in Egypt itself. The Suez Canal definitively opened up the Red Sea and the extreme East to the direct commerce of Europe. France followed with patriotic sympathy the sovereign who went in its name, by the side of the august representatives of powerful nations, to applaud on distant shores the realization of this grand idea.

The increasing development of our intercourse with Egypt gives particular interest to the question of judicial organization raised two years ago by the Viceroy. A special commission, composed of French jurisconsults and of agents who have lived in the East, was intrusted by the Emperor's Government with the examination of the proposals of the Egyptian authorities, and it has set down in a memorandum which was communicated to the various powers interested, the result of its labors. At the conclusion of this first inquiry the Government of Egypt thought fit to demand that the question should be studied in the places themselves by an international commission. We acceded to these overtures, on the sole condition that the report of the French commissioners should

be taken as the starting-point for any new investigations. This conference met at Alexandria, where it has been sitting for a month. Invested with a purely consultative character, it will judge of the legitimacy of the complaints which have been made to us and of the value of the reforms suggested. The powers have, nevertheless, reserved to themselves entire liberty as regards their ultimate determinations. The Emperor's advisers are too conscious of the grave responsibility which attaches to the settlement of this important question, not to act with all the prudence and circumspection, called for by the complex interests involved. In concert with the English Cabinet, we have, besides, made known at Constantinople that, in consenting to the inquest proposed by the Khédive, we had no intention of concluding any arrangement independently of the Turkish authorities, or in opposition to the Sultan's rights.

FRIENDS, a religious denomination, commonly called *Quakers*. This epithet was given to the Friends "in derision, because they often trembled under an awful sense of the infinite purity and majesty of God." The name has been submitted to rather than accepted by them. Their proper designation is the "Religious Society of Friends." From the time of the settlement of William Penn in Pennsylvania, in 1680, the spread of the society in North America was rapid. Before that, in 1672, George Fox found an established colony of Friends in Perquimans County, N. C., which was the beginning of one of the largest and most influential yearly meetings in the United States. It has constantly borne testimony against slavery and war, and for the freeness of the Gospel, often at the cost of persecution and loss of substance. During the late war the members firmly maintained the consistency of their testimony by refusal to bear arms.

The organization of the society in essential matters is the work of George Fox. "The yearly meetings," says Mr. Allinson, "are in a sense diocesan, having each a defined territorial jurisdiction, and independent of each other in their government and law-making powers, while by a sort of common law there are principles of discipline sacred to all, and membership in any meeting involves a connection with the society wherever existing, and may be transferred by certificate when the person claiming such credential is not liable to church censure." The transaction of the business of these meetings is regarded as the Lord's work, and it is held to be necessary in them for all minds to be turned to Him. In the ministry of the word no Friend is expected to speak "without feeling a direct call and movement of the Holy Spirit for the service." It is the duty of the elders "to counsel, foster, and aid the ministers," and encourage or restrain them according as they are or are not believed to be called of God. They admit no system of theological training. Favoring education, they regard it "as the exclusive province of the Holy Spirit to select His own ministers and instruct them what they shall say." The study of the Holy Scriptures is, however, enforced with great stress. The privilege and duty of prayer, both secret and vocal, are regarded as of the highest importance. They consider, however, a reverent spirit as an essential quality in all cases, and believe that vocal prayer should not be offered without a direct movement of the Holy Spirit; that it ought not to be "formal or customary" in style; and that many words, repetitions, and reiterations of the name of God or His attributes should be avoided.

1. AMERICA.—The great division in American Friends which took place in 1827 rested upon differences of opinion respecting the divine character of Christ, like those which distinguish the Trinitarian and Unitarian denominations. Both divisions claim and use the simple title of Friends, the terms orthodox and Hicksite not being recognized officially, but only used as a means of popular definition.

The orthodox Friends, while they avoid the use of the word Trinity, claim to be in accord with the orthodox churches on the general points of Christian doctrine. They "reverently believe in the Holy Three; the Father, the Lord Jesus Christ, the only-begotten of the Father, by whom are all things, who is the mediator between God and man; and the Holy Spirit, who proceedeth from the Father and the Son—ONE GOD, blessed for ever. They accept in its fulness the testimony of Holy Scripture with regard to the nature and offices of Christ, as the promised Messiah, the Word made flesh, the atonement for sin, the Saviour and Redeemer of the world. They have no reliance on any other name, no hope of salvation that is not based upon His meritorious death on the cross. "They so fully believe in the Holy Spirit of Christ, that without the inward revelation thereof they feel that they can do nothing to God's glory, or to further the salvation of their own souls. They believe that baptism is only of the spirit, and hold it impossible that an outward ablution should wash from the spirit of man the stains of sin." It is also by the spirit that the true Supper of the Lord is to be partaken. They believe also fully in the resurrection of the dead, and in the final judgment.

The Hicksite Quakers, as the other branch are currently denominated, believe also in the authenticity and divine authority of the Holy Scriptures, acknowledging them as the only fit outward test of Christian doctrines, and assigning to them "all the authority they claim for themselves." They likewise believe in the immediate communion of the Holy Spirit, that "there can be no saving knowledge of Christ but from immediate revelation." Their views on the original and present state of man, according to Samuel L. Janney, author of the "History of the Friends," are that—

It is a Scriptural doctrine that neither righteousness nor unrighteousness can be transmitted by inheritance, but every man shall be judged according to his deeds. When man presumed to set up his own will, and to be governed by it in opposition to the Divine will, he assumed the place of God, and, having thus turned away from the Holy Spirit, he ceased to partake of

"the tree of life," and consequently died a spiritual death. Animal propensities may be transmitted from parents to children, but the Scriptures do not teach that we inherit any guilt from Adam, or from any of our ancestors; nor do we feel any compunction for their sins.

Other distinctive doctrines are:

The unity, omnipresence, omnipotence, and omniscience of God, the only fountain of wisdom and goodness, are fully set forth in the Scriptures of both the Old and New Testament. That spiritual influence or medium by which the Most High communicates His will to man, is called His Word, and the same term is applied to His creative power, by which all things were made. The most full and glorious manifestation of the Divine Word, or Logos, was in Jesus Christ, the immaculate Son of God, who was miraculously conceived and born of a virgin. In Him the manhood or son of man was entirely subject to the Divinity. The doctrine that God cannot or will not forgive sins without a compensation or satisfaction, and that man, not being able to make this satisfaction, it was made by Jesus Christ, who was appointed or given up to be killed for this purpose, is so inconsistent with the Divine character, that it cannot be reconciled with the teachings of the Son of God. When the sinful nature in man is slain by the power of God being raised into dominion in us, then is Divine justice satisfied, for there is nothing vindictive in the character of the Deity. He does not afflict His creatures for any other purpose than their own reformation or purification, and, when that purpose is accomplished, He is ready to pardon His repenting children. The "washing of regeneration and renewing of the Holy Ghost" is the only baptism essential to salvation. We have no grounds to believe that "the passover" which Jesus ate with His disciples was intended to be perpetuated in the Christian Church; nor does it appear that He instituted a new ceremony on that occasion. The author of Christianity has prescribed no set form of worship, enjoining only that it must be in spirit and in truth. Friends have adopted silence as the basis of public worship, believing that it is free from the objections that exist against all prescribed forms; that it gives to each worshipper an opportunity for self-examination and secret prayer, with the benefit that results from the sympathy of other minds present; and that it affords the best preparation for the exercise of spiritual gifts in preaching, prayer, or praise. The Christian ministry can be rightly exercised by those only who have received a call and qualification from the Head of the Church.

There are twelve independent yearly meetings of the Religious Society of Friends (Orthodox), of which the oldest is that of London, of which records exist as far back as 1672. The settlements of Friends in France, Germany, Norway, and Australasia, report to the London meeting. There is a yearly meeting in Ireland and in Canada, and there are nine in the United States. Those in the United States are the New England, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, North Carolina, Ohio, Indiana, Western Indiana, and Iowa. The increase of membership in the Western States is very rapid. The total number in the society is estimated at 80,000. The first-day schools connected with all the yearly meetings are conducted with energy and efficiency, and are numerously attended. A normal first-day school has been established by the North Carolina yearly meeting. The Orthodox Friends in the United States have three colleges, viz.: Haverford College, Pa.; Earlham College, Richmond, Ind.; and Whittier College, Salem, Iowa; besides several large boarding-schools.

The Hicksite Friends count six independent yearly meetings, with an aggregate membership of about 35,000. They have several literary institutions, among which is Swarthmore College, near Philadelphia. It was projected nearly four years ago, and was formally opened on the 10th of Novembr, 1869. It is designed to accommodate 400 pupils. One hundred and eighty-nine were in attendance on the day of the opening.

The *Society of Progressive Friends* originated in a secession from the Kennett (Chester County, Pennsylvania) monthly meeting of Hicksite Friends, of members who were dissatisfied with the passive attitude of the society in relation to the temperance, antislavery, and other movements, which took place in 1853. It opens its doors to all who recognize the equal brotherhood of the human family, without regard to sex, color, or condition, and who acknowledge the duty of defining and illustrating their faith in God, not by assent to a creed, but by lives of personal purity, and works of beneficence and charity. It disavowed any intention or expectation of binding its members together by agreement as to theological opinions, and declared that it would seek its bond of union in "identity of object, oneness of spirit in respect to the practical duties of life, the communion of soul with soul in a common love of the beautiful and true, and a common aspiration after moral excellence." It enforces no discipline, forms, or ceremonies, sets forth no dogmas, and has no ministers distinguished as such. The division effected by this body extended through all the yearly meetings to a greater or less degree. The sixteenth yearly meeting was held at Longwood, Chester County, Pa., on the 4th of June, 1869. The attendance was very large. Testimonies were adopted on intemperance, tobacco, and opium, the freedmen, women's rights, the ballot to the black man, treatment of criminals, capital and labor, the Indians, with a memorial to Congress in their behalf, and a letter to the tribes, and on peace.

The "Friends of Human Progress," a society of sympathizing views, held their twenty-first anniversary at Waterloo, New York, on the 12th of June, 1869.

2. CANADA.—The number of members in the *Canada Yearly Meeting* is 15,154. There are fourteen first-day schools, with 72 teachers and 500 pupils.

3. GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND.—The *London Yearly Meeting* was held on the 20th of May, 1869. A notable feature was the address of John Bright on the peace question, on which he expressed hopeful views, notwithstanding the large standing armies which are still maintained. The number of members is 13,815, of whom 6,525 are male, and 7,290 female. The net increase for the year was forty-eight, affording a pleasant contrast to the features of

the first half of the century, in which a yearly loss of from one to two hundred was reported. There are 327 settled meetings, and 265 recorded ministers, and about 400 unrecorded. At the annual meeting of the Friends' first-day school-teachers from all parts of the United Kingdom, it appeared that there were seventy-seven such schools, with 12,474 scholars, and 1,095 teachers.

The following are the literary institutions of the Friends in Great Britain:

Bedford Institute, Spitalfields; founded 1865. Sunday-schools, Sunday evening and week-day service, Workingmen's Club, and library.

Friends Institute, London.

Flaunders's College, Ackworth; founded in 1848, by Benjamin Flaunders. Endowment, £40,000. For the training of young men for teachers in Friends' educational establishments and families.

Ackworth School. Endowment, £87,000. Pupils, 300 girls and boys. Other boarding-schools are at Croydon, endowment, £30,000; Sidcot, £15,000; Wigton, £12,000; Rawden, £5,000; Ayton, £14,000; Newton, Waterford; Mountmellick, £9,000; Lisburn, £11,000; Brookfield, £8,000.

Friends' Provident Institution, Bradford; annual income, £9,500; reserved fund, £800,000.

A descriptive catalogue of Friends' books, lately published in England, gives in two volumes, of over 2,000 closely-printed pages, the complete bibliography of the society from its origin to the present time. The Leominster auxiliary of the Friends' Tract Society issued within the year 286,600 tracts.

The number of Friends in *Ireland* is 2,898, of whom 1,320 are males, and 1,578 females; net increase during the year, 21.

4. NORWAY. — The yearly meeting of the Friends of *Norway* was numerously attended by members, some of whom had travelled long distances over the difficult routes of that country. Much interest was added to the meeting by the presence of Mado Larsen, a young Friend, of Denmark, who had been the means of converting many in his own country, and had gone to Norway on a missionary visit. Most of the Norwegian Quakers are in humble circumstances, peasants or fishermen. They evince much attachment to their sect and its principles, which they show in readiness to make personal sacrifice.

5. MADAGASCAR. — The Friends' principal mission is in Madagascar. The accounts from it are very flattering. The missionaries find themselves well received by the natives wherever they go in their long journeys, and their teachings attentively listened to.

6. AUSTRALIA AND TASMANIA.—The Friends in Australia and Tasmania held their first attempt at a general representative meeting of their community in those regions in 1869. There are members of the society in New South Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand. Most of these are, however, located in the neighborhood of the five cities of Melbourne, Hobart Town, Sydney, Ballarat, and Adelaide. Regular Quaker meetings are held at Melbourne and Ballarat, in Victoria; at Adelaide and Mount Barker, in South Australia; at Brisbane, in Queensland; at Sydney, in New South Wales; and at Hobart Town and Swan Port, in Tasmania. Of these, the congregation at Melbourne is the largest, and numbers about seventy. The number in the society is about 300. They were contemplating establishing a boarding-school for the especial education of their own people.

FUAD, MEHMED, Pacha, a Turkish statesman and author, born in Constantinople in 1814; died at Nice, France, February 12, 1869. He was a son of the celebrated Turkish poet, Izzeb-Effendi Kitchegizade, better known under the name of Izzeb-Mollah, and nephew of Leila Khatoun, one of the very few Ottoman poetesses. He spent his early youth first in cultivating literature, and afterward in studying medicine, which profession he adopted, serving for a short time in the Turkish Navy. Upon quitting the service, he entered the interpreter's office of the Government, in which he spent several years qualifying himself for the duties of diplomacy by the study of history, the modern languages, international law, and political economy. He began his diplomatic career in 1840, as first secretary to a special mission sent by the Sublime Porte to England, in which capacity he gave such evidence of ability of a very high order that, in 1843, he was sent on a special mission to Spain to congratulate Isabella II. on her accession to the throne, being at the same time intrusted with a mission to the court of Portugal. Again he gave complete satisfaction, and returned home decorated with Spanish and Portuguese orders. In 1848 he was Ottoman commissioner to the Principalities during the troubles which followed the Revolution of 1848, and he was subsequently employed on special missions to St. Petersburg and Egypt. He was appointed for the first time Minister of Foreign Affairs in 1852, and the events which, during the following year, led to the Crimean War, brought his name more prominently than ever before the world. In the question of the Holy Places, which led to that war, Fuad Pacha took very high ground, resisting the pretensions of Russia, and publishing a pamphlet entitled "The Truth upon the Question of the Holy Places," which excited the indignation of Prince Menschikoff to such a degree that he openly insulted the Turkish minister by refusing to show him certain tokens of respect required by etiquette, and charging him in the presence of a large concourse of people with being guilty of several acts of bad faith toward Russia. Fuad Pacha immediately tendered his resignation, which he could not be induced to withdraw, and, not long after, the Crimean War commenced, the ex-minister having successfully employed his abilities in

securing the alliance between Turkey, France, and England, against Russia. In the first year of the war he was commissioner at the headquarters of Omar Pacha. In 1855 he was reappointed to the office of Minister of Foreign Affairs, discharging its duties to the close of the war with signal ability; in 1850 he was intrusted with the task of putting an end to the outrages committed by the Druses against the Christians, in Syria, which he speedily accomplished; and, although he was designated, by the Paris Conference of that year, Governor-General of Syria, he preferred to return to Constantinople, where he was shortly after placed at the head of the Council of Justice, and a few months later appointed Grand-Vizier, with the entire control of the finances of the empire. In 1863 he resigned as Grand-Vizier, and was made War Minister, which office he subsequently relinquished for his old post of Foreign Minister. He represented the Porte at the late Paris Conference for the settlement of the recent troubles between Turkey and Greece. Fuad Pacha was an honorable exception to Turkish statesmen, his views being remarkably enlightened and liberal, both as regards religion and politics. His policy as Foreign Minister has contributed largely to strengthen the amicable relations of the Porte with foreign powers, and in regard to the internal administration of the affairs of the empire he was always in favor of a conciliatory course of action toward the Christian population of Turkey. The existence of telegraph lines and light-houses in Turkey, and other evidences of material progress in that country, are owing in a great measure to his patriotism. He was possessed of superior literary attainments, proof of which he has left behind in an Ottoman Grammar, and a poem entitled "The Alhambra," embodying his recollections of Spain during his mission to that country.

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GARDNER, Colonel CHARLES K., U. S. A., a brave and gallant army officer, civilian, and author, born in New Jersey in 1787; died in Washington, D. C., November 1, 1869. He entered the army as ensign of the Sixth U. S. Infantry in May, 1808. He subsequently served as captain in the Third U. S. Artillery, and major of the Twenty-third U. S. Infantry. In the War of 1812 he was especially prominent and efficient as adjutant-general of the Division of the North, under Major-General Brown. He participated in the battles of Chrystler's Fields, Chippewa, and Niagara, and at the siege and defence of Fort Erie. At the battle of Niagara, when General Scott was severely wounded, Colonel Gardner carried him off the battle-field. At the end of the war he was appointed adjutant-general of the army, which office he held until his resignation from the army in 1818. During the eight years of President Jackson's Administration, he held the office of First Assistant Postmaster-General, and was Auditor of the Treasury for the Post-Office Department under President Van Buren. During the Administration of President Polk, Colonel Gardner was Postmaster of the city of Washington, and he was Surveyor-General of Oregon under President Pierce's Administration, after which he was transferred to an office in the Treasury Department, which he held until the autumn of 1867, when advanced age and bodily infirmity made his resignation necessary. Colonel Gardner was the author of several military works: "Permanent Designation of Companies and Company Books by the first letters of the Alphabet never to be changed;" "Compend of Infantry Tactics," and "Dictionary of the Army."

GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS AND DISCOVERIES IN 1869. The field of geographical discovery and research has been so much expanded of late years, and the number of observers and explorers so greatly increased, that, in one portion of the globe or another, we are sure of some results each year, which will gratify our thirst for knowledge of the hitherto unknown, and partially satisfy our desires for that thorough mastery of the great problems of geography, which at times seems so unattainable. The year 1869 was not destined to witness the full solution of the questions which have, for some years past, been uppermost in the minds of the lovers of geographical science. The ultimate source from whence the Nile derives its waters is as yet unknown, or if Livingstone, in his long and perilous journeyings, has ascertained it, remains his secret, until he shall, as we hope and believe he will, find his way out from those lands of savage beasts and more savage men, and return to civilized life. The North Pole has not yet been discovered, and we do not even know the extent of that "open Polar Sea" which some of our explorers have sighted from afar. There is still a broad tract of unknown land in the heart of the Australian continent, another in the centre of Africa, a third in those lofty plateaus which constitute the region which we call Soongaria or Chinese Toorkistan. Aside from these, there are other smaller, yet considerable, regions of which our knowledge is very slight. Two of these have been explored with considerable care and minuteness by parties whose journeyings were either begun or terminated in the year just closed. The French expedition up the Mekong or Cambodia River, after eighteen months of severe toil and peril, and the loss of its chief, completed its labors by penetrating into Southwestern China, and descending the Yang-tse-Kiang on its way

homeward in the closing months of 1868, and the full report of its discoveries comes into 1869. Our own gallant countryman, Captain Powell, perilling his own life and the lives of his companions for the sake of science, descended the great cañon of the Colorado River, and explored for five hundred miles its dark and terrible passages.

Other hitherto unknown fields, in other portions of the globe, have been visited, and light thrown upon many dark places during the year, so that, though it has not been one marked by very great discoveries, yet the sum total of human knowledge has been sensibly increased.

The number of martyrs to geographical science has been less numerous than in former years. Of Viscount Strangford's death, though occurring during the earlier days of 1869, mention was made in the volume of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, and a more full biographical sketch is given elsewhere in the present volume (see STRANGFORD, Viscount). Miss Tinné, a young lady of rank from Holland, who had most heroically devoted herself to geographical exploration for six or seven years past, first in the Nile explorations (in which she lost her mother, her aunt, and some of her travelling-companions), and subsequently in the attempt to penetrate the Soudan from Tripoli, was cruelly murdered on the 1st of August by the Tüaricks and Arabs whom she had hired as attendants, near Taharet on the Sahara Desert. The reports of Dr. Livingstone's murder have been renewed at several times during the past year, and the long delay in his return, and the very unsatisfactory advices received from him, have given a certain currency to these reports. The latest of them was that he had been burned as a wizard, or poisoned, and his body burned, at a point ninety-five days' journey in the interior from St. Paul de Loando, but when carefully scanned this story is seen to be untruthful, inasmuch as the date when it was told to the Portuguese trader who reported it at St. Paul was from the 15th to the 25th of June, 1868, as he says; but even if it was June, 1869, it had occurred, his informant said, some time before he left a town ninety-five days' journey distant, so that nearly or quite four months must have elapsed between the time of the alleged murder and his report of it, bringing it back to February, 1868, or 1869. But Sir Roderick Murchison had received two letters from Dr. Livingstone, dated since February, 1869, one of them bearing date May 30, 1869. The story may, therefore, be set down, like many of these stories, as a fabrication of some of the Portuguese traders.

1. We begin with our own explorers. Captain C. F. Hall returned in September, 1869, from a five-years' exploring tour in the Arctic regions, mainly spent in the search after the remains of Sir John Franklin's expedition. In this research he had been remarkably successful; having ascertained the localities in which the different parties of that expedition perished, learned where their vessels were, and obtained about one hundred and fifty relics of the ill-fated expedition. He ascertained the important fact that, the same year that the Erebus and Terror were abandoned, one of these vessels made the great Northwest passage, having five men on board, and the vessel was in perfect order when abandoned by the crew, and found by the Esquimaux in the spring of 1849. It had been frozen in near O'Reilly Island, latitude 68° 30′ north, longitude 99° 8′ west. The skeletons of Sir John Franklin's men were scattered over King William's Land, and Captain Hall says that the Esquimaux of that region, who are very different in character and disposition from those of Repulse Bay, refused to give them any assistance, when they were able to have saved their lives, and not only suffered them to perish from starvation and scurvy, but plundered them of every thing that they could make use of, and suffered their dogs to feed on their bodies after their death. Captain Hall believes that the records of the expedition are still in existence, and that they are in a vault a little way inland or eastward of Cape Victory. He was unable to reach this point in consequence of a war between the native tribes, but believes that they can be recovered. Captain Hall made no attempt at Polar discoveries, and indeed does not seem to have gone above the parallel of 70° north latitude, but he explored, pretty thoroughly, Melville Peninsula, the Fury and Hecla Straits, Pelly Bay, Boothia Peninsula and Gulf, Neitchille, and part of King William's Land, and connected these with the explorations of his previous expedition. Since his return he has been engaged in the effort of persuading the Government to undertake the expense of a voyage of exploration to the North Pole direct, which he believes that his long experience in the Arctic regions has qualified him to lead.

Dr. I. I. Hayes, so well known as an Arctic explorer, made a short exploring trip to the Arctic regions in the summer of 1869, preliminary to a more extensive and protracted expediton which he purposes to undertake in the summer of 1870. In company with Mr. Bradford, the artist, and a small corps of photographers, hunters, etc., he sailed from St. John's, Newfoundland, July 8d in the screw-steamer Panther, chartered at that port, and returned there September 28th. In this twelve-weeks' trip they penetrated as far north as latitude 75°, in the middle of Melville Sound or Bay, and were in serious peril of being nipped by the newly-forming ice in August. They ran down six polar bears, driving them from ice-field to ice-field with their powerful steamer, and finally capturing them. Visiting Upernavik, the northernmost settlement of Europeans in Greenland, latitude 72° 40′ N., they were very cordially received, and Dr. Hayes made provision for the gathering together there of dogs, furs, and hunters,

for his expedition of 1870. The principal interest of the expedition, however, was in its artistic and archæological discoveries and investigations. They visited several of the largest of the Greenland glaciers, and took sketches and photographs of them from different points, once narrowly escaping destruction from the discharge of several large icebergs into Baffin's Bay from the glacier they were examining. They also visited and explored very thoroughly the old Norse ruins at Krakatok, or Gardar, near Julianshaab, at the southern extremity of Greenland, about latitude 61°. This was once the seat of a prosperous Norwegian colony, founded A. D. 986; and the See of Gardar, the cathedral of which is yet standing and in tolerable preservation, was occupied by seventeen successive Norwegian bishops. Thorwald, the son of the founder of this colony, is said to have discovered Newfoundland in 1001. The party found conclusive evidence that the temperature of this region was much colder now than at the date of the Norwegian settlement. For ten successive days of their voyage the explorers saw the sun at midnight, and during two months they never had occasion to light their lamps. The mosquitoes and stinging flies, Dr. Hayes says, were more numerous and tormenting in south Greenland than anywhere else in the world. In his expedition of 1870, Dr. Hayes proposes to attempt to penetrate to the North Pole by way of Wellington Channel and Grinnell-land. This route has never been explored above the 77th parallel. The question of the best route to the Pole cannot be said to be settled. The preponderance of opinion, so far as routes from the north of this continent are concerned, seems to be through Smith's Sound. The highest point yet attained within the Arctic Circle, Cape Union, near latitude 83° N., was reached by this route. Of those north of the Eastern Continent, the route by the east coast of Greenland, that north of Spitzbergen, and that north of Nova Zembla, have been attempted unsuccessfully by the German, Swedish, and English expeditions, in 1868 and 1869; and so marked has been the failure, that they will hardly be tried again. There were seven distinct expeditions to the Polar regions from Europe in 1869, all well conducted and several of them rich in scientific results; but none of them have been successful thus far in attaining so high a latitude as was reached in 1868.

The Swedish expedition of 1868, under the direction of Prof. Nordenskiold, had made, on the 19th of September of that year, the latitude of 81° 42′, and explored very thoroughly the geology, botany, mineralogy, and meteorology of the western portion of the Spitzbergen Islands. Another expedition was sent from Sweden in 1869, but its results have not yet transpired. The expedition fitted out in 1868, under the efforts of Dr. Augustus Petermann, of Gotha, having failed to accomplish all that it was hoped it would, Dr. Petermann exerted himself anew in the winter of 1868–'69 to send out another on a larger scale. The little screw-steamer Germania, which Captain Koldewey had commanded in 1868, was again sent out, and with her the Hansa, a sailing-vessel of 242 tons. The Hansa was commanded by Captain Koldewey, and Captain Hegemann was commander of the Germania. The whole number of persons in both vessels was thirty-one, including a corps of six scientific men. The two vessels sailed from Bremerhaven, June 15, 1869, with the intention, as in the previous voyage, of keeping as near as possible to the east coast of Greenland, and, if possible, of entering by that route the region near the Pole. The vessels were provisioned for two years. Up to August 1, 1869, the success of the expedition had not been satisfactory. The highest point they had been able to make was 74° 59′ north latitude, due east of Shannon Island, and 11° 14′ west longitude from Greenwich, or almost 400 miles east of the Greenland coast. The line of firm ice continued to be maintained at this distance from the coast, and gradually extended farther eastward, so that they were forced southward, till on the 1st of August, 1869, they were in latitude 72° 50′, but had reached 16° west longitude. Of their subsequent progress we have no knowledge. It is probable, however, that they succeeded later in the season in entering the open water inside the ice-pack, and perhaps may have reached a higher latitude than any previous explorers on the east coast of Greenland.

M. A. Rosenthal, a wealthy merchant of Bremen, fitted out at his own expense two expeditions, both well supplied with scientific corps and all needful apparatus, and dispatched them to the Polar region, north of Nova Zembla. They were expected to bring home such a cargo of whale oil and bone, seal oil and skins, and other furs, as could be secured, lightening thereby the very heavy cost of the two expeditions. The first of Mr. Rosenthal's expeditions was in the screw-steamer Bienenkorb (Beehive), 400 tons, 120 horse-power, commanded by Captain Hagens, provisioned for eight to twelve months, and having fifty-five men on board, the scientific corps headed by Dr. J. S. Dorst, the eminent astronomer and physicist of Jülich. Its destination was to the sea between Spitzbergen and Greenland, with orders to penetrate to Gillis-land, the unknown region east of Spitzbergen, if possible, and to go and return by way of the eastern coast of Greenland. This vessel sailed from Bremerhaven, February 21st, and returned to that port on the 31st of August. The captain had found in the winter and spring the ice-border extending below 71°, and as far east as 12° east longitude from Greenwich, and, following the border southwest to the vicinity of Jan Mayen Island, latitude 70° 10′, longitude about 6° west of Greenwich, began in May to move northward; from this point the ice

boundary receded westward to about 12° west from Greenwich, but in latitude 73° 15′ he was again forced eastward by it. Running north, he succeeded in reaching, in June, latitude 79°, very near the meridian of Greenwich, and having taken what observations he could, and finding no prospect of attaining a higher latitude, the physicist of the expedition, Dr. Dorst, reluctantly turned his face homeward, finding the open-water channel comparatively free from ice, at about 17° 30′ west longitude, after the 17th of August.

M. Rosenthal's other screw-steamer, the Albert, a vessel of 700 tons, and 420 horse-power, was commanded by Captain Hashagen, and provisioned for fifteen months. Its crew numbered fifty-four persons, including a scientific corps under Dr. Emil Bessels, an eminent Heidelberg professor. This steamer sailed from Bremerhaven, May 23d, having for its destination the north of Spitzbergen, Gillis-land, the sea between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, and the attainment of as high a latitude as possible. It returned to Bremerhaven on the 22d of September, being absent but four months. Like their predecessors, they found the ice-border stretching eastward all through the summer months; but on the 20th of June attained to latitude 80° 14′ north, in longitude 9° 52′ east from Greenwich, northwest of the Island of West Spitzbergen. All their efforts to pass the northern shore of the island or the northeast land proved unavailing; and though they ran southward as far as 70° 30′ south of South Cape, and then returned in July northward, they were unable to go above 80° 5′ north latitude, and, finding all advance in that direction blocked, again turned southward, and, passing below the Spitzbergen Islands, ran east along the ice-border, past Hope Island toward Cape Nassau, the northernmost point of Nova Zembla. This is in latitude 76° 50′ and longitude 56° east of Greenwich. After taking careful observations in the vicinity of the cape, and securing what seals and other furs they could, they left the Siberian Sea on the 22d of August.

Another expedition, the result of private enterprise, was that of J. Lamont, Esq., M. P. for Buteshire, who fitted up his own steam-yacht at an expense of between $40,000 and $50,000 for an exploring expedition in the region north of Nova Zembla, and sailed from the Caledonian Canal the last of April, 1869, reaching Tromsö, Norway, about May 1st. His yacht was of 250 tons' burden, rigged as a three-masted schooner, strong and moderately fast. Mr. Lamont, and his surgeon as well as five or six of his crew, had had large experience in Arctic exploration. He returned to Dundee on the 6th of October, having reached Nova Zembla the last of May, and, like all the other explorers, having been prevented from attaining a very high latitude by the unusual accumulation of thick, heavy ice. He did succeed, however, in going to the 80th parallel, which is higher than any other explorer had gone in the longitude of Nova Zembla. He had been more successful in his pursuit of furs and oil than most of the others, bringing home a cargo which would go far toward paying expenses.

Another exploring enterprise, known as the Palliser expedition, the leader being an English gentleman, Captain Palliser, who had spent three months on Spitzbergen, in hunting, in 1868, sailed from Vadsö, Norway, in June, with a Norwegian commander and crew, intending to pass northward along Gillis-land, between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla. No news has been received from this expedition. It must have encountered the same difficulties with the ice as the others.

Aside from this long list of exploring expeditions, there were two others belonging to the year, and sent out by a nation which has done much for geographical science. One was that of the Russian merchant, Sidoroff, who, having obtained from his Government a twenty years' monopoly of the trade of the Obi and Yenisei Rivers, proposed to mingle science and trade, and sailed from Stockholm in a large screw-steamer on the 17th of June, with a Norwegian crew, for the mouth of the Obi, taking with him a small scientific corps. He had arrived at his destination in September, and was busily exploring the lower portions of that river, or rather, its estuary. Mr. Sidoroff has no special ambition to reach the North Pole, but he may do good service to geographical science by the investigation of the almost unknown rivers which discharge their waters into the Polar Sea.

A land expedition for the exploration of the northeastern portion of Siberia and its coasts bordering on the Polar Sea, the land of the Tchuktches, a branch of the Esquimaux race, has been for some years in progress under the direction of Baron Maidel and the patronage of the Russian Geographical Society. The baron commenced his labors in 1866, and has been prosecuting them steadily ever since. His party wintered at Nijne Kolymsk Fort, latitude 69°, longitude 159° east from Greenwich, in 1868–'69, and during the spring, summer, and autumn of 1869 were engaged in exploring the valleys of the Anyui and Anadyr Rivers, and the coast eastward to Behring's Straits. For the spring of 1870 they were preparing to move westward and explore the valley of the Lazeya and the mountains adjacent, making their headquarters at the fort of Sredne Kolymsk, latitude 68° north and longitude about east 153° of Greenwich, and terminating their explorations in August, 1870.

Mr. Robert Brown, an English naturalist, who was one of a party of explorers in *Greenland* and northwestern America, in 1866–1868, has furnished to the Zoological Society of London several papers on the *fauna* of Greenland. He enumerates 30 species of mammals which he had found there. Of these, 16 belonged to the *whale*

family, including the different genera and species of what the whalemen call the "right whale," the black fish, the white fish, the humpback, and the various dolphins and porpoises; seven were *pinnipedes* or members of the *seal* family, including the walrus and the great seal or sea-lion; two (the musk-ox and the reindeer) were *ruminants;* two (the lemming and the Arctic hare) were *rodents*, and three (the Polar bear, the Arctic fox, and the Esquimaux dog) were *carnivora*. The birds are numerous, though the aquatic birds, dovekies, wild geese, ducks, and occasionally swans, predominate. Mr. Brown's notes on the other classes of animals have not yet been published.

2. There has been very little geographical exploration in BRITISH AMERICA within the past year or two. The proposed confederation seems to be distasteful to the remoter provinces, Newfoundland, Prince Edward's Island, British Columbia, and the newly-constructed Province of Winnipeg, purchased from the Hudson's Bay Company. In this last, toward the close of the year, an insurrection broke out, with a demand for independence, or, in default of that, equality of representation in the Dominion Parliament, and the right to manage their local affairs by a local government. The insurrection, so far from being readily quelled, was assuming enlarged proportions in the spring of 1870.

British Columbia, though not disposed to revolt, has protested to the British Government against being united with Canada, and has asked with great unanimity to be permitted to annex itself to the United States. In the *Dominion of Canada* there is a large and constantly-increasing party in favor of independence.

In 1866, Mr. Robert Brown, the zoologist of whom we have already spoken, explored the Queen Charlotte Islands, off the coast of British Columbia; and in 1869 reported the results of his explorations to the Royal Geographical Society. The group of islands lie from 80 to 100 miles from the coast, and the archipelago is about 170 miles in length and 100 in breadth. The soil is poor, though there are supposed to be veins of gold-bearing quartz, and some lead and copper on several of the islands. The climate is mild, but very moist, 89 inches of rain having fallen in a single year. The inhabitants are a tribe of Indians, called Hydahs, very peculiar in their character, and, judging from their *physique*, their language, and their customs, seem to be of a different race from the other Indians of the Northern Pacific coast. They are hated by all the other Indian tribes, and never come to any part of the main-land where there are other tribes, without a conflict following. They are, physically, the finest aboriginal race on the North American Continent, tall, muscular, and straight, of a much lighter complexion than the other Indians, and their women are remarkably good-looking. They are, however, very dissolute and depraved in morals, the women as much so as the men, cruel, vindictive, and bloodthirsty. Their chiefs have coats-of-arms engraved on copper, which they value very highly. They possess remarkable artistic skill, and with the poorest tools will execute engravings, and sculpture (in *petto*), and ornaments, which would do no discredit to our most skilful artists. Their language is entirely distinct from that of any other Indian tribe of North America, in construction and sounds. The following are their numerals: Squānsĕn, one; Sting, two; Squnun, three; Stunsick, four; Klathel, five; Klunuthl, six; 'Cesqua, seven; Sting-suna, eight; Klathen-swansego, nine; Klath, ten; Klath-en-squansen, eleven; Klath-e-sting, twenty; Klath-e-klath, one hundred; Lugwa-klath, a thousand. An analysis of these numerals shows that they practise multiplication and division of numbers, an achievement in mathematics to which no other Indian tribe in their aboriginal condition have ever attained. The Hydahs are rapidly diminishing in numbers. In 1840 they had on all the islands a population of about 10,000. They do not now exceed 5,000. War, disease, debauchery, drunkenness, and general decay, have greatly diminished their numbers. That their immorality has greatly increased since their contact with the whites, is the testimony of the old traders as well as of the Hydahs themselves; but they are naturally a more licentious race than the other Indians.

During the past year Mr. Brown has also furnished to *Illustrated Travels* a popular account of his exploration of Vancouver's Island in 1866, but, as he adds no new geographical facts to those already given, we do not deem it necessary to repeat any portion of it.

3. UNITED STATES.—The Territory of *Alaska*, notwithstanding the efforts made to give it a good reputation, seems but a sorry tract of country. Its revenue the past year was $21,000, and the expenditure necessary to collect it $396,000. It may possess some value, eventually, for its furs and fisheries, but it is so thoroughly dreary and desolate a region that it can hardly ever support any very considerable population, and probably never raise enough vegetable food to supply the few who do make it a home.

Proceeding down the Pacific coast, we find that a new gold-district has been discovered in the vicinity of San Diego, *California*. Lassen's Peak, one of the newly-discovered volcanoes of the Sierra Nevada, within the limits of California, has a maximum height of 10,577 feet, and three summits, only one of which, the southwestern, has been active within any very recent period. The completion of the Pacific Railroad and the junction of the Union and Central Pacific roads at Promontory, and afterward at Ogden, in May, 1869, were important geographical events, bringing, as it must, the commerce of China and Japan with Europe and America across the American Continent,

and opening for settlement, with extraordinary rapidity, the whole region lying between the Missouri River and the Pacific coast. This vast region must soon become densely populated, and its mineral wealth and its agricultural facilities developed. A Northern Pacific Railway following the valleys of the Upper Missouri and the Columbia, and a Southern Pacific beginning at Memphis, taking possession of some roads already constructed, passing through El Paso, and finally terminating at San Diego on the Pacific, are already in progress, and will be hurried forward as rapidly as possible. With these varied routes, and the additional advantages of the Panama Railroad and the Darien Canal, soon to be constructed, the trade of Eastern Asia and of Western South America must be ours beyond all possibility of competition. The Rio Colorado, or Red River of the West, the only stream which drains the great Central North American basin, and discharges its water through the Gulf of California into the Pacific, has been explored during the year 1869 by a daring and energetic corps, under the command of Captain J. W. Powell. It is, in some respects, the most remarkable river in the world. Its sources are in the Rocky Mountains, one of them far up in Idaho, above Fort Bonneville; the other in Colorado, not far from Denver. Its two principal tributaries, the Green River and the Grand River, as well as the smaller yet considerable affluents, the San Juan and the Little Colorado, very soon begin to cut their way through the mountain-ridges, at a very considerable depth below the surface of the plateau. The Green River, whose gorges and cañons are deepest, first enters the Uintah Mountains in the extreme northwest corner of Colorado, at the point named by the explorers, Flaming Gorge, from the brilliant colors of the sandstone walls of the gorge, and just below this the walls of the cañon are nearly fifteen hundred feet high. The stream is rapid, the descent, aside from the cataracts and minor falls, being near twenty feet to the mile in many places. Frequent falls, rapids, and cataracts were met with, and though, for the most part, there was, on one side or the other, a narrow strip of land forming the valley of the river, there were considerable distances where the walls, perpendicular, dark, and frowning, came to the edge of the water, and reared their grim, dark walls 5,000, 6,000, or even, at one point, 6,500 feet above the surface of the river. At several points the explorers were able to land, and, by dint of vigorous climbing, reach the surface of the plateau above; but these points were on the Green River, above its junction with the Grand River. Below this point, in the fearful black cañon, there was no chance of escape, except by going forward through the dark and terrible gorge. They could not turn back. No mortal arm could stem the swift-flowing current, and the cataracts below were untried, except by the two or three parties who had attempted their descent, and of whom but one man, and he almost by a miracle, had escaped with life. Still the brave-hearted company went forward. Stopping at landings when they could find them, lowering the boats carefully over the falls, after unpacking them, at last, late in July, the end of the Black Cañon was reached at Callville, and thenceforward navigation was easy. The extent of these frightful cañons is over five hundred miles, and from their termination at Callville to the mouth of the Colorado is more than five hundred miles more. The entire length of the river to the source of its most northern affluent is about one thousand six hundred miles. The expedition measured the height of the plateau above them at many points, collected sets of the strata, and surveyed very carefully the course and descent of the river. Prof. J. S. Newberry, of the Columbia School of Mines, and formerly one of the scientific corps employed by the Government in what were known as the Colorado and San Juan Expeditions, in 1858–'61, has given to the public, in a lecture, his observations of this Colorado region, to which some allusion was made in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868. He ascended the river from its mouth to the entrance of the Black Cañon, and the party then ascended to the plateau, and traversed it in the two expeditions for a distance of many hundred miles. They attempted to cross the Little Colorado at its junction with the Colorado, but, after descending about four thousand feet, they came to a perpendicular wall of rock, still one thousand five hundred feet above the surface of the river. They were compelled to make a detour of about two hundred miles, and cross the Little Colorado above the falls, near San Francisco Mountain, in Central Arizona. From this point they travelled on the plateau about sixty miles, and visited the villages of the Moqui Indians, on buttes (elevated bluffs of moderate extent), five hundred feet above the plain. They found them living in walled towns, and in appearance, language, customs, manufactures, and religion, entirely distinct from either the Pueblos or the wandering tribes, Apaches, Navajos, etc. The professor believes these Moquis to be the descendants of the Toltecs, the race which preceded the Aztecs in their conquest of Western North America. Penetrating, in the second of these expeditions, to the vicinity of the San Juan, an affluent of the Colorado flowing through Northwestern New Mexico and Southeastern Utah, they found its banks lined with ruins of large towns, and evidence that, within a short distance, a hundred thousand people had found homes and plenty, where now was only utter desolation and a waterless desert.

Dr. William A. Bell, an English surgeon and physicist, who had accompanied an exploring expedition, sent out in 1867–'68 by the Union Pacific Railroad Company, Western Division, to explore a feasible route for a railway through

New Mexico, Arizona, etc., since his return to England, has communicated several papers to the Geographical Society, on Arizona and New Mexico, and has a volume of travels in that region now ready for publication. He describes with great vividness the condition of these elevated plateaus and the ruins of great towns. He visited Zuni, a fortified town built upon one of the small but lofty table-lands of that region, and which was carried by the Spaniards by assault, though with heavy loss, at the time they first invaded this region. Its inhabitants were then, as now, Pueblo Indians, or Aztecs. The town or fortress is, he says, one vast building with massive walls, six stories high, and contains hundreds of rooms. The first story is lighted only from within, presenting on its external face only blank walls. The second story is reached by ladders, which can be readily withdrawn, and the inhabitants descend to the floor of the first story by openings and steps from the floor of the second story.

The valleys of the Missouri and Mississippi Rivers have been explored at various points in the interests of science during the last two years. The head-waters of the Missouri in Montana have been traced, and are found to be in a region of great mineral wealth. Around the small streams which form the sources of this magnificent river are found numerous lodes of gold and silver, copper and lead; and mineral waters, chalybeate, sulphurous, and magnesian, hot, warm, and cold, as well as geysers of great beauty and power, are found in that hitherto unknown region. Within less than a mile of one of these ultimate sources of the great river, a small stream is found flowing westward, though by a devious route. This is one of the sources of the Columbia, and its waters flow into the Pacific Ocean.

A most valuable contribution to our knowledge of the physical geography of the United States was made in 1869, by the publication of "The Mississippi Valley: its Physical Geography, including Sketches of the Topography, Botany, Climate, Geology, and Mineral Resources; and of the Progress of Development in Population and Material Wealth. By J. W. Foster, LL. D., President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science," etc., etc.* Dr. Foster is well known as one of our ablest geologists, and in this work he has not confined himself to the Valley of the Mississippi, but has brought together a vast number of facts in the physical geography of the whole North American Continent, which cannot fail to be of great value to all who are interested in geognostic and geographical studies. We annex two tables compiled by Dr. Foster, and found on pp. 207 and 208 of his work, which are of great interest in its bearing upon the climate of various portions of North America.

ANNUAL PRECIPITATION OF RAIN AT SEVERAL STATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA,† IN INCHES AND HUNDREDTHS.

STATIONS.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Year.
Toronto, Canada	7.26	9.57	10.33	4.29	31.35
Portland, Maine	12.11	10.98	11.93	10.96	45.25
Portsmouth, New Hampshire	9.08	9.21	8.95	8.33	35.57
Cambridge, Massachusetts	10.85	11.17	12.57	9.89	44.48
Amherst, "	10.23	11.84	11.39	9.70	43.16
New York City	11.55	11.33	10.30	9.68	42.86
Albany, New York	9.79	12.31	10.27	8.30	40.67
Rochester, "	6.62	8.86	9.38	5.38	30.44
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	10.97	12.45	10.07	10.06	43.56
Pittsburg, "	9.26	9.87	8.23	7.46	34.96
Gettysburg, "	9.74	10.20	9.77	9.10	38.81
Washington, District of Columbia	10.45	10.53	10.16	11.07	41.20
Charleston, South Carolina	8.60	18.68	11.61	9.40	48.29
Pensacola, Florida	13.86	81.69	13.71	11.73	55.98
Vera Cruz, Mexico	31.90	116.80	51.40	5.50	188.20
Mobile, Alabama	14.94	18.00	13.91	18.27	64.42
Jackson, Mississippi	10.90	14.20	9.50	18.40	53.00
New Orleans, Louisiana	11.39	17.28	9.63	12.71	50.90
Fort Jessup, "	13.68	10.94	9.74	11.49	45.85
Fort Towson, Indian Territory	15.55	14.36	12.23	8.94	51.08
St. Louis, Missouri	12.30	14.14	8.94	6.94	42.32
Cincinnati, Ohio	12.14	13.70	9.90	11.15	46.89
Hudson, "	9.76	8.87	6.16	8.00	32.79
Mackinac, Michigan	4.67	8.88	7.01	3.31	23.87
Ann Arbor, "	7.30	11.20	7.00	3.10	28.60
Fort Brady, "	5.44	9.97	10.76	5.18	31.35
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	6.60	9.70	6.80	4.20	27.30
St. Paul, Minnesota	6.61	10.92	5.96	1.92	25.43
Fort Madison, Iowa	15.30	15.90	14.50	4.70	50.30
Fort Scott, Kansas	12.57	16.37	8.39	4.79	42.12
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas	7.97	12.94	7.33	2.75	30.99
Fort Riley, "	7.91	7.15	5.56	1.26	21.90
Fort Kearney, Nebraska	10.80	12.05	3.82	1.31	27.98
Fort Laramie, Wyoming Territory	8.69	5.70	3.96	1.63	19.98
Fort Union, Texas	2.47	9.62	5.12	2.03	19.24
El Paso, "	0.70	3.56	5.25	1.70	11.21
Santa Fé, New Mexico	2.88	8.90	6.02	2.08	19.88
Fort Yuma, California	0.27	1.30	0.86	0.72	3.15
San Francisco, "	7.56	0.09	2.96	11.34	21.95
Sacramento, "	7.01	0.00	6.61	12.11	25.73
Fort Miller, "	9.57	0.02	2.80	9.79	22.18
Astoria, Oregon	16.42	4.00	21.77	44.15	86.35
Steilacoom, Washington Territory	11.19	3.85	15.83	22.62	53.49
Dalles of Columbia	2.62	0.42	3.78	6.96	13.81
Sitka, Alaska	18.32	15.75	33.10	23.77	89.94

* Published by S. C. Griggs & Co., Chicago. † Dr. Foster acknowledges his obligations to Dr. Lorin Blodget's "Climatology" for many of these figures.

A necessary complement to this foregoing table is one of the mean temperature of each season, and of the year, of most of these places, and of others which Dr. Foster also furnishes:

TABLE OF TEMPERATURES AT SEVERAL STATIONS IN NORTH AMERICA.

STATIONS.	Altitude.	Spring.	Summer.	Autumn.	Winter.	Year.
	Feet.	*Degrees.*	*Degrees.*	*Degrees.*	*Degrees.*	*Degrees.*
Toronto, Canada	341	41.1	64.8	46.6	24.5	44.8
Portland, Maine	20	42.8	65.2	48.1	24.7	45.2
Portsmouth, New Hampshire	20	43.3	64.4	49.0	26.6	45.8
Cambridge, Massachusetts	71	44.3	68.6	50.1	26.2	47.3
Amherst, "	267	45.0	68.6	48.7	24.7	46.7
New York City	23	48.7	72.1	54.5	31.4	51.7
Albany, New York	130	46.7	70.0	50.0	26.0	48.2
Rochester, "	506	44.6	67.6	48.9	27.0	47.0
Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	60	50.6	71.0	52.1	32.6	51.6
Gettysburg, "	600?	50.0	71.6	51.1	30.1	50.7
Washington, District of Columbia	78	54.2	73.1	53.9	33.9	53.8
Charleston, South Carolina	20	65.8	80.6	68.1	51.7	66.6
Pensacola, Florida	20	66.6	81.6	69.8	54.9	68.7
Vera Cruz, Mexico	00	78.0	81.5	78.7	71.9	77.5
Mobile, Alabama	25	70.1	82.7	71.0	57.3	70.3
New Orleans, Louisiana	10	70.0	82.3	70.7	56.5	69.9
Galveston, Texas	00	71.0	82.5	70.2	53.8	69.4
Fort Towson, Indian Territory	300?	62.4	79.1	61.3	43.9	61.7
St. Louis, Missouri	450	54.1	76.2	55.4	32.3	54.5
Cincinnati, Ohio	550	54.3	73.0	55.0	32.9	53.8
Hudson, "	1,131	49.1	70.2	48.4	28.8	49.1
Ann Arbor, Michigan	700?	45.5	66.3	48.4	25.3	46.4
Fort Wilkins, Lake Superior	627	38.5	60.8	43.0	21.8	40.1
Fort Brady, "	600	37.6	62.0	43.5	18.3	40.4
Milwaukee, Wisconsin	591	42.3	67.3	50·1	26.0	46.4
Chicago, Illinois	591	44.9	67.3	48.6	25.9	46.7
Fort Madison, Iowa	550?	50.5	73.2	53.1	26.3	50.8
St. Paul, Minnesota	820	45.6	70.6	45.9	16.1	44.6
Fort Scott, Kansas	1,000?	54.8	74.9	55.3	33.0	54.5
Fort Leavenworth, Kansas	896	53.8	74.1	53.7	29.6	52.8
Fort Riley, "	1,147	56.5	77.2	60.2	32.4	56.6
Fort Kearney, Nebraska	2,360	46.8	71.5	49.3	23.0	47.7
Fort Laramie, Wyoming	4,519	46.8	71.9	50.3	31.1	50.1
Great Salt Lake City, Utah	4,357	51.7	75.9	....	32.1	...
Fort Benton, Montana	2,663	49.9	72.8	44.5	25.4	48.2
Fort Union, Texas	6,418	48.3	67.3	48.3	32.6	49.1
Santa Fé, New Mexico	6,840	49.7	70.4	50.6	31.6	50.6
Fort Yuma, California	120	72.1	90.0	75.7	56.8	73.6
San Francisco, California	50	57.0	60.1	60.1	51.5	57.2
Sacramento, "	50	59.2	72.8	61.3	46.3	59.9
Fort Miller, "	402	62.8	85.5	66.4	49.3	66.0
Dalles of Columbia	350	53.0	70.3	52.2	35.6	52.8
Astoria, Oregon	50	51.1	61.6	53.7	42.4	52.2
Sitka, Alaska	50	40.0	54.2	43.9	32.2	42.6
Port Townsend, Washington Territory	85	40.0	52.9	62.4	43.5	49.7

Dr. Foster has considered at some length the mounds scattered over almost all portions of the Mississippi Valley, and in an essay of great beauty sums up the conclusions to which explorers have been led by their examinations in regard to the race which reared these vast structures. From various data he concludes that they must have been built at least a thousand years ago, and by a race of different physical characteristics, and a very much higher civilization, than any of the tribes of roving Indians now found in the United States. Their implements, and the substances found in some of the mounds, indicate that they were an agricultural and horticultural people, yet they could not have had the assistance of any of the domestic animals in their agriculture. The horse, the ox, the goat, and the llama, were alike unknown to them, and the buffalo, or bison, which, with all the appliances of modern times, has never been domesticated, was not more submissive to them. They had implements of stone and of copper, but, lacking tin, they could not make bronze, and consequently could not make the copper (which they do not seem to have smelted, but only hammered) into cutting-instruments. They were familiar with the plastic arts, and had even made some progress in the manufacture of fictile ornaments, and in sculpture. Their clothing was not made of skins, but was woven by hand in a slow and painful way, from a textile fibre analogous to hemp, and they had perforated gauges of chlorite slate or soapstone, to determine the size of the threads which they spun. Their principal food was maize, with perhaps the occasional addition of the flesh of wild animals, and fish; but of the maize they made a variety of dishes, among others a thin and wafer-like bread, of which the Indian tribes of our time have no knowledge. In selecting sites for their mounds and structures, they showed an intelligent and cultivated taste, the localities being in almost every case those which our own people have chosen as most advantageous for the planting of large towns. Cincinnati, St. Louis, Marietta, Circleville, Chillicothe, Newark (Ohio), Chattanooga, Beloit, and other large towns and cities, are all built where the mound-builders had previously reared their structures.

The following table, for which we are indebted to Colton's *Journal of Geography*, fur-

nishes with great accuracy and minuteness information in regard to the exact location of our principal towns throughout the United States, which has not heretofore been accessible. The column of *Time from Greenwich* will be found of great value in any calculations in regard to the latitude and longitude of any intermediate places:

Latitude and Longitude of some of the Principal Cities of the United States, showing the Difference in Time—calculated from Greenwich.

PLACE.	Latitude.	Longitude.	Time.
	° ′ ″	° ′ ″	
Portland, Maine	43 39 30	70 15 00	4 41 00
Concord, N. H	43 16 45	71 31 30	4 46 06
Montpelier, Vt	44 16 15	72 35 00	4 50 20
Boston, Mass	42 25 00	71 06 00	4 44 24
Hartford, Conn	41 46 30	72 40 00	4 50 40
Providence, R. I	41 47 38	71 23 12	4 45 33
New York, N. Y	40 42 44	74 00 00	4 56 00
Buffalo, "	42 53 30	78 55 00	5 15 40
Philadelphia, Pa	39 48 40	75 04 15	5 00 17
Harrisburg, "	40 15 15	76 52 30	5 07 30
Baltimore, Md	39 17 00	76 36 00	5 06 24
Trenton, N. J	40 06 45	74 42 35	4 58 50
Dover, Del	39 09 45	75 31 00	5 02 04
Washington, D. C	38 57 35	77 02 55	5 08 12
Richmond, Va	37 35 00	77 26 30	5 09 46
Wheeling, West Va	40 04 05	80 43 30	5 22 54
Wilmington, N. C	34 14 03	77 56 47	5 11 47
Charleston, S. C	32 46 38	79 55 57	5 19 42
Augusta, Ga	33 26 30	81 54 30	5 27 38
Savannah, "	32 04 53	81 05 17	5 24 21
Tallahassee, Fla	30 25 45	84 18 40	5 37 15
Florence, Ala	34 47 15	85 01 30	5 40 06
Mobile, "	30 40 15	88 05 15	5 52 21
Jackson, Miss	32 17 00	90 08 00	6 00 32
New Orleans, La	29 57 30	90 02 30	6 00 10
Galveston, Texas	29 18 14	94 46 54	6 19 03
Austin, "	30 18 30	97 37 45	6 30 44
Nashville, Tenn	36 08 15	86 44 30	5 46 58
Memphis, "	35 09 50	94 57 55	6 19 52
Louisville, Ky	38 16 30	85 45 30	5 43 02
Little Rock, Ark	34 45 45	92 12 00	6 48 48
St. Louis, Mo	38 37 00	90 13 00	6 00 52
St. Joseph, "	39 46 00	94 54 30	6 19 37
Indianapolis, Ind	40 47 00	86 11 00	5 44 44
Cincinnati, Ohio	39 05 54	84 29 31	5 37 58
Columbus, "	40 58 00	82 59 00	5 31 56
Detroit, Mich	42 20 00	83 02 30	5 32 09
Chicago, Ill	41 53 00	87 37 30	5 50 30
Cairo, "	37 05 00	89 12 00	5 56 08
Milwaukee, Wis	44 02 30	87 55 30	5 51 42
St. Paul, Minn	44 56 15	93 08 45	6 12 35
Omaha, Nebraska	41 15 00	95 53 40	6 23 35
Fort Kearney, Nebraska	40 38 25	99 04 15	6 36 17
Leavenworth, Kansas	39 19 00	94 58 30	6 19 54
Denver, Colorado	39 45 30	104 57 00	6 59 48
Cheyenne, Wyoming	41 07 30	104 59 00	6 59 56
Yankton, Dakota	42 52 45	97 22 30	6 29 30
Helena, Montana	46 33 00	112 02 00	7 28 08
Boise City, Idaho	43 43 00	115 40 00	7 42 40
Olympia, Washington	47 03 00	122 55 00	8 11 40
Salem, Oregon	44 56 58	123 02 30	8 12 10
San Francisco, California	37 48 00	122 28 00	8 09 52
Carson City, Nevada	39 08 15	119 45 00	7 59 00
Salt Lake City, Utah	40 46 30	112 06 30	7 48 26
Prescott, Arizona	34 35 00	112 12 00	7 28 48
Santa Fé, New Mexico	35 41 00	106 00 00	7 04 00
Sitka, Alaska	57 03 00	135 18 00	9 01 12

4. In Mexico.—The volcano of Colima, near the southwest coast, 12,000 feet in height, which had been quiet since 1818, gave indications, on the 13th of June, 1869, of renewed activity. There were rumblings, mutterings, quick detonations, and a cloud of light-colored smoke, rising from the top of the mountain. These premonitory symptoms were followed, on the 15th of June, by an eruption of flame, ashes, molten stone and metal, estimated at 275 feet in height, and the crater was about three miles in circumference. The eruption continued throughout June, and the column of flame and scoriæ maintained an altitude of 80 or 90 feet, and by the last of that month had made a river of lava down the slope of the mountain about nine miles in length.

5. In Central America.—M. Paul Levy, an enterprising French naturalist, explored, in the summer of 1869, the west coast, from Panama to Managua, the present capital of the republic of Nicaragua, and in a journey of thirty-two days on horseback passed over much territory which is new to Europeans, or to citizens of the United States. He traversed Chiriqui, and, though the Indians were not very friendly, he was not annoyed by them. He speaks of the country as remarkably beautiful in its scenery, and as capable of sustaining a large population.

6. The West Indies.—There have been no changes in the physical geography of these islands during 1869, and no earthquakes of importance. An ocean-cable has been ordered to connect Havana with Honduras, but in the present state of anarchy in Cuba it is doubtful whether it will be laid at present. The political changes and revolutions, not all as yet complete, will greatly influence the future of these islands. Cuba is yet in a state of revolution, and the end of the domination of Spain over the island cannot be far off. Hayti has passed through another revolution, has dethroned and executed its late President, Salnave, and installed the successful leader of the revolution, Nissage Saget, in his stead. The President of San Domingo—the other, and formerly Spanish, moiety of the island—has been endeavoring to negotiate a treaty of annexation to the United States, but the ratification of the treaty by the United States Senate is hardly probable. Our Government has leased the Bay of Samana for fifty years at $150,000 a year, and this lease may be confirmed. The treaty for the purchase of St. Thomas has been rejected by the United States.

7. In South America.—Passing across the Caribbean Sea, we find several items of interest. The Orinoco gold-fields, or rather those of Caratal, on the Yuruari, an affluent of the Orinoco, were visited in the autumn and winter of 1868–'69 by Mr. C. Le Neve Foster, an English geologist and mining engineer, and very thoroughly explored. The region is Raleigh's "El Dorado," and there is unquestionably an abundance of gold there in quartz lodes, and considerable yet remaining in placers. The processes used in extracting it are, except in the case of an American company which had recently established itself there, the rudest and least effective possible. Almost the whole extraction was done by hand, pounding the gold-bearing quartz in a wooden mortar with an iron pestle, washing it in a bowl, amalgamating it by stirring up the powdered stone with water and quicksilver with a stick, squeezing it out, and then volatilizing the quicksilver by the heat of a fire of sticks. In this rude

way somewhat more than a half million dollars' worth of gold was extracted in a year. Gambling, drunkenness, and lawlessness, were common, as in all gold-mining regions, and human life was not remarkably safe.

Mr. A. Goering, an English artist and geographer, has explored Venezuela very thoroughly in 1868 and 1869, and gives some interesting details of the Guajiro Indians who occupy the borders of the lake or *laguna* of Maracaibo. These Indians seem to be the existing representatives of the extinct lake-dwellers of Switzerland and Northern Italy. They build their dwellings with considerable art and intelligence, on piles, driven into the shallow flats of the *laguna*, raising them on platforms fifteen or twenty feet above the surface of the water. These dwellings are in groups, connected by bridges, and have pent roofs, each house consisting of two apartments, the front a kitchen and living-room, and the rear their place for sleeping. They sleep in hammocks, and live mostly on fish and mollusks, but are, unlike most of the Indian tribes, scrupulously neat and cleanly. They are athletic, finely formed, rather fond of dress and ornaments, their finery being, however, worn usually only on holidays and special occasions. They come occasionally to the small Venezuelan towns on the shores of the lake, but seldom allow visitors to their villages. They are sharp on a bargain, and have a habit of selling their children to the whites, for education and service, while they are too young to have much remembrance of their homes.

Brazil has not been able, from the great expense of her protracted war with Paraguay, to make any geographical explorations by her citizens, but several of the European and American geographers have devoted much labor and time to the exploration of her, as yet, little-known territory. The Abbé Durand, a French naturalist, visited and explored very thoroughly the Serra de Caraça, a vast iron mountain in the province of Minas Geraes, and has reported to the French Geographical Society on its mineral wealth, its vegetable and animal productions, and the facility with which it may be worked. Mr. Chandless, the indefatigable English explorer, has been pushing up the southern affluents of the Amazon, though his discoveries come more properly, perhaps, within the boundaries of Peru than those of Brazil; and our own countryman, Prof. James Orton, has been exploring the upper waters of the same great river. The Germans are still reënforcing their colonies in Southern Brazil, and it is not impossible that in the future they may be the means of raising the empire to a higher plane of intelligence and progress than it would ever have attained under the slothful, easy, and anti-progressive sway of the mixed races which as yet form the principal population of the country. From January, 1868, to April, 1869, 5,330 emigrants sailed from Hamburg for the four Brazilian colonies. Prof. Orton's volume, "The Andes and the Amazon," appertains about equally to Ecuador and Brazil, but is replete with valuable information in regard to the navigation of the great river and its tributaries, the physical geography, the geology, fauna, flora, productions, climate, and healthfulness of the Amazonas basin, and the character and condition of the tribes and peoples which inhabit it. He has collected also some vocabularies of several of the Indian dialects. Prof. Orton believes most of the Indian tribes (the Quechnas included) of the Great Basin to have come hither from a point farther south, the region of the La Plata, perhaps, and not from the north, as is generally supposed. One of his discoveries, that of marine-fossil shells *in situ*, at Pebas on the Marañon or upper Amazon, effectually disposes of Agassiz's theory of the glacial origin of the Amazonas basin, and proves that, at no very distant geological period, Guiana was an island. The work is a very valuable addition to a geographical knowledge of South America.

Mr. Porter C. Bliss, an American who escaped from Lopez's oppression in *Paraguay*, in 1868, read a paper before the American Association for the Advancement of Science, at its meeting in Salem, in August, 1869, on "A New Classification of the South American Indians," on the Basis of Philology." It has been stated that there were from 150 to 2,000 distinct though correlated languages spoken by the Indians of South America. Mr. Bliss denies this, and states, as the result of a careful study of the South American languages for many years, that there are not more than twelve or thirteen stock languages among the Indians of the continent, the rest being merely dialects. Of these, the Guarani and the Quechna are the principal and the most widely spoken. These two languages have a considerable vocabulary, while most of the others are meagre, containing not more than a thousand root words. Reduplication was a principle largely concerned in the formation of both the Quechna and Guarani languages. Mr. Bliss had found more than three hundred geographical names formed by this process, such as Mo-co-mo-co, Co-ro-co-ro, Titi-ca-ca, etc.

In *Patagonia*, and the *Straits of Magellan*, there have been two capable explorers the past year—Don Guillermo Cox, in Patagonia, and Captain R. C. Mayne, R. N., one of the Admiralty survey officers who was engaged from 1866 to May, 1869, in making an accurate and careful survey of the straits, a route which is now very generally preferred by both steamers and sailing-vessels, to the more tempestuous route outside the Horn. Captain Mayne states that the straits are 300 miles in length, and from 2 to 20 miles in width. At the entrance from the Atlantic, the land is a low prairie, and the skies are generally bright, but farther on the straits are narrow, shut in by high perpendicular mountains, and drenched by almost constant rains, snow, or hail. He saw much

of the Patagonians and Fuegans. The former, though of good height, averaging for both sexes 5 feet 10 inches to 6 feet, were not such giants as they had been represented. The tallest man he had measured was 6 feet 10½ inches, but his case was exceptional. The Fuegans were small, badly shaped, and ill-featured; but were temperate in their habits, except in their excessive use of tobacco, while the Patagonians were terrible drunkards. He confirms the statement made by other travellers, that the Patagonians kill their old people, to avoid having to provide for them.

Don Guillermo Cox, a Chilian naturalist, has made several visits to Patagonia, and studied very thoroughly the country and its people. He made reports of his explorations, in the "Annals of the University of Chili," where he was a professor, the last being dated in 1868. He states that Patagonia and the islands south of it are occupied by five distinct Indian tribes. 1. The Pehuenches, subdivided into northern and southern Pehuenches, whose district is for the most part north of the Limay, an affluent of the Rio Negro. 2. The Pampas, or Tehuelches of the north, from the Limay to the Cheoput. 3. The Tehuelches of the south, who occupy the southern portion of the peninsula, and differ very little from those of the north. (These two are the Patagonians most generally known, of large stature and intemperate habits.) 4. The Huaicurus, a mixed race, part Tehuelche, and part Fuegan, occupying the northern shores of the Straits of Magellan, and 5. The Fuegans or inhabitants of the island of Terra del Fuego. Of these tribes, the Pehuenches are the only ones who have fixed habitations, the others being nomadic and those on the coast plundering shipwrecked vessels. Don G. Cox confirms the statements of Captain Mayne in regard to the stature of the Tehuelches, who are, he says, the largest of the Patagonian tribes. All these tribes live exclusively upon flesh and fat, rejecting all vegetable food. They use the *bolas*, or lasso with two or three balls attached, to capture animals in hunting. They are polygamists, but adultery is very rare. Owing to their wretched life, abortion is very common, and their numbers are not increasing. The Tehuelches do not exceed 6,000.

Considerable interest has attached for some years past to two lakes in Southern *Chili*, lying in a pass of the Andes, through which it is believed with slight labor an available route for small steamboats might be found across the narrow prolongation of the continent. Dr. Edward Geisse, a Chilian geographer, has within the past year explored more fully the region in which these lakes (Llanquihue and Puyehue) lie. Finding their waters warmer than the atmosphere or the other streams near, he traced the streams which supply them up to their sources, and found that they flowed from very extensive hot springs about 240 feet higher in the mountains. The source of Puyehue, where it leaves the spring, has a temperature of about 149° Fahr., and that of Llanquihue varies from 100° to 122° Fahr.

Proceeding northward, we find little to notice in *Paraguay* except the continuance of the struggle which, though marked by great persistence on the part of the allies, and the most heroic endurance and bravery on the part of the Paraguayans, can only result in the almost complete depopulation of this naturally rich and beautiful country. The contest still continues, though it has recently taken a guerrilla character. The indomitable Lopez and his followers have betaken themselves to the mountains, and, though pursued, do not seem to be conquered or captured.

In *Bolivia* a new gold-field with very rich placers was discovered a few years since, but was not very fully developed until 1868–'69. It is situated in the Quelrada or district of Santa Rosa, lying between latitude 15° and 16° S., and between longitude 64° and 65° W. from Paris. In 1867 only about 50 lbs. of gold (about $11,000) were taken out, but in October, 1868, about 700 men were employed, and the yield had reached $5,500 per day. Since that time it has still further increased; and, as the earth for a depth of about 15 feet seems to be heavily charged with gold, there is a probability of still greater results even with the rude and imperfect processes adopted.

From *Peru* we have accounts more full than heretofore of the exploration of the Ucayali, the Juruá, and the Napo, the latter explored through most of its course by our countryman Prof. Orton and his company. It is about 800 miles in length, and navigable from Napo for boats for 580 miles, and for steamers from Santa Rosa (about 500 miles). Mr. Chandless, whose explorations of the Juruá was mentioned in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, returned to England, in January, 1870, having, it would seem, again attempted the ascent of the Juruá, but was checked by the wars between the savage tribes which were still in progress. The highest point reached was above the mouth of the river Mú, in latitude 7° 11′ 45″ S., and longitude 72° 1′ 30″ W., 982 miles above the entrance of the Juruá into the Marañon.

Careful observations made by Nicholas Whitley, C. E., and Admiral Irminger, of the Danish navy, as well as by officers of the Cunard steamships sailing between Liverpool and New York, prosecuted for a series of years, give some interesting facts respecting the existence and course of warm currents in the northern portion of the ATLANTIC OCEAN. It seems from these observations that a cold current of water flows over the banks of Newfoundland, having a mean temperature of 39° 2′ Fahr., and during the three winter months falling to 32°, 31°, 30°, rising in September to 52°, its maximum. On or near the meridian of 40° W. from Greenwich in the steamship route, the mean temperature of the year is 57° 2′ Fahr., the lowest 54° in February and March, and the

highest 61° in August. From longitude 35° W. to 20° W. from Greenwich, the mean average temperature of the year is 56° 2′ Fahr., rising to 59° or 60° Fahr. in August and September, and sinking to 52° to 54° in the winter months. From 20° to the Irish coast, the temperature is somewhat lower, the mean of the year being 54° 2′ to 55° 1′, the minimum 50° to 52°, and the maximum 59° to 60°.

The Arctic current sets southward over the Newfoundland Banks and comes between the American shore and the Gulf Stream. To this are due our more rigorous winters than those of the west coast of Europe in the same latitude. But it has been discovered that the warm current from the Gulf Stream or tropical waters does not always follow precisely the same course, but is sometimes one or two degrees of longitude east or west of its usual route. These facts are interesting from their bearing on our climate, and on the probabilities of Arctic discovery.

8. EUROPE.—We have space to notice only a few particulars of geographical interest in Europe.

In *Italy*, Mount Ætna, which had been carefully measured in 1864, has again been the subject of measurement, it being very generally supposed that the great eruption of 1865 had altered its configuration and the height of some of its most noted points. The new survey proves the error of this supposition. The result of the admeasurements was as follows:

	1864.	1868.	Difference.
	Feet.	*Feet.*	*Feet.*
Place of Torr the philosopher....	9,481.13	9,483.49	1.36
Threshold of the English cabin...	9,561.69	9,564.39	2.70
Highest point of the brink of the crater.....	10,767.77	10,768.29	0.52

A hydrographical survey of Lake Ladoga, the largest lake of *Russia*, was completed in 1869. It has been long needed. The lake has an area of 6,633 square miles; it is 131 miles in its extreme length, and 98 miles in its greatest breadth. Its greatest depth, 122 fathoms, is attained in its northern portion, and its average depth is about 50 fathoms. Its principal affluents are the Volchoff, the Siassy, the Svir, the Olonka, the Tarfula, and the Voksa. The climate of the lake is very severe. In a cold winter the whole lake freezes over, and the ice is three to four feet thick. Icebergs of considerable size are formed at the northern extremity of the lake. The water is very pure and transparent, but cold, its temperature ranging from 86° F. to 45° F. in the very warmest weather. Fish are abundant at the mouths of the rivers, and of excellent quality. The traffic on the lake is very large.

In *European Turkey*, there were several successive earthquake shocks between the 25th and 28th of June, 1869. The first series were felt on the 25th, and extended from Constantinople to Adrianople. Two days later another series occurred, extending from Serajano to Ragusa. Though these shocks were severe enough to excite considerable terror, there was no destruction of property or life.

9. ASIA.—The Sinaitic explorations in *Arabia* have been prosecuted with great energy during 1869. The surveying party—consisting of Captains Wilson and Palmer, of the Royal Engineers; four non-commissioned officers of the Royal Engineers, all of whom as well as their chiefs had been engaged in the ordnance survey for some years; Mr. Palmer, an excellent and accomplished Oriental scholar; Mr. Wyatt, a naturalist; and Rev. F. W. Holland, who had made three previous explorations of the Sinaitic peninsula—left Southampton, England, October 24, 1868, and reached their destination November 11th. They made a careful trigonometrical survey of Jebel Musa and Jebel Subal, on a scale of six inches to the mile, and of the east of the Sinaitic peninsula, on a scale of two inches to the mile. They made copies and obtained impressions of about 2,500 of the Sinaitic inscriptions, of which twelve or fifteen were bilingual, or written in the Arabic and Greek characters, apparently by the same hand. There are also a few hieroglyphic inscriptions, which seem unconnected with the others. The results of this exploration must be important as determining the possible routes of the Israelites after leaving Egypt, and, unless there is evidence of material change in the topography of the country, the only mountain site which fulfils all the conditions required for Mount Sinai. The expedition, having completed its work, returned to England in May, 1869, and Mr. Palmer has since been engaged in deciphering the inscriptions which, it is believed, will throw much light on the subject. Among the objects of their incidental investigation was the famous *Jebel Nakûs*, or "Mountain of the Bell," an object of superstitious regard by the Arabs. The musical sounds produced at irregular intervals on that mountain, the explorers ascertained, were caused by the loose and sharp grains of sand becoming suddenly dislodged and striking against each other as they rushed down the slope of the mountain, and producing a ringing sound.

The labors of the *Palestine* Exploration Fund Committee were also conducted assiduously during a part of the year, and resulted in laying bare at a depth of from 80 to 106 feet portions of the walls of the city and temple, indicating, by their size, form, and inscriptions, the various epochs to which they belonged. The vast monolithic stones of the old Jebusite fortress, the huge but more highly-finished stones forming the walls erected by Solomon, the subterranean chambers and aqueducts of Hezekiah, the walls as rebuilt by Zerubbabel and Nehemiah, the grand foundations and substructures of Herod, the Roman, the Saracen, the Christian, and the Ottoman city, have each been made manifest in these explorations. The permission to explore within the temple area is still withheld, but the

results already obtained are such as to throw much light on Biblical literature and science.

Turkey in Asia.—Mr. John George Taylor, British consul at Erzeroom, explored, in the beginning of 1869, the region around the northern extremity of Lake Van, and the sources of the Euphrates, a region which no European traveller in modern times has visited. He found it a volcanic country, with one volcano, the Soondulik Dagh, or Oven Mountain, in a state of active eruption. This mountain is not laid down on the maps. There are numerous sulphur geysers, too hot for the hand, bursting with a slight explosion, and sending up a column of steam and sulphurous vapor, surrounding the Murad Su, or Euphrates, which, at this point, flows through a natural tunnel, and the sulphurous waters rush down the rocks and fall into its limpid stream as it emerges from the tunnel. Below, it has cut for itself a deep cañon through the basaltic rocks of the Ala Dagh, while, on the small plateau above, stands the town of Diadeen. Rev. Dr. H. J. Van Lannep, an Armenian by birth, but educated in the United States, and for many years past a missionary of the American Board to his own countrymen, has published, within a few months, a volume entitled "Travels in Little-known Parts of Asia Minor, with Illustrations of Biblical Literature and Researches in Archæology," which is a most valuable contribution to the geography of that region. Since the publication of Thomson's "The Land and the Book," no work of equal value with this in relation to "Bible Lands" has appeared. His careful and protracted explorations for thirty years have been rewarded by the discovery of the most valuable archæological and mythological treasures. In the *Caucasus*, three young Englishmen, Messrs. D. W. Freshfield, Tucker, and Moore, members of the Alpine Club, accompanied by one of the Chamounix guides in the summer of 1868, ascended two of the loftiest peaks of the Caucasus range, Kasbek, 16,546 feet high, and Elbruz, the monarch of the range, 18,526 feet in height, being the first Europeans who had accomplished this very difficult feat. They found, on the slopes at the foot of Elbruz, a remarkable race, the Ossetes, of great personal beauty, and speaking a language closely allied to the Sanscrit. Other small tribes within a limited area speak fifty or sixty different languages, remnants perhaps of the Babel confusion of tongues. Some of the villages of Suanetia, in the upper valley of the Ingur, at the base of Elbruz, are composed of outlaws who had fled from their own countrymen in consequence of their crimes, from whose lawless violence the travellers were in great danger.

Near the close of 1869, Prof. Raphael Pumpelly, a mining engineer and geologist, now professor in Harvard University, who had spent the five years 1860–'65 in explorations in Arizona, Japan, China, Mongolia, and Siberia, published a narrative of his explorations under the title of "Across America and Asia." The volume is one of great interest, and his geological discoveries and surveys in Yesso, and in the coal-districts of China, as well as in Mangolia and Siberia, which had been previously furnished to the Smithsonian Institute and published in one of their volumes, throw great light upon the physical geography of these countries. He saw much of the Ainos or hairy men of Japan, and gives interesting particulars in regard to their character, habits, etc.

The most interesting of all the geographical explorations which have been made known to the world in 1869 was that of the French Exploring Expedition up the Me-Kong or Cambodia River, in *Cambodia* or *Cochin China*. This expedition, which left Saigan, the capital of the French colony in Cambodia, June 5, 1866, and, after two years of great hardship, arrived at Shanghai, China, June 12, 1868, was composed of Captain Doudard de la Grée, of the French navy, Lieutenant Francis Garnier, Doctors Joubert and Thorel, Ensign Delaporte, and M. de Carné, a consular *attaché*. The chief of the expedition, Captain de la Grée, died, after a protracted illness, at Tongchuan, in Yunnan, China, March 12, 1868, and Lieutenant Garnier, who had been for some time conducting a separate branch of the exploration, took charge of the whole from that time. The party ascended the Me-Kong by water wherever it was navigable, and, where it was not, marched along its banks till they reached Muang-Yung, longitude about 98° E. from Paris, latitude 22° N., 2,000 feet above the sea-level, and within the limits of the kingdom of Burmah, which extends east at this point to the boundary of the empire of Anam, where they turned toward the northeast, and, crossing the Me-Kong (here called the Kin-Long-Kiang) at Kieng-hong, entered China, and made their way to Yunnan, the capital of the province of that name, situated on a small lake 6,000 feet above the sea. They arrived here in December, 1867, eighteen months after their departure from Saigon. From Yunnan they marched to Tong-chu-an-fŭ, a considerable city near the right bank of the Yang-tse-Kiang, which they reached early in January, 1868. Here Captain de la Grée, who had been long in bad health, became too ill to be able to go on, and Lieutenant Garnier, after consulting with him, determined to take a part of the company and make an effort to reach Tali-fŭ, in Tsse-Chuan, the capital and headquarters of the great Mohammedan rebellion against the Chinese Government. Tali-fŭ was a city of great importance, on the direct highway between Bhamo, the head of steam navigation on the Irrawady and the great Chinese cities on the upper Yang-tse-Kiang. The attempt to reach it was a hazardous one; the territory between Tali-fŭ and Tong-chu-an-fre was the great battle-ground between the contending parties, and the Mohammedans were at this time terribly incensed against the

imperial troops. No safe-conduct would be respected. But the daring young French lieutenant braved all dangers, and with his little company marched westward on the 31st of January, and, taking a circuitous route to avoid marauding parties, came to the highlands overlooking Tali-fû, after a wearisome and perilous journey, on the 29th of February. Here they were detained for a few days till the Sultan's will could be ascertained respecting them. They were finally permitted to enter the city, and marched to the palace, where the insults of the mob nearly led to retaliation and their destruction. The Sultan at first received them favorably, but a few hours later sent them orders to leave the city the next day, and seemed resolved to find a pretext for putting them to death. Nothing but the resolute firmness and decision of Lieutenant Garnier saved them from being brutally murdered. Making their escape as rapidly as possible, aided by a Catholic missionary whom they found in the mountains, they reached Tong-chuan-fû to find their chief dead. Disinterring his body, they made the best of their way with it to Siû-Chiû-fû, the nearest port on the Yang-tse-Kiang, and embarked there for Shanghai, from whence they returned to France. The whole distance travelled from Cratich, the village on the Me-King, which was their real point of departure, to Shanghai, was 5,392 miles, of which 3,625 were surveyed with care, and the positions in the unknown parts rectified by astronomical observations. They found the plateau, in which the five rivers we have already named take their rise, only about 240 miles wide. It is between 28° and 30° N. latitude, and forms the southeast slope of the great plateau of Thibet.

10. AUSTRALASIA offers little in the way of new discovery during the year 1869. A new expedition in search of Leechardt set out from Melbourne in May or June, 1869, but they have not yet been heard from. An expedition (the third) also set out in December, 1868, to explore the interior from Northern Australia. The interior of the continent is gradually becoming known, and the old ideas of its terrible drought and desolation are dying out. It is a vast basin, like Central Africa and our own Great Salt Lake Basin, most of the rivers of which do not find their way to the sea, but are swallowed up in the sands. Hence there are extensive salt lakes, and soda deposits, and in a dry season a terrible drought, but water is at no time very far below the surface, and these lands will, with proper care and the sinking of artesian wells, eventually prove fertile, and excellent both for grains and pasturage.

11. AFRICA offers far less than usual of interest to the geographer during the past year. The gleanings of science, from the explorations connected with the Abyssinian War, are still spread before the public, and Abyssinia, from being an almost unknown, has become perhaps the best known (after Egypt) of the African states. Dr. Livingstone's letters, though unsatisfactory, seem to imply that the Tanganyika, and another large lake west of it, perhaps an unexpected extension of the Albert Nyanza southward, will prove to be the sources of the Nile. But we shall know more definitely what he has discovered if, as there is reason to hope, he emerges from his long tour of exploration either on the west coast, or on the lower Nile.

In the region lying between the *Zambesi* and the *Limpopo*, Carl Mauch's gold-fields are still attracting attention, though the difficulties of the route thither are sufficient to deter any but the hardiest observers. The full narrative of Mr. St. Vincent Erskine's discovery of the mouth of the Limpopo and its course from its junction with its great affluent, the Lipaluli, has been received, and the journey appears to have been one of great peril and suffering, but happily a successful one. The mouth of the river was found in latitude 25° 15′ 19″ (the mean of two observations) south, and about the 34th meridian of east longitude from Greenwich.

Mosilikatse, the formidable chief of the Matabele, a Kaffir ruler whose name was a word of terror across the whole breadth of the continent in South Central Africa, died in the beginning of 1869, and his son Kuruman, a man of less ability, but also, it is said, less sanguinary disposition, has succeeded him.

Carl Mauch, the German geographer and explorer, has set out on an expedition from South Africa northward to Egypt. His past success in dealing with the natives encourages some hope that he may be successful in his long and perilous journey. The French during the years 1867 and 1868 employed one of the vessels of their African squadron in exploring the region of the Gabûn, and penetrated for a considerable distance up the Ogowai. The result of their explorations beyond defining the course of the Ogowai, and some brief notice of the Fans and other tribes, already described by Du Chaillu and Winwood Reade, does not seem to have been of particular interest. The latter explorer went out again in May, 1868, to endeavor to explore the course of the Niger and the mountainous region lying back from the *Gold Coast*. He was thwarted in his endeavors to reach his destination by way of Lagos or Whydah, and went to *Sierra Leone*, from whence he penetrated 400 miles into the interior, and reached the Niger, or Quorra River. He then returned to Sierra Leone, and, descending the coast to Monrovia, *Liberia*, started January 14, 1870, for Boporah, a large Mandingo town in the interior, accompanied by Prof. Blyden, and some other Liberians.

Gerhard Rohlfs has again been exploring some of the oases of the Sahara, and the Berber lands.

The opening of the Suez Canal, an important geographical event, is elsewhere described in this volume. (*See* EGYPT.)

GEORGIA. The State of Georgia was duly readmitted to its place in the Union by an Act of Congress, in the year 1868, and its constitution, with certain changes, was approved by that body. The Legislature subsequently expelled from their seats all its colored members (*see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868), and it was claimed by the most earnestsupporters of the reconstruction acts that, by so doing, it had violated the guarantees req ired of the State by Congress. No person exhibited a more decided disapproval of the course which had been pursued in the General Assembly than Rufus B. Bullock, the Governor of the State. No sooner had Congress assembled on the 7th of December, 1868, than that official submitted a communication in which he declared that "the laws under which the State of Georgia was to have been admitted to representation in Congress have not been fully executed;" and proceeded to give his reasons for making this statement. The government, he said, was merely provisional at the time of the assembling of the Legislature in 1868, and the law, therefore, required "that such persons only as were eligible under the reconstruction acts should be permitted to participate in the necessary provisional legislation precedent to recognition as a State." He continued in the following strain:

> The fact, however, is, that all the candidates for the General Assembly who had received the highest number of votes were, without regard to their eligibility under the law, permitted to take seats in the provisional legislative body, and to participate in the organization and the legislation thereof—having first been simply invited to take an oath prescribed in the new constitution, which constitution had not at that time become, and, under law could not then be, of force.
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> The result of this failure to execute the law has been a defeat of the purposes which Congress had in view when passing the acts—these purposes having been the establishment of a loyal and republican State government, affording adequate protection to life and property, the maintenance of peace and good order, and the free expression of political opinion.
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> The wise discernment displayed by Congress, in requiring by its legislation that none but those who were loyal should participate in the establishment of a provisional government which was thereafter to be clothed with the rights and immunities of a State in the Union, charged with the care and protection of the lives and property, and the civil and political rights of its citizens, is made the more apparent by the consequences which have ensued from this failure in the enforcement of that legislation.
>
> I would, therefore, respectfully invite the attention of your honorable body to this subject, and ask that such steps be taken as may to you seem wise and proper for the obtaining of full information in relation thereto; and to the end that loyalty may be protected and promoted by the enforcement of the laws enacted by the representatives of the American people.

This subject received the immediate attention of both Houses of Congress. Senator Pomeroy, of Kansas, introduced a bill into the Senate providing for the reassembling of the Constitutional Convention of Georgia—which had adjourned for one year, subject to being called together if Congress should require any thing further in relation to reconstruction—this convention then to be required to insert in the constitution a qualification for holding office in the State which should not be in conflict with the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. After some discussion as to the effect of the omission of the convention to make any provision on the subject of office-holding, this bill was referred to the Judiciary Committee. In the House of Representatives the whole subject went to the Reconstruction Committee, who took a large amount of testimony with regard to the state of affairs in Georgia. It was contended on the one hand that the laws were not faithfully executed by the officers of the State, and that they were resisted by the people; that the colored people, and persons belonging to the Republican party, especially those coming from the North, were abused and ill-treated; and, finally, that the people did not show a desire for peace and union. On the other hand, Hon. Nelson Tift, one of the representatives of Georgia in Congress, obtained the testimony of over one hundred persons, mostly judges of courts, mayors of cities, and other officials, to the effect that the laws of the State were faithfully executed, and were not resisted by the people; that the treatment of blacks and Northern white men was kind and conciliatory; and that there was a universal desire for peace and restoration to the Union.

On being asked his opinion as to what should be done, Governor Bullock said that there should be a literal execution of the reconstruction acts, and, in his opinion, these acts required the organization of the Legislature to be made by the admission of those only who could take the test-oath, or had been relieved of their disabilities by Congress. This, he said, would restore the colored members, and place the Legislature of the State in the hands of loyal men, and then "after the adoption by such a body of the fundamental condition, precedent to the State's admission to the Union, under the act of June 25th, all members eligible under the State constitution and the fourteenth amendment would be admitted, and no further action by Congress would be necessary."

While the subject was still in the hands of the Reconstruction Committee, the Hon. Nelson Tift submitted to that body a long statement regarding the condition of affairs in Georgia, which was intended to combat the position taken by Governor Bullock in his first communication to that committee, and his subsequent testimony. He declared that the laws of Congress for the reconstruction and admission of Georgia had been complied with in every particular. In proof of this, he referred to the election for delegates to the convention to form a constitution, the meeting and action of that convention, the adoption of the constitution, and the election of officers by the people, the organization of the Legislature, the striking out of certain sections of the constitution in accordance with the expressed will of Congress, the

adoption of the fourteenth amendment, the inauguration of the Governor, the announcement of the withdrawal of the military, and the restoration of civil law, and the proclamation of the President certifying the compliance of the State with the conditions prescribed by Congress for her admission to representation, "all in perfect accordance with the letter and spirit of the law;" and finally, the unanimous assent of the House of Representatives to the fact that reconstruction was accomplished in Georgia by the admission of her representatives to seats in the House. With regard to the non-exaction of the test-oath at the organization of the Legislature, he showed that it was omitted on the authority of General Meade, after consultation with General Grant, and declared that, if any person had been admitted in violation of the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, the remedy was "not the destruction of the State government by Congress; not retaliatory laws which shall deprive the whole people of Georgia of their rights under the Constitution, but evidently such proper enforcement of the Constitution and laws as will remove such members as are ineligible under the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution." On the subject of the expulsion of the negro members, he said that "neither the reconstruction acts, nor the civil rights bill, nor the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution, require any State to provide that colored citizens shall be eligible to office;" that the constitution of the State was silent on the subject, and the members of the Legislature had decided that it was necessary that this right should be conferred on those who were born slaves before they could exercise it. If they were wrong, the only proper remedy for this and all similar evils was to be found in the ballot and the courts. He then took up the subject of resistance to law and the treatment of citizens, and referred to the testimony which he had gathered and submitted to the Reconstruction Committee to show that order and a desire for peace prevailed. His conclusions are summed up as follows:

An examination of all the facts shows: 1. That the law of Congress recognizes Georgia as a State in the Union, entitled to representation in Congress, and of necessity having equal rights with other States.

2. That the action of the Legislature, in their decision that colored men were not, under the constitution and laws of Georgia, eligible to office, was a question confided to their jurisdiction by the constitution, so far as members of the Legislature were concerned; and, if they have committed an error in their judgment, it can only be properly corrected by the court, whose judgment, when pronounced, will be the law.

3. That, according to the most reliable official testimony, the condition of affairs in Georgia, considering the circumstances which have surrounded the people, and the trials through which they have passed, is better than the most ardent friend of peace could have expected, and is still improving.

This document drew forth a reply from Governor Bullock, addressed to the chairman and members of the Reconstruction Committee, and dated on the 26th of February. In this he reiterated the statements made by himself before the committee, and accused Mr. Tift of misrepresenting his motives and his language. His only object was, he said, "to secure a loyal civil government" for the State. Mr. Tift saw fit to follow with a response to the Governor's letter, in which he quoted from the testimony before the Reconstruction Committee to sustain his view of the motives and objects of that official, and elaborated at greater length some of the points set forth in his first communication.

While this subject still remained in the hands of the Reconstruction Committee, the term of the Fortieth Congress expired, and the Forty-first was duly organized on the 4th day of March. Meantime, the Senators elected by the Georgia Legislature had presented themselves for admission, and their credentials had been referred to the Judiciary Committee, who reported adversely to their claims. The question of counting the electoral vote of the State also came up, and, after some acrimonious debate, was disposed of. (*See* CONGRESS, U. S.)

The representatives chosen at the same election at which the constitution was ratified had been admitted to the Fortieth Congress on the 25th of July, 1868; but, although it was generally understood in the State that they were elected also for the full term commencing March 4, 1869, it was not so stated in their credentials, and they were not allowed to retain their seats in the Forty-first Congress, so that after the organization of that body the State was again wholly without representatives in the Federal Government.

A bill was finally reported in Congress by B. F. Butler, chairman of the Reconstruction Committee, on the 7th of April, "to enforce the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution and the laws of the United States, and to restore the State of Georgia to the republican government elected under its new constitution." The preamble of this bill declared that the Legislature of the State of Georgia, elected under its new constitution preparatory to the restoration of the State to its place in the Union, had, in violation of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, refused "to purge itself of members" who were prohibited from acting as such by that amendment; that a majority of the persons, in fact, composing that Legislature, had, in violation of the Constitution of the United States, and the constitution of the State of Georgia, and in violation of the fundamental principles upon which Congress had consented to her restoration to the Union, expelled a large number of its legally-qualified members, upon the sole ground that they were persons of African blood, and admitted to their places persons who had not received a majority of the votes of the people; and that it appeared that the local authorities in the State were

wholly unable or unwilling to protect the lives, liberties, and property of unoffending citizens from lawless violence, and had refrained, purposely or for want of power, from bringing offenders to justice, whereby it fully appeared that the people of the State had not complied with the terms, or conformed to the principles upon which its restoration was provided for, and that the government thereof was not, in fact, republican or regular. The body of the bill contained much the same provisions as those contained in the bill passed at the next session of Congress, and given in full below. The present bill, after some debate, was postponed until December. The principal speech, in opposition to the bill, was made by Mr. Beck, of Kentucky, who recapitulated the history of reconstruction in Georgia, and endeavored to show that the law had been fully complied with, and the State once admitted to the exercise of all her functions as a member of the Federal Union. After her restoration had been thus consummated, the course which she had pursued was a matter wholly within her discretion, and formed no stronger ground for "destroying or annulling her State Legislature by congressional action" than a similar course in any other State would give Congress a right to disperse the Legislature and put a military Governor over her. He then attacked the specific provisions of the bill itself, and reflected severely on the motives which prompted Governor Bullock and others to urge a measure of this character. Other speeches were made by Mr. Voorhees and Mr. Bingham, and it was on motion of the latter gentleman that the postponement of the matter was effected.

Soon after the question of completing the reconstruction of Georgia had been brought fully to the attention of Congress, the Legislature of the State assembled at Atlanta in the new building furnished by the city for the purpose. On the first day of the session (January 13th), the Governor submitted a message in which he gave an account of his proceedings at Washington, and his reasons therefor, and reiterated his views on the subject of the reconstruction of the State. His own examination of the reconstruction acts, he said, led him to the following conclusions:

1. Until the full recognition by Congress of Georgia as a State in the Union, there can be no authority for government within her territorial limits except that derived from the laws of the United States.

2. This authority for government is found in the laws known as the reconstruction acts of Congress.

3. The terms and conditions upon which Georgia was to have been admitted as a State are prescribed in the law of June 25, 1868, entitled "An Act to admit," etc.

4. There being nothing in that act which repealed or annulled the requirements previously enacted as to eligibility, those terms and conditions could be legally adopted only by a legislative assembly organized under and by virtue of the laws of the United States then in force, and by a body whose members were eligible under the acts of March 2 and July 19, 1867.

5. Until said terms and conditions should be adopted by such a legislative body as that referred to, the new constitution could have no vitality as fundamental law.

6. In the act of March 7, 1867, the following condition was prescribed for persons holding office under the provisional government:

"* * * no person shall be eligible to any office under any such provisional governments who would be disqualified from holding office under the third article of said fourteenth amendment."

7. That this restriction was not by Congress considered sufficiently comprehensive to insure the establishment of State governments in harmony with its policy, is made manifest by the fact that the following still more restrictive provision was embodied in the supplemental reconstruction act, which became a law on the 19th of July, 1867:

"*And be it further enacted*, * * * That all persons hereafter elected or appointed to office in said military districts, under any so-called State or municipal authority, or by detail or appointment of the district commander, shall be required to take and subscribe the oath of office prescribed by law for officers of the United States."

8. Congress is the sole final interpreter of the true intents and meaning of the reconstruction acts, and the arbiter upon questions of execution. General Grant to General Ord, June 26, 1867: * * * "The law, however, makes the district commanders their own interpreters of their power and duty under it; and in my opinion the Attorney-General and myself can do no more than give our opinion as to the meaning of the laws; neither can enforce his views against the judgment of those made responsible for the faithful execution of the law—the district commanders." Also General Meade to General Grant, July 18, 1868: "My judgment, therefore, is to acquiesce in the decision of the Senate, and leave to Congress such action as may hereafter be deemed proper in case the Senate failed to comply with the law."

His plan for finishing the work of reconstruction was then duly set forth in substantially the same terms which he had used in recommending it to the Reconstruction Committee. He concluded with an urgent recommendation that the Legislature itself take the initiative in the matter, and aid in the consummation of the congressional policy. "Restore the colored members to their seats," he urged; "and exclude every person from participation in your legislation who took an official oath to support the Government of the United States, and afterward gave aid or comfort to the enemies thereof, until such person shall have been relieved by Congress of the disability thus incurred—bearing in mind that the only relief from such disability is found in the action of two-thirds of each House of Congress, and cannot be accomplished by the individual opinion of the person affected that the aid or comfort was not voluntarily afforded." He furthermore suggested that, if these recommendations did not find favor with the members, they should take such action as they might deem proper on the same, and then adjourn until some convenient time in midsummer, leaving the whole matter with Congress, where, if not satisfactorily adjusted by ourselves, the question must be finally disposed of." Neither of these recommendations was heeded by the Legislature, which proceeded to the regular work of the session as if nothing had happened, and passed no less than one hundred and

eighty-eight laws and twenty-nine joint resolutions before adjourning in the early part of April. A large proportion of these acts were for the incorporation of railroads and manufacturing companies, and for the promotion of the material interests of the State.

Among the more important measures of the session was a general jury law, an act to encourage immigration, the tax levy of the year, and an act in relation to the statute of limitation. An act was also passed changing the fiscal year so as to make it correspond precisely with the calendar year; and another, prohibiting the sale of intoxicating liquors on election days within one mile of the city, town, or precinct where elections may be held, under a penalty of fifty dollars' fine or ten days' imprisonment for each offence.

The law for the encouragement of immigration provides for the election by the General Assembly of a domestic and a foreign commissioner, who shall hold office for two years, and "devote themselves to the encouragement of the immigration of good citizens, laborers, artisans, mechanics, etc., and to the investment of capital in lands." They are also required to prepare and circulate such publications as they may deem advisable, tending to promote the object contemplated, and to keep records of lands for sale, and of such other information as may be important for their purposes. The foreign commissioner is required to spend from one to two years in Europe for the purpose of encouraging and facilitating immigration into the State from that quarter. A report is to be made to the Governor, concerning the results of the plan at the end of one year, and ten thousand dollars were appropriated for carrying it into operation. This act did not receive the approval of the Governor, but became a law by lapse of time, and Colonel George N. Lester was elected domestic commissioner and Samuel Weil, Esq., foreign commissioner.

The act in relation to the statute of limitations had reference to the law of 1868, in which it was provided that in all cases arising out of transactions which took place prior to June 1, 1865, the destruction or loss of the property upon which credit was given may be put in evidence, and the debt reduced by the jury according to the equities of the case. (*See* CYCLOPÆDIA, 1868.) The constitutionality of that law had been brought in question on the ground that it impaired the obligation of contracts, and in a case before the Supreme Court, in January, each of the three judges on the bench gave an opinion on the question, two of which were in favor of the constitutionality of the law, and one against it. On account of the doubt which continued to exist with regard to the constitutionality of the law of 1868, the Legislature at this session passed an act which required that all suits arising out of transactions prior to June 1, 1865, should be brought before January 1, 1870, or be forever barred. All cases arising out of transactions since the 1st of June, 1865, are governed by the old statute of limitations of the Code of Georgia.

Several acts of the session were vetoed by the Governor. One of these, "An Act to incorporate the town of Parkerville," was returned without his approval, on the ground that it would "enforce what was commonly known many years since in Georgia as the 'Algerine Law,' or establish a universality of election without regard to age or sex, and based simply on the ownership of property." The provision referred to limited the right to vote for the officers of the proposed town to the owners of lots therein. "It is to be sincerely regretted," said the Governor, "that a measure of this extraordinary character, and so flagrantly violative of the letter and spirit of our constitution, and antagonistic to the principles of republican government, should have received the approval of the respective committees and a majority of the members of each House of the General Assembly."

An act to amend the act of incorporation of the town of Jonesboro was also vetoed. This provided that "all persons who, under the laws of this State, are entitled to vote for members of the General Assembly, and who have resided for three consecutive months immediately preceding the election in the corporate limits of the town, shall vote, and none other;" and also that "no one shall be deemed eligible to hold office in said town who is not eligible to a seat in the State Legislature." On these points the Governor said:

> The constitution of the State guarantees the elective franchise to all citizens who have resided within this State six months, and within the county in which they propose to vote thirty days preceding the election. This section is therefore in conflict with the constitution. As there is no distinction made by the constitution on account of race or color, as to the eligibility of citizens to hold office, and as the Legislature has assumed to decide the question of eligibility as to its own membership in an opposite direction, the enactment of a law prescribing eligibility to office in a municipal government, based upon the decision of the Legislature as to membership, would seem to be inconsistent with the guarantees of the constitution."

The fifteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, which was submitted to the Legislatures of the several States by a vote of both Houses of Congress on the 26th of March, was presented to the Legislature of Georgia for its action by Governor Bullock near the close of the session. In his message on this occasion the Governor began by saying:

> It is especially gratifying to learn, as I do from the published proceedings of your honorable body, that senators and representatives, who have heretofore acted with a political organization which adopted as one of its principles a denunciation of the acts of a Republican Congress as unconstitutional, revolutionary, and void, should now give expression to their anxious desire to lose no time in embracing this opportunity of ratifying one of the fundamental principles of the Republican party, as herein proposed,

by a joint resolution of a Republican Congress; and I very much regret that the preparation necessary for a proper presentation of this subject to your honorable body has necessarily caused a short delay, and thereby prolonged the suspense of those who are so anxious to concur.

This amendment is specially designed to secure political privileges to the colored man; and whether its ratification by a General Assembly, which has already violently wrested from him privileges to which he was constitutionally entitled in this State, will be recognized as valid by the power proposing it, unless accompanied by a reversal of the action by which those privileges were denied, is a question which we will not delay here to consider—

and closed with these words:

The ratification of this amendment by your honorable body, and a recognition of its requirements as here indicated, together with those of the fourteenth amendment—which are as yet disregarded—will, I sincerely hope and confidently believe, secure for us full and complete recognition as a State, definitely settle our political differences, and set at rest, finally and forever, the feeling of uncertainty and insecurity which now excites and disturbs a large portion of our people.

The amendment was nevertheless rejected by a vote of 16 to 13 in the Senate, although the House voted to ratify (64 to 58).

While the Legislature was in session a difficulty occurred between the Governor and the State Treasurer, Mr. N. L. Angier, arising out of the financial transactions of the former. This affair attracted considerable attention in the State, and was commented on in Congress as constituting one of the causes which prompted Gov. Bullock in his attempt to get rid of the existing Legislature. In the fall of 1868 the State had entered into a contract with the Fourth National Bank of New York to place in the hands of the officers of that institution a large amount of bonds as collateral securities for advances to be made to the State Treasury. Money was obtained on this contract from time to time, and, after the bonds were issued, still further amounts were obtained by their hypothecation. The whole amount of the bonds issued and sent to the Fourth National Bank of New York, either as security or to be sold, was $600,000. On the 20th of January a resolution was adopted in the House of Representatives, calling on the Treasurer for full information regarding this loan and the money which had been obtained thereon. In his response on the following day, Mr. Angier said, that in the statement of the matter by the bank, which he had received on the 9th instant, that institution had credited itself with a large amount which he knew nothing about, and which had never reached the Treasury. On receiving this statement of the account, he had immediately set out for New York to get a full explanation, and found that Governor Bullock had drawn $35,000, which had never been paid or reported to the Treasury.

As soon as this report was made public, Governor Bullock submitted a counter-statement, in which he said he had been obliged to advance $35,000 to secure the completion of the new capitol building at Atlanta in time for the use of the Legislature, and had drawn for the purpose on the bank in New York. He was prepared to make a full statement of the matter to the Treasurer before the meeting of the Legislature, when he found that officer had gone away to New York. On his return he explained it fully, and wished Mr. Angier to submit his report in reply to the resolution of January 20th to him before it went to the House of Representatives, in order that the matter might be fully exhibited. This was not done; but the Treasurer made his statements, although he was "entirely advised as to the whole matter."

The subject was referred to the Financial Committee of the House for investigation, and that body proceeded to receive the full statement of both the officials concerned, to inquire into the necessity of the expenditures on the new capitol building, and to examine the precedents with regard to the authority of Governor Bullock to make advances of money in the way in which he had made them. In his statement to the committee, Mr. Angier cast still more serious imputations upon the integrity of the Governor, and intimated that he had used the public funds for private purposes. Mr. Bullock, on the other hand, gave a full explanation of his course, and complained that the Treasurer had refused to pay his warrants on various occasions with captiousness and a want of proper respect for the Executive of the State. Two reports were submitted by the committee on the 15th of February. The majority thought that Governor Bullock had committed some errors of judgment, but expressed the belief that "his intentions were pure, and what he did was in good faith," though "without authority of law." They accordingly refused to make any recommendation, except, that the Judiciary Committee be instructed to prepare a bill defining more clearly the duties of the Governor and Treasurer, and giving the latter "exclusive power of negotiating State bonds, by and with the consent of the Governor." The minority report was more severe on the conduct of the Governor, and fully justified the course of Mr. Angier. It closed with a recommendation that no immediate appropriation be made to cover the expenses on the capitol, and that measures be adopted for the security of the Treasury. The minority report was adopted, but resulted in no important legislative action.

The facts with regard to the State capitol were these: When the Constitutional Convention of 1868 was in session, the city of Atlanta offered to furnish suitable buildings for the use of the State government for a period of ten years, provided the capital should be transferred to that place. This offer was accepted, and the city purchased the building known as Kimball's Opera-House for the use of the Legislature and the government offices, and entered into a contract with the former owners to

make such alterations as were necessary for the purpose. Provision was not made, however, for the proper heating, lighting and furnishing of the building, and a question arose as to whether that was included in the agreement of the city. Without waiting for the adjustment of this question, the Governor had authorized the necessary expenses and drawn upon the funds of the State to meet them, thinking that the amount would be repaid by the city, if it were finally determined that it came properly within its agreement with the Constitutional Convention. A joint committee of the General Assembly was afterward appointed to consult with the municipal authorities of Atlanta for the adjustment of the entire difficulty, but it does not appear that a conclusion was reached before the adjournment of the Legislature.

This misunderstanding between the Governor and Treasurer continued to be a source of embarrassment to both, and a somewhat bitter controversy was carried on between them throughout the summer. The following order was issued by the Governor on the 3d of June:

EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
ATLANTA, GA., *June* 3, 1869.

Whereas, N. L. Angier, State Treasurer, has assumed to repudiate the official acts of the Executive in connection with loans and drafts made in pursuance of law, with the Fourth National Bank of the city of New York, which bank was by me appointed financial agent under authority of a joint resolution of the General Assembly, approved October 3, 1868:

Now therefore, I, Rufus B. Bullock, Governor and commander-in-chief of the army and navy of this State, and of the militia thereof, do issue this Executive order, relieving and restraining the said Fourth National Bank, acting as such financial agent, from holding further official intercourse with the said N. L. Angier, Treasurer, and from recognizing any order issued by him, unless specially approved by me; and notifying and directing said bank that henceforth all correspondence and instructions relating to the said financial agent and its connection with this State shall be held with and received from this department only.

Given under my hand and the seal of the Executive Department at the Capitol, in the city of Atlanta, the day and year first above written.

RUFUS B. BULLOCK, Governor.

By the Governor:
EUGENE DAVIS, Sec'y Ex. Dept.

Thereupon Mr. Angier published a statement that he had not repudiated "loans made in pursuance of law," but merely labored to prevent the Treasury from being plundered and to sustain the credit of the State, and this he was determined to do, "regardless of the illegal injunction of His Excellency." He declared the course of the Governor in the use of the public funds to have been in violation of law, and expressed his belief that his object in issuing the present order was to get an opportunity "to draw upon the Fourth National Bank for more funds without authority, to be spent by him in violation of law, greatly to the detriment of the public good."

The Governor appealed to the Comptroller-General, Hon. Madison Bell, to know whether any Executive warrants had been approved by him which were in violation of law. The Comptroller having replied that he believed the Governor's warrants had been fully authorized, was drawn into an unprofitable controversy with Mr. Angier, which lasted several weeks. The only result of the correspondence was, to keep up a fruitless dispute and continue the financial embarrassment of the State.

The question of the right of a negro to hold office in the State of Georgia was settled by a judicial decision of the Supreme Court on the 22d of June. The Legislature had proposed, early in its session, to have this matter tested in the court, and adopted a joint resolution providing for the submission of a test case, but the Governor vetoed the resolution in a message in which he reflected on the legality of the existing government and its power to provide for any final settlement of the question. An actual case, however, soon came up in the county of Chatham, on the following state of facts: Richard W. White had been elected to the office of Clerk of the Superior Court in that county by a majority of the votes cast, and had been duly commissioned to perform the duties of the position. Thereupon William J. Clements, who had received the next highest number of votes, applied to the Superior Court for a writ of *quo warranto* against White, on the ground that he had more than one-eighth African blood in his veins. The latter was summoned to show cause why a *mandamus* should not issue depriving him of the office and putting Clements in his place. The case was tried before Justice Schley, and judgment passed deposing White from the office of Clerk of the Superior Court, and declaring that Clements was entitled to hold the position. The grounds of Judge Schley's decision were substantially the same as those set forth in the dissenting opinion of Judge Warner of the Supreme Court, alluded to below. The case was carried to the Supreme Court on a writ of error and the decision reversed, Mr. Justice McCay and Chief-Justice Brown concurring in the reversal, and Justice Warner dissenting. The two judges, who formed a majority of the court and concurred in granting the negro the right to hold office, did not, however, agree upon the grounds on which that judgment was based, and each read an opinion before the court, which, with the dissenting opinion of Judge Warner, may be regarded as containing the different views held on this important subject by the prominent men of the State.

Mr. Justice McCay set out with the statement that the constitution and laws of the State prior to the late war had nothing to do with the subject. "The constitution or frame of civil government in existence in this State on the 1st of January, 1861," he said, "with all its disabilities and restrictions, was totally submerged in the great revolution

which from 1861 to 1865 swept over the State. . . . . The convention of 1867 met under the laws of the United States, and was elected and composed in total disregard of all the provisions and presumptions, qualifications, disqualifications, and distinctions, of the old organization. The black people participated in its election and its composition, on equal terms, in theory at least, with the white, and nothing can to my mind be plainer than that, by the whole theory then acted upon, they were recognized as forming an integral part of the sovereign people, then assembled in convention to form for their common benefit a constitution and frame of civil government. Such being the facts of the case, it appears to me that this court, deriving its whole authority from the constitution then framed, and sworn to support it, is, from the very nature of the case, absolutely prohibited from recognizing, as then or now in force, either the constitution of 1860 or 1865, or any of the legal or political disabilities or distinctions among the people, dependent upon them or either of them."

He then announced his opinion that the right of the negro to hold office was guaranteed by the new constitution of the State, and laid down the following as the "general principles" on which that opinion was based:

1. The constitution of Georgia, known as the constitution of 1868, is a new constitution, made by, and formed for, a people who at the time were, by the facts of the case, and by the laws of the United States, without any legal civil government; and as the people of Georgia, without regard to past political distinctions, and without regard to distinctions of color, participated on equal terms in the election for the convention, and in its composition and deliberations, as well as in the final ratification of the constitution it framed—in the construction of that constitution, and in the investigation of what rights it guarantees or denies, such distinctions are equally to be ignored.

2. The rights of the people of this State, white and black, are not granted to them by the constitution thereof. The object and effect of that instrument is not to give, but to restrain, deny, regulate, and guarantee rights; and all persons recognized by that constitution as citizens of the State have equal legal and political rights, except as otherwise expressly declared.

3. It is the settled and uniform sense of the word "citizen," when used in reference to the citizens of the separate States of the United States, and to their rights as such citizens, that it describes a person entitled to every right, legal and political, enjoyed by any person in that State, unless there be some express exception, made by positive law, covering the particular person, or class of persons, whose rights are in question.

4. Words used in a statute, or constitution, have their ordinary signification, unless they be words of art, when they have the sense placed upon them by those skilled in the art, or unless their meaning be defined and fixed by law—in which latter case the legal meaning must prevail.

5. By the 1648th and 1649th sections of Irwin's Revised Code, it is expressly declared that among the rights of citizens is the right to hold office, and that all citizens are entitled to exercise all their rights as such, unless expressly prohibited by law; and, as the constitution of 1868 expressly adopted said code as the law of the State, when that constitution uses the word "citizen" it uses it in the sense put upon it by the express definition of the code it adopted.

6. Article 1st and section 2d of the constitution of 1868 expressly declares that all persons born in the United States, or naturalized therein, resident in this State, are citizens of this State, and, as the code adopted by the convention, in express terms, declares that among the rights of citizens is the right to hold office, a colored person born in the United States and resident in this State is, by that section of the constitution, guaranteed eligibility to office, except when otherwise prohibited.

7. Nor would the repeal of those sections of the code, or their alteration, deprive a colored person of the right thus guaranteed. Since it is a settled rule that it is not in the power of the legislature to divest a right or change a constitutional guarantee by altering the legal meaning of the word by which that guarantee was made.

8. The right to vote involves the right to be voted for, unless otherwise expressly provided, since it is not to be presumed, without an express enactment, that the principal is of less dignity or rights than the agent.

9. There being in the constitution of 1868 various special disqualifications of electors for particular offices, and four separate sections detailing disqualifications for any office, and a black skin not being mentioned as one of these disqualifications, under the rule that the expression, etc., of one thing, is the exclusion of others, persons of color, electors, are not disqualified from holding office.

10. There never has been in this State, at any period of its history, any denial in terms of the right to vote or to hold office, to colored persons as such. By the old law, they were either slaves or free persons of color, and these rights were denied them by declaring that they were not and could not be citizens of the State; and when article 1st, section 2d of the constitution of 1868, recognized them as citizens, the right to vote and to hold office, except as otherwise provided by the constitution, was, *ex vi termini*, also guaranteed to them.

11. Ineligibility to office involves not only the denial to the person claiming the place the right to be chosen, but, what is of far greater moment, the right of the selecting power to choose; and to make out a case of ineligibility, there must be such a state of affairs as established not only the want of power to be chosen, but a denial of power in the selecting power to choose.

12. The people of a State, in their collective capacity, have every right a political society can have, except such as they have conferred upon the United States, or some department of the State government, or have expressly denied to themselves by their constitution; and as the right to select a public officer is a political right, the people of that branch of the government clothed by the constitution with the power to choose, may select whomsoever it will, unless the right to choose a particular person, or class of persons, is expressly taken away by the constitution.

Chief-Justice Brown based his opinion entirely on the body of laws known as Irwin's Code, which had been adopted as the law of the State, so far as it was not inconsistent with the constitution of Georgia, or that of the United States. That code had divided the inhabitants of the State into four classes: citizens, residents, aliens, and colored persons; and on citizens only had it conferred the right to hold office. It had provided that "all citizens are entitled to exercise all their rights as such unless specially prohibited by law," and among those rights, that of holding office was enumerated. The judge then argued that the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution and the section of the State constitution

which declared that all persons born or naturalized in the United States, and resident in the State, were citizens of the State and entitled to all the privileges and immunities of citizens, simply transferred negroes to the category of citizens in the classification of the code, and clothed them with all the incidents of that new position. It was not necessary, he said, to inquire whether the privileges and immunities guaranteed to the colored race by the constitution of the State as well as that of the United States included political rights; "it cannot be questioned that both constitutions make them citizens. And I think," he concluded, "that it is very clear that the Code of Georgia upon which alone I base this opinion, which is binding upon all her inhabitants while of force, confers upon *all* her citizens the right to hold office, unless they are prohibited by some provision found in the code itself. I find no such prohibition in the code affecting the rights of this respondent. I am, therefore, of the opinion that the judgment of the court below is erroneous, and I concur in the judgment of reversal."

Mr. Justice Warner, in dissenting from the decision of the court, contended that the fact that the defendant had been made a citizen of the State, and invested with all the privileges and immunities of a citizen, did not give him the right to hold office. "The privileges and immunities of a citizen as such," he said, "are one thing, and his legal right to hold office as such citizen under the authority of the State is another and quite a different question." The authority to hold office must be conferred upon the citizen by some public law of the State, selecting those persons for that dignity "from that class of her citizens which in her judgment will best promote the general welfare of the State." He therefore concludes that the provisions of the State and Federal Constitutions guaranteeing to persons of color the privileges and immunities of citizens does not confer upon them the right to hold office. He then takes up the Code of Georgia and shows that it specifies certain classes of persons whom it declares to be citizens and certain other classes of persons whom it declares not to be citizens, among the latter all persons of color. The right to hold office is conferred upon all citizens as defined in the code itself, and therefore accrues to all those persons included in the classes enumerated as citizens and to no others. Since the adoption of the code, the defendant had been made a citizen entitled to the privileges and immunities of a citizen; but, in order to have the right to hold office, it must be conferred upon him by some affirmative enactment. He differed from a naturalized citizen, in this respect, from the fact that a naturalized citizen being a white man had a common-law right to hold office founded on immemorial usage, while no such right can be claimed for persons of color, they having but recently become entitled to citizenship and never having held office. "When a new class of persons are introduced into the body politic of the State," he said, "and made citizens thereof who cannot claim a common-law right to hold office therein, it is incumbent on them to show affirmatively that such right has been conferred upon them by some public law of the State, since they were made citizens thereof, to entitle them to have and enjoy such right." The conclusion of the opinion is in the following language:

> All male white citizens of the State, whether native-born or naturalized citizens (having the necessary legal qualifications), have a common-law right to hold office in this State; and, in order to deprive them of that common-law right, a prohibitory statute is necessary. A naturalized citizen had a common-law right to hold the office of President of the United States; hence, the prohibition in the Constitution of the United States. But, as colored citizens of the State, who have recently been made such, cannot claim a common-law right to hold office in the State, as no prohibitory statute is necessary to deprive them of a right which they never had under the common or statute law of the State, when, therefore, it is said that colored citizens have the right to hold office in the State, unless specially prohibited by law, it must be shown affirmatively that they had previously enjoyed that right. If they cannot show their right to hold office in the State, either under the common law, the constitution, or statutes of the State, the fact, that they are not specially prohibited from exercising a right which they never had, amounts to nothing, so far as investing them with the right to hold office is concerned. When, and where, and by what public law of the State, was the legal right to hold office therein conferred on the colored citizens thereof? If this question cannot be answered in the affirmative, and the legal authority under which the right is claimed cannot be shown, then the argument, that inasmuch as there is no special prohibition in the law against the right of colored citizens to hold office, falls to the ground. If there was no existing legal right to hold office to be prohibited, the fact that there is no prohibition does not confer such legal right. There was no legal necessity to prohibit that which did not exist.
>
> It is not the business or duty of courts to make the laws, but simply to expound and enforce existing laws, which have been prescribed by the supreme power of the State. After the most careful examination of this question, I am clearly of the opinion that there is no existing law of this State which confers the right upon the colored citizens there to hold office therein; and, consequently, that the defendant has no legal right to hold and exercise the duties of the office which he claims under her authority; and that the judgment of the court below overruling the demurrer should be affirmed.

The question of the validity of marriages between white and colored persons came up at the same session of the Supreme Court, and was decided in the negative, Chief-Justice Brown delivering the opinion of the court. Section 1707 of the Code of Georgia forever prohibits such marriages, and declares them null and void, and the constitution declares that "the social status of the citizen shall never be the subject of legislation." The effect of this provision of the constitution, in the opinion of Judge Brown, is to leave the social rights of the citizens just where it finds them, and to prohibit the repeal of existing laws on the subject. He believed it to be "one

of the wisest provisions in the constitution, as it excludes from the halls of the Legislature a question which was likely to produce more unprofitable agitation, wrangling, and contention, than any other subject within the whole range of their authority." The section of the code prohibiting intermarriages between the races, he said, "is neither inconsistent with, nor is it repealed by, the section of the Constitution now under consideration. It therefore stands upon the statute-book of the State forever prohibiting all such marriages, and declaring them to be null and void."

On the general policy of the law interdicting marriages between blacks and whites, Judge Brown said: "For myself, I do not hesitate to say that it is dictated by wise statesmanship, and has a broad and solid foundation in enlightened policy, sustained by sound reason and common-sense. The amalgamation of the races is not only unnatural, but is always productive of deplorable results. Our daily observation shows us that the offspring of these unnatural connections are generally sickly and effeminate, and that they are inferior in physical development and strength to the full blood of either race. It is sometimes urged that such marriages should be encouraged for the purpose of elevating the inferior race. The reply is, that such connections never elevate the inferior race to the position of the superior, but they bring down the superior to that of the inferior. They are productive of evil and evil only, without any corresponding good."

With regard to the state of society in Georgia during the year, and the alleged outrages and political assassinations within its limits, it is difficult to arrive at the actual facts in consequence of the conflicting statements which have been made and the absence of well authenticated instances. Outrages and disorders have been continually alleged by those who desired to have further congressional action for the reconstruction of the State, and as persistently denied by those who were opposed to this movement. At all events they formed a considerable part of the ground on which Governor Bullock urged the reopening of the subject by the Federal Government, and on which the Forty-first Congress based its measures for the "completion of reconstruction."

The following letter was addressed to the President by a well-known Northern Senator:

NATICK, MASS., *May* 14, 1869.

DEAR SIR: Can nothing be done to stop the outrages in Georgia? These political murders should cease. Nothing animated the people more in the canvass than the idea that the rebel outrages should be stopped. They were checked much by your election; still they go on, and many of our best friends say that we do nothing to stop them, and that we rather say nothing about them. I fear that unless something is done many of our most devoted friends will grow dissatisfied. Cannot a proclamation in regard to Georgia be issued? Cannot these criminals be caught by the army and punished? I am sure something should be attempted. Martial law is this day needed in that, the worst of all the States, for the security of the friends of the country.

Yours truly,

HENRY WILSON.

This letter was referred to General Sherman, and by him sent to General Terry, at that time commanding the Department of the South, for a "thorough investigation and report." After making the necessary investigations, General Terry submitted a report to the Lieutenant-General on the 14th of August. He had, he stated, "reluctantly come to the conclusion that the situation here demands the interposition of the national Government, in order that life and property may be protected, the freedom of speech and political action secured, and the rights and liberties of freedmen maintained." This opinion, he said, was based upon complaints made to him, "reports of officers detached to investigate the alleged outrages, and upon the statements of many persons of respectability and high position from different parts of the State." The following paragraphs contain the substance of his statements on the subject, but no instances are given of the outrages and abuses alleged:

In many parts of the State there is practically no government; the worst of crimes are committed, and no attempt is made to punish those who commit them. Murders have been and are frequent, and the abuse in various ways of blacks is too common to excite notice. There can be no doubt of the existence of numerous insurrectionary organizations known as the "Ku-klux Klans," who, shielded by their disguise, by the secrecy of their movements, and by the terror which they inspire, perpetrate crimes with impunity. There is a great reason to believe that in some cases local magistrates are in sympathy with members of these organizations. In many places they are overawed by them, and dare not attempt to punish them. To punish such offenders by civil proceedings would be a difficult task, even were magistrates in all cases disposed, and had they courage to do their duty, for the same influences which govern them equally affect juries and witnesses. * * * That very many of the crimes which have been committed have no political bearing, I believe; that some of them were prompted by political animosity, and that most of the numerous outrages upon freedmen result from hostility to the race, induced by their enfranchisement, I think cannot be controverted.

The same difficulties which beset the prosecution of criminals are encountered by the negroes, who seek redress for civil injuries in local courts. Magistrates dare not do their duty toward them, and instances are not wanting where it has even been beyond the power of a magistrate to protect a negro plaintiff from violence in his own presence, while engaged in the trial of his case.

After stating that the majority of the people did not approve of these proceedings, and that the Governor and judges of the Superior Courts were ready to do all that came within their power to secure good order and the thorough execution of the laws, the general gave his views regarding the remedy to be adopted in the following terms:

In conclusion, I desire to express my conviction that the only way to restore good order in the State is to resume military control over it for the time being, and ultimately to provide by law that the Legislature shall reassemble as a provisional Legislature,

from which all ineligible persons shall be excluded, and to which all eligible persons elected to it, whether white or black, shall be admitted. Such Legislature would, I believe, enact such laws and invest their executive with such powers as would enable him to keep the peace, protect life and property, and punish crime. The process of resuming military control would, it appears to me, be a very simple one. All that would be required is an order from the President countermanding General Orders No. 55, Adjutant-General's office, July 28, 1868, and orders No. 103, headquarters Third Military District, July 22, 1868, and assigning an officer to the command of the district, excepting the States of Florida and Alabama. This action I respectfully recommend.

General Halleck, commanding the Division of the South, indorsed General Terry's views, and recommended that "the matter be left for the action of Congress."

A short time before the assembling of Congress in December, Governor Bullock issued a proclamation, setting forth what he termed "the recent renewal of active hostilities against the persons and property of colored citizens, and white Republicans, by organized bands of secret assassins," and offering large rewards for certain alleged offenders; and as soon as that body was in session he was again in Washington urging the further reconstruction of the State. He appeared before the Judiciary Committee of the Senate, where he urged the same reasons for a renewal of this process which he had used before the Reconstruction Committee of the House at the previous session. Here, again, he found his old antagonist, Hon. Nelson Tift, who strongly opposed the plan presented by the Governor, and reflected very severely on the entire course of that official, not only in this matter, but in the administration of affairs in the State. He claimed that the fifteenth amendment would have been ratified, if Bullock had not advised members of his own party to vote against it, and that the colored members of the Legislature would have been reseated after the decision of the Supreme Court, if he had not refused to call the Assembly together. The passage of an act to complete the reconstruction of the State had, however, been recommended by President Grant, in his message at the opening of the session, and a bill was very soon introduced in the Senate to effect this object, and, after an animated discussion in both Houses, became a law on the 22d of December. The following is the full text of the act:

AN ACT TO PROMOTE THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE STATE OF GEORGIA:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the Governor of the State of Georgia be, and hereby is, authorized and directed forthwith, by a proclamation, to summon all persons elected to the General Assembly of said State as appears by the proclamation of George G. Meade, the general commanding the military district including the State of Georgia, dated June 25, 1868, to appear, on some day certain to be named in said proclamation, at Atlanta, in said State, and thereupon, the said General Assembly of said State shall proceed to perfect its organization, in conformity with the Constitution and laws of the United States, according to the provisions of this act.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That when the members so elected to said Senate and House of Representatives shall be convened as aforesaid, each and every member, and each and every person claiming to be elected as a member of said Senate or House of Representatives, shall, in addition to taking the oath or oaths required by the constitution of Georgia, also take and subscribe, and file in the office of the Secretary of State of the State of Georgia, one of the following oaths or affirmations, namely:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I have never held the office or exercised the duties of a Senator or Representative in Congress, nor been a member of the Legislature of any State of the United States, nor held any civil office created by law, for the administering of any general law of a State, or for the administration of justice in any State, or under the laws of the United States, nor held any office in the military or naval service of the United States, and thereafter engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the United States, or gave aid or comfort to its enemies, or rendered, except in consequence of direct physical force, any support or aid to any insurrection or rebellion against the United States, nor held any office under or given any support to any government of any kind, organized or acting in hostility to the United States, or levying war against the United States, so help me God; or on the pains or penalties of perjury, as the case may be; or the following oath or affirmation, namely: I do solemnly swear (or affirm, as the case may be) that I have been relieved by an act of the Congress of the United States from disability as provided for by section 3d of the fourteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, so help me God; or on the pains or penalties of perjury, as the case may be;" which oath or affirmation, when so filed, shall be entered on record by the Secretary of State of the State of Georgia, and said oath or affirmations, or a copy of the record thereof, duly certified by said Secretary of State, shall be evidence in all courts and places, and every person, claiming to be elected, who shall refuse, or decline, or neglect, or be unable to take one of said oaths or affirmations above provided, shall not be admitted to a seat in said Senate or House of Representatives, or to a participation in the proceedings thereof, but shall be deemed ineligible to such seats.

SEC. 3. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person, claiming to be elected to said Senate or House of Representatives as aforesaid, shall falsely take either of said oaths or affirmations, as above provided, he shall be deemed guilty of perjury, and shall suffer the pains and penalties thereof, and may be tried, convicted, and punished therefor, by the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Georgia in which district the crime was committed, and the jurisdiction of the said court shall be sole and exclusive for the purpose aforesaid.

SEC. 4. *And be it further enacted*, That the persons elected as aforesaid, and entitled to compose the said Legislature, and who shall comply with the provisions of this act by taking one of the oaths or affirmations above prescribed, shall thereupon proceed, in said Senate and House of Representatives to which they have been elected respectively, to reorganize said Senate and House of Representatives respectively, by the election and qualification of the proper officers of each House.

SEC. 5. *And be it further enacted*, That if any person shall by force, violence, or fraud, wilfully hinder or interrupt any person or persons elected as aforesaid, from taking either of the oaths or affirmations prescribed by the act, or from participating in the proceedings of said Senate or House of Representatives after having taken one of said oaths or affirmations and otherwise complied with this act, he shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and may be tried, con-

victed, and punished therefor, by the Circuit or District Court of the United States for the District of Georgia, in which district said offence shall be committed, and shall be punished therefor by imprisonment at hard labor for not less than two nor more than ten years, in the discretion of the court, and the jurisdiction of said courts shall be sole and exclusive for the purpose aforesaid.

SEC. 6. *And be it further enacted*, That it is hereby declared that the exclusion of any person or persons elected as aforesaid, and being otherwise qualified, from participation in the proceedings of said Senate or House of Representatives, upon the ground of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, would be illegal and revolutionary, and is hereby prohibited.

SEC. 7. *And be it further enacted*, That, upon the application of the Governor of Georgia, the President of the United States shall employ such military or naval forces of the United States as may be necessary to enforce and execute the preceding provisions of this act.

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That the Legislature shall ratify the fifteenth amendment proposed, to the Constitution of the United States, before Senators and Representatives from Georgia are admitted to seats in Congress.

On the same day on which this measure received the approval of the President, Governor Bullock issued his proclamation at Atlanta, which, after reciting the action of Congress, continued as follows:

I hereby issue this, my proclamation, to summon all persons, elected to the General Assembly of the State of Georgia, as appears by the proclamation of George G. Meade, the general commanding the military district including the State of Georgia, dated June 25, 1868, who are qualified, to appear at Atlanta, in said State, on Monday, 10th day of January next, whereupon such of the said persons as are qualified to hold office, in accordance with the provisions of the act of Congress in such cases made and provided, will be organized in the Senate and House of Representatives respectively, as the Provisional Legislature of the State of Georgia, for the purpose of promoting the reconstruction of civil government in said State, in accordance with the laws of the United States.

RUFUS B. BULLOCK, Provisional Governor.

Two days later the following general order was issued at Washington:

General Orders, No. 83.

HEADQUARTERS OF THE ARMY,
ADJUTANT-GENERAL'S OFFICE,
WASHINGTON, *December* 24, 1869.

Brevet Major-General A. H. Terry, in addition to his duties as Department Commander of the South, is, by order of the President of the United States, appointed to exercise the duties of Commanding General of the District of Georgia, as defined by the act of Congress approved December 22, 1869.

By command of General SHERMAN.
E. D. TOWNSEND, Adjutant-General.

Thus the State of Georgia was found at the close of another year under the military authority of the United States, awaiting the assembling of the Legislature in January, 1870.

Aside from the sad confusion and embarrassment which have prevailed in her political affairs, Georgia has made very fair progress during the year. The negroes appear to have worked, on the whole, industriously, and to have been on cordial terms with their white employers. Preparations were made on a large scale for the production of cotton, and a fair crop was obtained. The following are some of the latest statistics connected with the wealth and resources of the State: number of acres of land, 30,616,025; aggregate value of lands, $87,117,616; value of town and city property, $38,473,905; amount of money and solvent debts of all kinds, $32,110,534; merchandise, $10,934,152. Capital invested in shipping, $208,650; capital in cotton manufactures, $1,461,753; iron-works, founderies, etc., $552,150; capital invested in mining, $126,689; aggregate value of all property in the State, $207,963,696. Several new railroads are in course of construction in the State, including the Macon and Brunswick, 185 miles in length; the South Georgia and Florida Road, from Albany to Thomasville, 55 miles; the Macon and Augusta, 125 miles; the Air Line Road from Atlanta to Anderson, in South Carolina, 120 miles; the Selma, Rome, and Dalton Road; and the Savannah, Griffin, and North Alabama. The Western and Atlantic Railroad, stretching from Atlanta in this State, to Chattanooga in Tennessee, is the property of the State, and yields an annual revenue of about $25,000. The State also owns 10,000 shares in the Atlantic and Gulf Railroad, which are worth about $350,000. No report of the financial affairs of the State, covering the year 1869, has been made.

GERMANY. No notable progress was made in the course of the year 1869 toward a satisfactory solution of the German nationality question and the establishment of German unity. In Baden the Government and the great majority of the legislature agree in desiring an entrance into the North-German Confederation, while Bavaria and Wurtemberg remain opposed to such a policy. The population of the North-German Confederation (according to the census of 1867) amounted to 29,906,092; of the South-German States (Bavaria, Baden, Wurtemberg, Hesse-Darmstadt) to 8,603,446, of Lichtenstein to 8,310. (As to the Germans of Austria, *see* AUSTRIA.)

The religious statistics of the North-German Confederation, in 1867, were as follows: Evangelicals, 21,314,000; Roman Catholics, 8,131,000; Greek Catholics, 2,500; Christian sects, 96,000; Jews, 350,000; all others, 5,200.

The North-German Parliament was opened on March 4th, by the King of Prussia. In the course of his speech he expressed his satisfaction that the prospect of peace had not proved illusory. After referring to various domestic subjects, he alluded to the friendly relations existing between the North-German Confederation and all the foreign powers, fresh evidence of which had been afforded by the peaceful solution of the late dispute between Turkey and Greece. The result of the Paris Conference had proved the estimation in which the European powers held the blessings of peace; and a nation which had shown itself willing and able to respect the independence

of others and protect its own was justified in trusting that peace would be maintained. Herr Simpson was again elected President, the Duke of Ujest first and Herr Benningsen second Vice-President. Several important measures were proposed by the "Bundesrath," or diplomatic committee, the members of which are the representatives of the different Governments composing the Confederation, while the Reichsrath consists of the deputies of the people, elected by universal suffrage and by ballot. It is a privilege of the Bundesrath to prepare each year beforehand the measures to be laid before the Diet for discussion, but the latter Assembly has also the right, according to the Constitution, to present to the Bundesrath for their approval such measures as it may judge opportune.

Count Bismarck was twice defeated in the Parliament in opposing liberal measures. Having, first, opposed as inopportune a motion in favor of freedom of speech in the several Diets of the Confederation, or the inviolability of members of the Diets, the motion was carried by 140 votes to 51. Another resolution, demanding the appointment of a responsible Federal ministry, for war, navy, finances, and commerce, was strenuously opposed by Count Bismarck, but it was adopted by 111 votes against 100.

The Parliament adopted the transfer (proposed by the Federal Chancellor) of the Prussian Ministry of Foreign Affairs to the Federal Budget, and the establishment of the Federal Supreme Court of Commerce at Leipsic. It passed also a Federal electoral law, and sanctioned the equality of all religious confessions before the law. The most important work of the session was the enactment of regulations concerning trade. All the demands for the Federal Budget were granted (among others a new credit for the establishment of the navy), but the Prussian deficit of more than ten millions was at once remanded to the Prussian Diet. The much-abused franking privilege was likewise limited.

Count Bismarck sides with his King in being averse to a reduction in the military establishment, as he considers that North Germany has no other guarantee against the designs of France and Austria. "England and America," he says, "are engaged in a family quarrel, and the opposition would not hear of an alliance with Russia. Under such circumstances North Germany, being left to herself, cannot diminish her military force. The French nation does not desire war, it is true, but it is of an inflammable temperament, and, should war break out, it would rush into it with a violence of which the disunited and phlegmatic German factions have no idea."

The Zollverein Parliament was opened on June 3, 1869, and closed its session on June 23. Its work is referred to in the following throne speech, by which the King of Prussia closed the session:

Honorable Gentlemen: By unremitting activity you have completed the discussion of the bills laid before you by the allied Governments. The commercial treaties with Switzerland and Japan have obtained your consent. The unanimity with which you gave it proves that you look upon these treaties—one of which is to facilitate neighborly relations of a manifold and daily traffic, while the other will procure a broader basis to our navigation and commerce in the distant East—as a further step in the developement of the Zollverein's international relations.

With equal harmony you have agreed to the Zollverein tariff and the bill respecting the customs boundary in the free port of Hamburg. Your amendments to both these bills have been accepted by the Zollverein Council. The allied Governments have been able, to their great satisfaction, fully to concur with you respecting not only the necessary reforms of the tariff of the Customs Union, but also as to the means of carrying out these reforms. I hope that the important organic law which is to take the place of that existing for the last thirty years will adapt itself satisfactorily and durably to the demands of the rapid and manifold developments of traffic and the financial interests of the Customs Union. The changes you have resolved upon with respect to the duty on sugar—an industry of the highest importance regarding the economical affairs of the Union—do not deviate from the views which prompted the allied Governments to lay the bill before you. Its result will be a moderation of the duty on the aggregate consumption, and at the same time an increase of revenue for the Union, covering part of a deficit caused by numerous repeals and reduction of duties during the last years.

The revision of the Customs Union tariff has, I regret to say, not been concluded. I do not give up the hope that, respecting the financial objects of the Union, the differences of opinion which have prevented the completion of this work will be adjusted in the course of time, and I discharge you, honorable gentlemen, with the desire and confidence that this year, too, your meeting may have contributed to strengthen the ties of common institutions connecting all German countries.

On the same day the King closed the session of the North-German Parliament by the following *résumé* of its resolutions and measures, as well as of the general policy of the Government:

Honorable Gentlemen: You have arrived at the close of a session full of activity, which will result favorably to the progress of the confederation and the welfare of North Germany. By passing the election bill you have finally settled the form of voting for representatives of the Reichsrath on the basis of the Constitution, and uniformly throughout the Bund.

The draft of the trade bill has been discussed by you with a carefulness corresponding to the importance and multifariousness of its contents. By the consent of the Bund Council to your resolutions and a mutual compromise on many particulars upon which opinions have differed, you have achieved a work which opens new paths to free motion of industrial activity, and common to all citizens of the confederation. Conformity in the army institutions of the North-German Bund and the Grand-duchy of Baden has allowed the ratification of a convention which, by granting the mutual right of change of abode, affords essential relief to the citizens of both states in the discharge of military duty. The postal treaties with Sweden, the Netherlands, Italy, the Papal dominions, and Roumania, which you have passed, are a valuable supplement to the improvements in international postal traffic in connection with the reforms of our own postage-rates. You have also consented to literary and consular conventions as supplements to the commercial treaties with Italy

and Switzerland. The bill respecting the attachment of wages has been assented to by the allied Governments in the form you have given it. The bill concerning legal trials is a decisive step toward fulfilling one of the constitutional tasks of the confederation; its complete solution is aimed at by the framing of a common civil and criminal statute.

By adopting as laws of the Confederation the German code of promissory bills and the commercial statute, as also establishing a supreme commercial tribunal, you have secured a uniform development of commercial law within the Bund. I greet the new supreme commercial tribunal as an expansion of our institutions and a new guarantee of the Bund's ability to found and develop the common institutes required for national objects, provided the faithful coöperation of the Governments among themselves and with the representatives of the people be sustained by mutual confidence.

The bill on the equality of creeds respecting citizens' communal and state rights accorded with the unanimous views of the Bund Council and met its assent. The changing the stamp duty on bills of exchange, as existing in the several states, into a confederate tax, completes uniform traffic by removing compound stamp duties on bills in circulation, and secures, as does the bill abrogating postal franking privileges, an increase of the revenue of the Bund. Both these laws, however, have also the effect of lessening the revenues of the several state Governments without leading to a proportionate reduction of their allotment toward the finances of the Bund. With regard to other measures proposed for this purpose by the allied Governments, there was, I regret to say, no agreement arrived at. It will now be the duty of these Governments, in order to cover the deficits caused by a previous reduction of taxes on traffic, to confine their expenditures, or provide other sources of revenue, within their legislative jurisdiction.

By assenting to the Confederate budget and increase of the navy loan you have secured for the coming year the means requisite to the Bund Government and given a financial guarantee that the projected enlargement of the navy will be carried out in the future.

The former legitimate increase of the revenues, the financial position of the state has not materially improved at present. You will observe, from the complete statement of the budget for the year 1868, which will be laid before you, that in consequence of unavoidable circumstances on the one hand the revenue has not reached its estimated amount, and that on the other hand the expenditure has exceeded the estimates, and that the latter could not be completely covered by the funds in hand. In the face of these results and of the position of this year's state budget, the endeavor of my Government has been directed to decrease the burdens of Prussia, incurred in consequence of her federal obligations, by an increase of the special revenues of the North-German Confederation. This endeavor has not been followed by the desired success. It has, therefore, been impossible in the estimates for next year, which will shortly be laid before you, to balance the revenue and expenditure, although the latter have been restricted, as far as possible, without affecting important interests of the country. My Government is, therefore, necessitated to resort to additional taxation, in order completely to recover the required expenditure. The restoration and preservation of order in financial affairs is absolutely necessary for the successful development of all the state institutions, and this cannot be delayed. The sacrifices demanded must not be eluded; the longer they are postponed the more oppressive they will be for the country. Convinced that you share these views, I rely confidently upon you not refusing your assent to the propositions of my Government. A bill will be laid before you to alter the legal mode of procedure in the assessment of the classified income tax, in order to secure a more satisfactory working of the existing law. A bill for the establishment of a new administration of the provincial districts throughout the six eastern provinces will largely affect the entire administration of the country. This new law does not merely alter the regulations which have hitherto existed, and which have frequently been pointed out as requiring improvement, a want acknowledged also by the Government. Together with the modification of the present district assemblies, the Government proposes to establish assemblies for the communal administration of provincial districts, which will not only serve to imbue the inhabitants with greater interest in the affairs of their district, but these assemblies will also be required to take upon themselves a part of such general business of the country as has hitherto been in the hands of the state. As soon as, in those districts of the eastern provinces which are the centres of their communal administration, the idea of self-government shall have been realized efficiently, then the extension of the same principle to the rest of the kingdom and its still further development in an ascending scale will follow as natural consequences.

In conformity with the wishes expressed during previous debates, my Government will lay before you the draft of a complete law upon the system of education—one which shall embrace every grade of instruction.

The important deliberations which commenced last session upon the reform of the laws on landed property, and the rights accruing therefrom, will be resumed.

My Government is engaged continually in extending the system of public roads and railways in the interest of the general traffic, and in accordance with the means at its disposal. The Government regrets, however, that it has been compelled to make retrenchments in this branch of the public service, in consequence of the insufficiency of the revenue. The Government is also devoting increasing attention to the development of agriculture. With this object, the concentration of small plots of land, in those parts of the country where this measure has only recently been introduced or facilitated by law, is making visible progress.

The unremitting endeavors of my Government for the maintenance and consolidation of peace, for guarding our relations with foreign powers from being disturbed in any way, have, with God's help, been crowned with success. I confidently trust that also in future the foreign policy which will be directed by me in the same spirit will be followed by the same good results, viz., the establishment of peaceful and friendly relations with all foreign governments, the development of traffic, and the maintenance of the authority and independence of Germany.

Gentlemen—I had lately the gratification of receiving in several provinces of my monarchy manifestations of loyalty and confidence which gave me much pleasure. In that spirit which dictated those manifestations I recognize a fresh security for the steady and hopeful prosperity of the Fatherland, and it will be my unceasing endeavor to promote the same in all directions to the best of my abilities.

Success greatly depends upon your cordial coöperation with my Government, and I rejoice to be able to express my confident hope, that, also during this session, this coöperation for the welfare of the country will not be found wanting.

One of the most important measures realized in North Germany, during 1869, was the completion of the first German naval station, the naval improvements of coast defences, to which the King refers at the conclusion of his speech as follows:

A few days ago I witnessed the—almost completed—works of the first German naval station, a monu-

ment testifying before Europe the energy and intelligence with which Germany has wrung, in a thirteen years' combat, from the refractory elements, this achievement of a great national object. In the lively and diligent sympathy with our maritime interests, which actuates the population of the North-German coast region, I have recognized, with joyous satisfaction, the expression of national feeling which, with increasing power, pervades all parts of the common Fatherland, and ripens the germs which we in common have laid in our Bund Constitution. I therefore confide willingly in the prospect that the allied Governments, in their endeavors to fortify and perfect our common institutions, may further find that encouragement which the Reichsrath has heretofore extended to them.

The harmonious action of the allied Governments and the people's representatives in the common labor for the welfare of Germany shall, in future as heretofore, with the aid of God, enhance the assurance with which Germany calculates upon the preservation and strengthening of its internal and external peace. With this confidence, gentlemen, I express the hope of greeting you again, next year, and even soon after its commencement, in this same place.

The imports into the Zollverein in the first half of 1869 compared, on the whole, favorably with the corresponding period of 1868, as the following *résumé* will show: Of the important articles the following quantities paid duty or were admitted duty free: raw cotton, 1,191,252 centners (compared with the preceding year, 2.9 per cent. less); twist, 163,327 cntnrs. (8 per cent. less); dye-woods, 339,784 cntnrs. (1.5 per cent. more); indigo, 21,796 cntnrs. (3 per cent. more); raisins, 1,488,429 cntnrs. (42 per cent. more); steel, 28,900 cntnrs. (18 per cent. more); coarse hardware, 140,717 cntnrs. (124 per cent. more); iron ore, 2,237,857 cntnrs. (48 per cent. more); flax and hemp, 519,379 cntnrs. (21 per cent. less); grain, 13,217,077 scheffels (43 per cent. less); green concave glass, 12,393 cntnrs. (169 per cent. more); raw hides, 314,682 cntnrs. (80 per cent. more); machines, principally of cast iron, 84,000 cntnrs. (33 per cent. more); do., chiefly of malleable iron, 17,023 cntnrs. (41 per cent. more); raw linen thread, machine spun, 81,266 cntnrs. (97 per cent. more); gray packing linen, 50,399 cntnrs. (11.7 per cent. more); unbleached linen, 28,789 cntnrs. (31 per cent. more); wine, 308,294 cntnrs. (49 per cent. more); dried fruit, 127,363 cntnrs. (54 per cent. more); 171,283 tons herrings (28 per cent. more); coffee, 808,501 cntnrs. (4.3 per cent. more); salt, 429,104 cntnrs. (13 per cent. less); raw tobacco, 296,910 cntnrs. (45 per cent. less); tea, 7,756 cntnrs. (12.4 per cent. more); olive-oil for machinery, 80,082 cntnrs. (63 per cent. more); linseed oil, 195,217 cntnrs. (69 per cent. more); tallow, 95,080 cntnrs. (28 per cent. more); raw silk, 15,967 cntnrs. (8.6. per cent. less); coal, 15,996,208 cntnrs. (7 per cent. more); turf, 224,365 cntnrs. (9¼ per cent. more); petroleum, 710,520 cntnrs. (2 per cent. more); horses, 21,748 (9.9 per cent. less); oxen, 45,307 (20 per cent. more); cows, 28,007 (9.9 per cent. more); pigs, 273,018 (29 per cent. more); raw wool, 363,729 cntnrs. (22 per cent. less); raw woollen yarn, 127,502 cntnrs. (4.6 per cent. less); woollen articles, 35,097 cntnrs. (21 per cent. more).

The North-German merchant navy consisted in 1869 of 5,110 ships, with a united tonnage of 1,299,984.17 tons, of which 146, with 102,-149.40 tons, are steamers. Of these, 3,272 with 642,805.79 tons (including 60 steamers with 9,659,190 tons), belong to Prussia; 440, with 89,585.04 tons (including 1 steamer of 210 tons), to Mecklenburg; 565, with 64,264.42 tons, to Oldenburg; 45, with 111,642 tons (including 21 steamers with 55,385 tons), to Lubeck; 483, with 255,456.60 tons (including 40 steamers with 39,513 tons), to Hamburg, and 305, with 236,230.50 tons (including 24 steamers with 47,228 tons), to Bremen.

The North-German North Sea merchant fleet consisted, in 1869, of 2,982 ships, with a total tonnage of 760,309.67 tons, including 75 steamers, with 87,871.52 tons, and the Baltic fleet as containing 2,128 vessels, with 539,674 tons, including 71 steamers, with 14,277.88 tons. These ships are classified as follows: coasters, under 30 tons, 331 Prussian, 2 belonging to Mecklenburg, 192 to Oldenburg, and 2 to Hamburg, together 527; from 30 to 100 tons, 1,056 Prussian, 17 belonging to Mecklenburg, 180 to Oldenburg, 11 to Hamburg, 20 to Bremen, together 1,284; of 100 tons and upward, 1,885 Prussian, 421 belonging to Mecklenburg, 193 to Oldenburg, 45 to Lubeck, 470 to Hamburg, 285 to Bremen, together 3,299 vessels. Of the 130 great North-German ships of more than 1,000 tons, 14 are Prussian, 37 belong to Hamburg, and 79 to Bremen.

According to a table compiled from official sources showing the telegraphic communication of the North-German Confederation, there were, at the end of December, 1868, 3,180 German miles of telegraphic lines in actual operation, 10,400 miles of telegraphic wires, and 993 telegraphic stations in the territory of the Confederation. Of these stations 237 were in charge of government telegraph-officers, 683 were combined with post-offices, and 73 were conducted by private persons. Besides these, there were 676 railway telegraph-stations in localities where there were no government stations. At the end of the year the number of telegraphic machines amounted to 2,058. In the government telegraph service there were 3,052 *employés* and 551 messengers and assistants. In the course of the year 4,304,600 telegraphic dispatches were sent in, and of these 3,544,650 were for the interior, 435,051 belonged to the Telegraph Union, and 324,909 were international. The number of dispatches which arrived was 4,343,757; 3,-883,235 were delivered, 3,893,081 telegraphed farther, and 1,049,083 transferred, so that the entire amount of all the dispatches which passed through the hands of the officials was 17,474,756. Out of this number about 432,000 were through-dispatches. The entire proceeds

for internal dispatches were 918,984 thlrs.; the share derived from dispatches partially forwarded by other companies, 319,080 thlrs.; for international dispatches 597,474 thlrs.; and for through-dispatches 183,086 thlrs.

The new arrangement that came into operation at the German telegraph offices in 1869 might be extended with advantage to other countries. Parts of telegrams, even single words, may now be registered, the Government undertaking to guarantee their correct transmission. Guaranteed words are underlined, and are simply charged a double rate. Hitherto the charge has been the full double price of the whole telegram. The money-order system between the large cities of North Germany and the United States was put in operation on February 1, 1869.

On May 30, 1869, a Protestant Congress was held at Worms, which included representatives from all the states of Germany. It resolved, by a unanimous vote, against the Pope's exhortation to return to the Roman Catholic Church, condemned the Encyclical Letter and Syllabus, and gave a declaration concluding in the following words: "Finally, we declare all efforts within the Protestant Church tending to establish hierarchical power of the clergy and an exclusive dominion of dogmas as a denial of the Protestant spirit, and stepping-stones only to Rome. Convinced that supineness and indifference on the part of many Protestants have furnished a main support to the reactionary Church party, and constitute also the principal impediment in the most powerful German state against national and church revivification, we admonish all our brethren in faith to be vigilant, and combine together in a strong bulwark against all tendencies menacing spiritual and conscientious freedom."

A "Social-democratic" Congress was held at Eisenach in August, 1869, consisting of 262 delegates from 193 places. It declared that political freedom is the indispensable preliminary condition for the social delivery of the working-classes; that the necessity of common and harmonious efforts suggests an organization of the socialistic-democratic party to work for, an equal, universal, and secret suffrage; the introduction of direct legislation by the people, the abolition of all privileges of classes, property, birth, and faith; the establishment of a national militia instead of standing armies, separation of church and state, full liberty of the press and of assemblage; free public instruction, abolition of all indirect taxes and introduction of a direct and progressive income tax.

A Teachers' Congress, in Berlin, in May, 1869, was very numerously attended, not less than 4,000 pedagogues from all parts of Germany having joined in it. Their discussions and resolutions were mainly directed toward the separation of the school from the church. Among the numberless institutions of learning there are now in Germany sixty-two industrial, eleven polytechnic, and nineteen special commercial schools.

The following cities of the confederacy have more than 50,000 inhabitants: Berlin, 703,000; Hamburg, 218,000; Breslau, 167,000; Dresden, 156,000; Cologne, 120,000; Konigsburg, 106,000; Magdeburg, 101,000; Leipsic, 92,000; Dantzic, 88,000; Frankfort-on-the-Main, 78,000; Hanover and Stettin, 74,000; Aix-la-Chapelle, 68,000; Bremen and Altona, 67,000 each; Barmen and Elberfeld, 65,000 each; Düsseldorf, 63,000; Chemnitz, 59,000; Crefeld, 54,000.

GOD, CHURCH OF. The Rev. E. H. Thomas, editor of the *Church Advocate*, Lancaster, Pa., the principal organ of this Church, gives the following summary of its condition in the year 1869:*

"The Church of God in North America has a membership of from 26,000 to 30,000; about 400 organized churches, 350 licensed ministers, ten Annual Elderships in full connection, and one in Texas, separated during the war, but waiting for reconstruction and reunion; one General Eldership composed of delegates from all the Annual Elderships, which meets every three years. It meets in May and June of next year in this city (Lancaster, Pennsylvania). We have one Church organ, the *Church Advocate*, and one Sunday-school paper, the *Sunday-school Gem*, both published in this city. We have as yet but one institution of learning, Centralia College, Kansas. In faith Armenian, in practice Baptist, but open communion; church government Presbyterian, with an itinerancy, without bishops or presiding elders. Our Elderships are located, three in Pennsylvania and Maryland (one German), two in Ohio, one in Michigan, one and part of another in Indiana, and one and a portion of another in Illinois, one in Iowa, and one in Texas."

The ninth triennial meeting of the General Eldership of the Church of God in North America was held in Lancaster City, Pa., on the 27th of May, 1869. Ministerial and lay delegates were in attendance from the following Elderships: East Pennsylvania, West Pennsylvania, East Ohio, West Ohio, Indiana, Southern Illinois and Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Michigan, and the German. The charter of incorporation granted by the Pennsylvania Legislature was adopted. A favorable report was made of the mission at Chicago, where the work of establishing the Church has been progressing under difficulties, but with increasing success for five years. A permanent church organization has been obtained, and a church property of considerable value. Six or eight missions are also in successful operation in the East Pennsylvania Eldership, of which the Philadelphia mission is the most prosperous. Several missions have been opened on the Missouri River, and one is contemplated among the freedmen in the South. Increasing inter-

* In a report prepared for Schem's *American Ecclesiastical Almanac* for 1860.

est is taken in missions among the ministers and members, and the contributions for this purpose are larger in proportion to the numbers and resources of the denomination than ever before. But little progress has been made in educational enterprises. Plans prepared at the previous triennial meeting for the establishment of a central school have not, for prudential reasons, been carried into effect. A new appeal was made to the members for donations and bequests for the endowment of the proposed institution. Permission was given the German Eldership to extend its work throughout the United States, without confining itself to particular bounds. The *Church Advocate* at Lancaster, Pa., was adopted as the organ of the Church, and provision made for publishing the proceedings of the elderships in its columns, so that no pamphlet reports will be issued. The next session of the General Eldership will be held at Mt. Carroll, Ill., on the last Wednesday in May, 1872.

GOTTSCHALK, Louis Moreau, an American pianist and musical composer, born in New Orleans, La., May 8, 1829; died at Tijuca, a suburb of Rio Janeiro, Brazil, December 18, 1869. His fondness for music, and his precocious skill as a player, were remarkable. He gave his first concert when but seven years old. He was but twelve when his father sent him to Paris to complete his musical education. In April, 1845, he made his first appearance in that city as a pianist, after four years of close application under MM. Hallé and Bamaty to the mastery of the piano, and a very thorough course in harmony under M. Maleden. He continued his studies in the higher branches of musical composition till 1848, when he gave a series of public concerts in Paris, in which he achieved a great success. In 1849 he appeared through the season, in the principal towns of Switzerland; in 1850 and '51 he was again in Paris, and again won the highest praise, and his concerts were thronged. In 1852 he tested with equal success the extremely critical and not easily satisfied musical world of Spain. In 1853 he returned to the United States, where he was everywhere warmly welcomed. He had given numerous concerts in all our principal cities, and had also visited Mexico, the western coast of South America, and Australia. In June, 1869, after having spent considerable time at Buenos Ayres and Monte Video, he came to Rio Janeiro, where he was most cordially received. He showed the same generous and liberal nature there which had always distinguished him, responding freely to every call for his services for institutions of charity, and winning the love and esteem of all the members of the musical profession by his cordial and affectionate manners. After giving numerous concerts, he had arranged for a great musical festival of some weeks, which was to commence on the 24th of November. The first evening he was very successful, and the performance was the delight of the thousands who attended; on the second evening he fell to the floor unconscious, at the very beginning of the programme, and was only restored after he had been removed to his hotel. He lingered in great suffering for a little more than three weeks, and died, mourned by many thousands of the best citizens of Rio Janeiro. Mr. Gottschalk was as distinguished as a composer as he was as a pianist; indeed, his composition was of very much the same character as his playing, brilliant, ingenious, dashing, at times dreamy, and always gracefully adapted to the sentiment of the hour. Many of his compositions are well known and familiar to thousands of players. His "Banjo," "Night March," "Soldier Song," "Apotheosis," "The Bamboo," "The Plantain-Tree," "Savannah," "The Ossianic Dance," "The Harvest Girl," "The Night of the Tropics," "Young Harry's Chase," "Iota Aragonesa," "Manchega," "Portorella e Cavaliere," and his arrangement of "God save the Queen," are among those of his pieces which will live. His private life was very gentle and amiable, and, among the members of the notably irritable musical profession, few men have been so widely and greatly loved as he. He had received several foreign orders and decorations for his eminence as a pianist; among them the decoration of the Legion of Honor, and that of the order of Isabella the Catholic.

GOUGH, Field-Marshal Hugh, Viscount, K. S. P., G. C. B., G. C. S. I., a distinguished British soldier, commander-in-chief of the British Army in the Chinese and Sikh Wars, born in Limerick, Ireland, November 3, 1779; died in London, March 2, 1869. He entered the army in 1794, and in 1795 participated in the capture of the Dutch fleet, in Saldanha Bay, and the Dutch colony of the Cape of Good Hope. He next served in the West Indies; was present at the attack on Porto Rico, and at the capture of Surinam. In 1809 he went to the Peninsula and commanded the Eighty-seventh Infantry at the battles of Talavera, Barossa, Vittoria, and Nivelle, for which he received a cross. He also took an active part in the sieges of Cadiz and Tarifa, and was severely wounded in the head. It was his regiment that at the battle of Barossa captured the eagle of the Eighth French regiment, and at Vittoria he secured the baton of the French Marshal Jourdan. He was severely wounded a second time at Nivelle. In 1841–'42 he commanded the land forces in China, and for the gallant manner in which he made the attack on Canton he was made a G. C. B., and when the campaign was concluded he was knighted. He was next dispatched to India, where, on the 29th of December, 1843, with the right wing of the army of the Gwalior he defeated a Mahratta force at Maharajpore and captured fifty-six guns. In 1845–'46 he gained several important victories over the Sikh army, for which services he received the thanks of both Houses of Parliament and was raised to the peerage. He also conducted the campaigns of 1848–'49 against the Sikhs in their

last desperate struggle, finally subduing his determined enemy, but at a great sacrifice of life. His skill and success won for him additional rank in the peerage, while the East India Company granted him an annual pension of £2,000 a year. Parliament conferred a similar pension on him and his next two successors in the viscountcy. Lord Gough was colonel of the Royal Horse Guards, colonel-in-chief of the Sixtieth Royal Rifles, colonel of the London Irish Volunteer Rifles, a Knight of St. Patrick, of the Star of India, and of St. Charles of Spain, and a Privy Councillor.

GRAHAM, THOMAS, D. C. L., F. R. S., Master of the Mint, an English physicist and chemist, born at Glasgow December 21, 1805; died in London, September 17, 1869. He was educated at the Glasgow Grammar-School and Glasgow University, and afterward spent two years at Edinburgh, in the special study of chemistry. On his return to Glasgow in 1828, he established a laboratory there for the practical study of chemistry. He was very soon appointed lecturer to the Mechanics' Institute and Andersonian professor in the university. In 1837 he was called from this professorship to the chair of Chemistry in the London University, which he held with a constantly increasing reputation till 1855, when he succeeded Sir John Herschel, as Master of the Mint. Among the chemical discoveries for which he was honorably known, was that of the law of the diffusion of gases, for which the Royal Society of Edinburgh gave him the Keith prize in 1834. In 1862 the Royal Society, London, of which he had been a fellow since 1836, bestowed the Copley medal on him for his valuable speculations on the constitution of phosphates and other salts, and for the discovery of the diffusion of liquids, and the new method of separation by dialysis. Mr. Graham was recognized as one of the ablest chemists in Europe, and had received numerous honors at home and abroad for his attainments. The Academy of Sciences of the Institute of France elected him a corresponding member in 1848, and the University of Oxford conferred on him the honorary degree of D. C. L. in 1855. Of his somewhat numerous scientific treatises, his "Elements of Chemistry," a complete manual on the subject, is best known, and has been widely circulated in England, Germany, and the United States.

GREAT BRITAIN, or, THE UNITED KINGDOM OF GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND. Area, 120,879 English square miles. Population, according to the census of 1861, 29,321,288; estimated population in July, 1869, 30,621,431. Government, constitutional monarchy. Queen, Victoria I., born May 24, 1819; succeeded to the throne June 20, 1837; crowned June 28, 1838; married February 10, 1840, to Prince Albert of Saxe Coburg and Gotha, who, on his marriage, became Prince-Consort; widowed, December 14, 1861. Heir-apparent, Albert Edward, Prince of Wales, eldest son of Queen Victoria; born November 9, 1841; married, March 10, 1863, to the Princess Alexandra, eldest daughter of Christian IX., present King of Denmark. The actual administration of the affairs of the Government, except in some minor details, is confided to the Cabinet, which is of the same political character as the majority of the House of Commons for the time being. The present Cabinet, which was formed December 9, 1868, consists of the following members: Right Hon. William Ewart Gladstone, Premier and First Lord of the Treasury; Right Hon. Lord Hatherley, Lord High Chancellor; Right Hon. Earl de Grey and Ripon, Lord President of the Council; Right Hon. Earl of Kimberley, Lord Privy Seal; Right Hon. Robert Lowe, Chancellor of the Exchequer; Right Hon. Henry Austin Bruce, Secretary of State for the Home Department; Right Hon. Earl of Clarendon, Secretary of State for the Foreign Department; Right Hon. Earl Granville, Secretary of State for the Colonial Department; Right Hon. Edward Cardwell, Secretary of State for the War Department; his Grace the Duke of Argyll, Secretary of State for the Indian Department; Right Hon. Hugh Culling Eardley Childers, First Lord of the Admiralty; Right Hon. John Bright, President of the Board of Trade; Right Hon. Chichester Fortescue, Chief Secretary for Ireland; Right Hon. the Marquis of Hartington, Postmaster-General; Right Hon. G. Joachim Göschen, President of the Poor-law Board. Besides these members of the Cabinet (whose numbers vary in different administrations, the Commissioner of Works, Chief Secretary for Ireland, Postmaster-General, and the President of the Poor-law Board, being sometimes Cabinet officers, and at others not having a seat in it), there are from twenty to twenty-five other ministerial officers not belonging to the Cabinet, but usually in sympathy with it, and holding their appointments, with a single exception, from the Premier for the time being. The Commander-in-chief of the army is a cousin of the Queen, and his position is not affected by Cabinet changes, but the Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster, the Junior Lords of the Treasury and Admiralty, the Under Secretaries of the Departments, the Attorney and Solicitor General, the Judge-Advocate-General, and several other officers, are appointed by the Premier in power. The present ministry, which is the most decidedly Liberal one which has ever held the reins of government in the United Kingdom, came into power as a result of the election of November, 1868, which returned, under the new Reform law, so large a Liberal majority, that the Conservative ministry of Mr. Disraeli, which had appealed to the people in that election, finding themselves in a hopeless minority, threw up their places without notice, and without waiting, as was customary, for the assembling of Parliament. The questions on which that ministry had made shipwreck, and which the

new Cabinet were expected to meet in a very different way, were: the disendowment and disestablishment of the Irish Church; the disposition of the difficult and complicated Fenian question, and the subject of tenant rights; the claim of the Irish people to independent representation and legislation in regard to local matters; educational reform. It was not expected, of course, that all these questions could be settled in a single session of Parliament, but they were all pressing for a hearing, and must be disposed of in their order. The Disraeli Cabinet, though able and adroit, had failed to win the confidence and sympathy of the mass of intelligent English voters, and they looked to the new Cabinet of Mr. Gladstone to give a fair and legitimate expression to their views on these important questions. The engrossing subject of the Parliamentary session of 1869 was the Irish Church disendowment and disestablishment question. (*See* ANGLICAN CHURCHES.)

The only topic of special moment in its relation to the United States, which was discussed in the British Parliament, was the speech of Mr. Sumner, in the United States Senate, on the treaty negotiated by Mr. Reverdy Johnson in regard to the Alabama claims, and the subsequent rejection of that treaty by the Senate, with but a solitary vote in its favor. A gross misunderstanding of Mr. Sumner's position and statements (his speech was not published by any of the English papers) led to intense excitement both in Parliament and throughout the nation; but, as the rejection of the treaty precluded for the time any further negotiation, there was no action taken on the subject in Parliament. Later in the year, after Mr. Motley had been received as the minister from the United States, to succeed Mr. Reverdy Johnson, some correspondence on the subject of the Alabama claims took place between him and Lord Clarendon.

The *commercial condition* of the United Kingdom was much better than in previous years. The plentiful crops of 1868, the reduction in the price of most of the raw materials which were imported for manufacturing purposes, the better and more honest management of the Public Joint-Stock Companies, and the absence of any considerable causes of political disquietude, were among the causes of a higher degree of commercial prosperity. In 1869 the cereal crops were of average amount and good quality, and there were no grounds for apprehending the necessity of an extraordinary importation of breadstuffs, which always produces a depression in trade. The Fenian excitement was not as rife as in former years, and, for the first time in the last twenty years, there was a material reduction in the numbers and estimates for the army.

The railway system of the United Kingdom has been very largely developed. There are 66 railways in the kingdom, having an aggregate length in October, 1869, of 13,569 miles. The traffic receipts for the *week* ending October 31, 1869, was £813,696 = $4,068,480 gold, and, as this was about an average week of the traffic, it would indicate an average yearly business of about $210,000,000. Of these 66 railways, 14 have an extent of 9,895 miles, and an annual income of $176,826,000 gold. The following table gives some particulars in regard to the great roads of the kingdom up to July, 1869:

NAME OF RAILWAY.	Miles open.	Amount of Capital expended.	Average cost per mile.	Semi-Annual Dividend, July, 1869.	Terminus.
Great Eastern	746	£29,472,020	£39,507	5s. p. ct.	Bishopsgate.
Great Northern	487	21,321,860	43,782	2½ p. ct.	King's Cross.
Great Western	1,886	49,822,154	35,928	£1 p. ct.	Paddington.
London and Northwestern	1,446.5	57,950,200	40,076	2½ p. ct.	Euston Square.
London, Brighton, and South Coast	386.5	17,609,894	47,853	nil.	London Bridge.
London and Southwestern	521	17,233,241	33,173	2 p. ct.	Waterloo.
London, Chatham, and Dover	136.75	17,828,311	129,191	nil.	London Bridge.
Metropolitan, including Metropolitan District and St. John's Wood	12.5	10,511,478	{898,636 906,188 342,364}	2 p. ct.	Moorgate street.
Midland	793	34,799,940	44,051	2½ p. ct.	King's Cross.
North London	12	3,308,417	275,701	3½ p. ct.	Broad and Fenchurch Streets.
Southeastern	346	20,170,783	58,297	1½ p. ct.	London Bridge.
Total.....miles....	6,263.25	£280,078,298			

Thus, less than half the length of railway of the United Kingdom, 6,263¼ miles, cost £280,078,298 = $1,400,391,490; while 48,860 miles of railway in the United States, including the enormously expensive Pacific roads, cost $2,212,412,719, or about one-third more for nearly eight times the length.

Statistics for 1868–'69.—The Reform Act of 1868 materially increased the number of electors. The registration for the election of November, 1868, furnished the data for the following table of electors in England and Wales:

	Electors in 1868.	Electors in 1866.	Increase.
Boroughs	1,220,715	514,026	706,689
Counties	791,916	542,633	249,283
Total	2,012,631	1,056,659	955,972

Showing that the number of electors, or as we should say of voters, was nearly doubled. With this enlargement of the franchise, however, the registered voters are not quite one-tenth of the population, while in the United States the voters range from one-fifth to two-ninths of the population.

FINANCES. 1. *Revenue and Expenditure.*—The revenue actually collected for the year ending March 31, 1869, was £72,591,991 = $362,959,955, and the expenditure £75,497,816 = $377,489,080, leaving a deficiency of nearly $14,500,000 to be made up from the receipts of the next year. This deficiency was due mainly to the extraordinary expenses of the Abyssinian War in 1868. The new Chancellor of the Exchequer, Right Hon. Robert Lowe, proposed to adopt a new method of collecting the revenue, by a single payment made early in the year, instead of divided payments through the year as heretofore, and estimated that there would be a saving thereby of £3,350,000 = $16,750,000. The estimates of revenue and expenditure for the year ending March 31, 1870, were, revenue, £72,855,000 = $364,275,000, and expenditure £68,223,000 = $341,115,000. Of this estimated revenue £22,450,000 = $112,250,000 was expected from customs or duties on imports; £20,450,000 = $102,250,000, from excise, which includes distilled spirits, wines, beer and ale, alcohol, tobacco and snuff, tea, chicory, patent medicines, vinegar, race-horses, railway travel, and licenses from certain classes of dealers; from stamps, £9,350,000 = $46,750,000, under which are included nearly the same items as in our revenue laws; from assessed taxes, including armorial bearings, carriages, horses, and duties on horse-dealers, houses, and male-servants, £3,550,000 = $17,750,000; from income tax, £8,800,000 = $44,000,000. The income tax in England is laid under Schedule A, on the income from lands, tenements, and is 5d. in the pound, equal to 2.08 per cent. on the valuation; in Schedule B, on occupiers of farms, etc., 2½d. per cent. in the pound, equal to 1.04 per cent.; on the same classes in Scotland and Ireland, 1¼d. in the pound, or about 0.71 per cent.; under Schedules C and D, embracing incomes from other sources, 5d. per pound, equal to 2.8 per cent. Incomes under £100 = $500 gold, are exempt, and from incomes of £200 = $1,000, £60 = $300 is deducted. From crown lands, £375,000 = $1,875,000 was expected; from the post-office, £4,880,000 = $24,400,000; and from miscellaneous sources, £3,000,000 = $15,000,000. Of the expenditures £26,700,000 = $133,500,000, was for the interest and management of the national debt. £1,700,000 = $8,500,000 gold, for the *charges on the consolidated fund*, of which about £500,000 = $2,500,000 gold, was for the Queen's civil list, or her personal income and the support of the royal household, and for annuities and pensions to the Prince of Wales and other members of the royal family—this sum being independent of the Queen's private revenue as Duchess of Lancaster, which is about $145,000 more, and of the Prince of Wales's income as Duke of Cornwall, which is about $276,000 per annum.

The *Army* and *Navy* expenses are estimated at £24,227,000 = $121,135,000, an unusually small sum, the expenditure for these two departments in the year ending March 30, 1869, having been, including part of the cost of the Abyssinian expedition, £31,366,545 = $156,832,725.

The *collection of the revenue* was estimated to cost £4,976,000 = $24,880,000.

The *packet service*, £1,090,000 = $5,450,000, and *miscellaneous civil service estimates*, including the Churches of England, Scotland, and Ireland, Education, British Museum, etc., £9,530,000 = $47,650,000.

The *national debt* of the United Kingdom, the interest and management of which consumes about two-fifths of the gross income of the kingdom in any given year, amounted in 1869, including the terminable annuities as they stood that year, to £796,861,067=$3,984,305,335 in gold. The average share of each individual of the population in the national debt, in 1869, was £25 11s. 2d. = $127.79, and in the annual interest, 17s. 7d. = $4.39.

THE ARMY AND NAVY. 1. *Army.*—The total army force of the United Kingdom for the year 1869–'70 was 127,336 men, viz.: 7,578 commissioned officers; 13,398 non-commissioned officers, trumpeters, and drummers, and 106,490 rank and file. The staff and departmental officers numbered 875. The salary of the Field-Marshal, General-commanding-in-chief (the Duke of Cambridge) is £5,999=$30,000. (This is aside from his annuity of £12,000=$60,000 as Duke of Cambridge.) The pay of a general commanding an army is £3,458=$17,290; of a general not in the field, £2,075=$10,375; of a lieutenant-general, £1,383=$6,915; of a major-general, £691=$3,455; of a brigadier-general, £520=$2,600; of a colonel, £415=$2,075. As most of the general officers are also titular colonels of regiments, and draw pay for that office, though the duties are performed by a lieutenant-colonel, their pay is not so meagre as may be supposed. Most of those who have seen service have also some pension, annuity, or special allowance, and as all but members of the aristocratic families are practically excluded from the higher offices of the army, they have usually other sources of income aside from their military pay.

The British forces in India, for the year 1869–'70, amounted to 63,707, of whom 3,596 were commissioned officers, 5,299 non-commissioned officers, and 54,812 rank and file.

Aside from these two armies, there was provision made for four classes of reserve; the disembodied militia, whose number was stated to be 128,971; the yeomanry cavalry, 15,455; the volunteers, 199,306, of whom but 174,548 were reckoned efficient; and the army reserve,

including enrolled pensioners, the number of whom is not given. The allowance for army expenses, £14,230,400 = $71,152,000, for the year 1869–'70, was divided, as usual, into four classes: the expense of the regular forces, £7,885,700=$39,428,500; the pay and allowance of the four classes of reserves named above, £1,537,200 = $7,686,000; for effective services, the necessary stores, ammunition, military education, military surveys, etc., £2,624,700 = $13,128,500; and non-effective services, such as rewards for distinguished service, pay of general officers, retired, full, and half-pay pensions, etc., £2,182,800 = $10,914,000.

2. *Navy.*—The British navy, like the army, has a great burden of superannuated and retired officers borne on its pay-rolls, which adds largely to its cost, while contributing nothing to its efficiency. Thus there are three admirals of the fleet, all past service; twenty admirals, of whom only two are in commission; twenty-four vice-admirals, of whom only six are in commission; and forty-eight rear-admirals, of whom only six are in commission. The amount appropriated for this non-effective service was £1,516,525 = $7,582,625. One hundred and sixty ships of all sizes were in commission for foreign service, and 121 for coast-guard and duty on the home-stations, receiving-ships, tenders, tugs, etc.; and 349 were in reserve or building, very few of which could be put in commission without considerable delay, and many were nearly worthless. This fleet was manned by 33,644 sailors, officers, and men; 6,455 boys, and 6,988 marines; making a total naval complement of 47,097. The iron-clad fleet, in September, 1869, consisted of 29 steamships completed and in commission, and 14 in various stages of building, several of which have since been finished and put in commission. These 43 iron-clads will have cost, when completed, about £10,700,000 = $53,500,000. Several of them are very formidable vessels, the Monarch, one of the latest and costliest (her bills for construction exceeding $1,900,000), being, perhaps, the finest armored ship afloat. She is of iron throughout, carries seven guns, and is of 1,100 horse-power, and very fast.

The appropriation for the navy, for 1869–'70, was £9,996,641 = $49,983,205.

3. Income.—It is estimated that three per cent., or, in round numbers, about one million of the population of the United Kingdom, belong to the landholder or aristocratic class, including the families of the 350,000 landholders; about 20 per cent., or 6,000,000, to the middle class, traders, and brain-workers, and 77 per cent., or 23,000,000, to the lower class, or manual laborers. The total annual income of the population is estimated at £600,000,000 = $3,000,000,000, of which £350,000,000 = $1,750,000,000 belongs to the upper and middle classes, that is, to 7,000,000 of the population, and £250,000,000=$1,250,000,000, to the manual-labor class, or 23,000,000 of the population, the ratio being $54.35 per head to the latter and $250 to the former class. The income of the manual-labor class is not, with very rare exceptions, made the subject of direct taxation. The income-tax is collected from the upper and middle classes, almost exclusively, and mainly from less than three millions of these. The amount of income-tax, in the year 1868–'69, was £8,618,000 = $43,090,000, of which about one-third was from property in lands, tenements, and hereditaments: one-twentieth from leaseholders, one-tenth from profits arising from annuities, dividends, and shares of annuities, payable out of the public revenue (analogous to our income-tax on the dividends of United States bonds), eleven twenty-fifths from profits arising from any profession, trade, or employment, and one-sixteenth from salaries, stipends, or annuities, payable out of the public revenue.

4. Commerce and Industry.—The total amount of imports into the United Kingdom, for the year ending January 1, 1869, was £294,693,608 = $1,473,468,040. The total exports were £227,778,454 = $1,138,892,270. Of the imports, £227,700,061=$1,128,500,305, were from foreign countries; and of these £43,062,373 = $215,311,855 were from the United States. There were from the British possessions (colonies), £66,993,547 = $334,967,735. Of the exports, £174,060,626 = $870,303,130, were to foreign countries, of which £23,801,851=$119,009,255, were to the United States. The exports to the British possessions were £53,717,828=$268,589,140.

Of the imports, £130,906,116, or more than three-sevenths were composed of five articles, raw cotton, grain, wool, tea, and raw silk. Of cotton, the total value imported was £55,198,522 = $275,992,610, a decided falling off from 1866, when the cotton import was valued at about $390,000,000. The difference was due mainly to a reduction in the price of cotton. Of grain, the amount imported was, £39,420,290 = $197,101,450. Of wool, £15,114,805 = $75,574,025; of tea, £12,431,454 = $62,157,270, and of raw silk, £8,741,045 = $43,705,225.

The five principal articles of export made up £113,659,595 = $568,297,975, or almost exactly one-half the total exports of the year. These articles were cotton manufactures, £67,541,291 = $337,706,455; woollen and worsted manufactures, £19,525,645 = $97,628,225; iron and steel, £15,021,907 = $75,109,535; linen manufactures, £7,094,319=$35,471,595. The customs revenue is collected almost entirely from duties on the following articles of import, all the rest with very trifling exception being free: chiccory, cocoa, and chocolate, coffee, corn (or grain), dried fruits, including currants, figs, prunes, and raisins, rum, brandy, and other spirituous liquors, sugar, molasses, tea, tobacco and snuff, and wine. Nine-tenths of the whole revenue is collected from spirituous liquors, wine, tobacco, and sugar and molasses.

Shipping.—The number and tonnage of reg-

istered sailing-vessels engaged in the home trade for the year ending January 1, 1869, was 11,787, of a burden of 804,749 tons, and employing 39,448 men, exclusive of the masters. The number of steam-vessels in the home trade the same year was 729, of 153,265 tons' burden, and employing 9,755 men. The number of sailing-vessels, partly in the home and partly in the foreign trade, was 1,432, of 240,921 tons' burden, and employing 8,688 men; of steam-vessels in the same trade, 134, of 52,150 tons' burden, and employing 2,339 men. In the foreign trade exclusively, there were 7,306 sailing-vessels, measuring 3,646,150 tons, and employing 105,704 men, and 862 steam-vessels, measuring 619,199 tons, and employing 31,568 men; making a total of 22,250 vessels, of 5,516,434 tons' measurement, and employing 197,502 men.

The total entrances and clearances of shipping, British and foreign, at ports of the United Kingdom, in the year ending January 1, 1869, was of British vessels, 22,660,424 tons, and of foreign 11,020,555 tons, making a total of 33,680,979 tons; the British vessels being two to one to those of all other nations put together. The American tonnage entering British, or indeed any other foreign ports, is very small, less than one-third what it was before the war, thanks to the depredations of the Alabama, Shenandoah, etc. During the year 1868, 879 sailing-vessels and 232 steamers, with an aggregate tonnage of 379,573 tons, were built in the United Kingdom. The total number of vessels belonging to the United Kingdom, January 1, 1869, was 40,299; tonnage, 7,235,702, and they employed, including masters, 341,149 men.

Textile Industry.—The total import of cotton into the United Kingdom in 1868 was 3,660,127 bales, or 1,328,084,016 lbs. Of this, 915,120 bales, or 322,620,480 lbs., were exported. In the first six months of 1869, 1,581,953 bales were received, indicating an import for the year of about 3,100,000 bales, or about 550,000 bales less than the preceding year.

The import of wool in 1868 was 252,744,155 lbs., and the export 105,070,311 lbs., leaving 147,673,844 lbs. of imported wool for home consumption. To this is to be added the home product, the amount of which is not stated.

The imports of flax, hemp, and jute, during 1868, were very large in consequence of the partial failure of the flax crop in Ireland and Scotland in the preceding year. Over $21,000,000 worth of flax were imported between January and November, 1868, and very large quantities of Manila, Russian, and East-India hemp and jute. Yet neither the woollen nor the linen manufacture yielded satisfactory returns to the manufacturers.

The imports of raw silk during the year 1868 were 6,837,362 lbs., the greater part being Chinese, Japanese, and Bengal silks; the Persian, Italian, and Brutia silk amounting, in all, to less than 400,000 lbs. The export of raw and thrown silk was 4,050,000 lbs. The prices were so high that nearly all the manufacturers and importers lost money. In 1869 the importation was still heavier, but with a somewhat better market.

The number of persons employed in the several branches of textile industry in England and Wales, in 1868, was 673,334. Of these, 357,052 were employed in cotton manufactures; 101,938 in woollen; 128,410 in worsted; 39,956 in silk; 21,859 in flax; 1,330 in hemp; 1,760 in jute; 6,419 in hosiery; 3,187 in shoddy; 828 in horsehair; 19 in felt; 3,821 in elastic goods; and 6,755 in lace. In Scotland and Ireland, 184,630 persons are employed mainly in the manufacture of cotton, woollen, and linen goods. The totals for the United Kingdom in textile industries are, 6,417 factories; 41,516,484 spindles; 549,365 power-looms; horse-power, ———, steam, 337,851, and water, 29,830; total number of persons employed, 857,964.

Minerals and Metals.—The total production of minerals and metals in the United Kingdom, in the year 1868, was of the value of £43,525,524 = $217,627,620. The most important, both in quantity and value of these products, was coal, of which 103,141,157 tons were raised, of the value of £25,785,289 = $128,926,445. Next in value was pig-iron, of which 4,970,206 tons were smelted, valued at £12,381,280=$61,906,400. Of copper, 9,817 tons were produced, valued at £761,602 = $3,808,010, and 157,335 tons of copper ore were raised, valued at £642,103 = $3,210,515; of lead, 71,017 tons were produced, value £1,378,404 = $6,892,020, and 95,236 tons of lead ore were raised, value, £1,150,768 = $5,753,840; of tin ore, 13,953 tons were raised, value, £770,205 = $3,851,025, and 9,300 tons of metallic tin produced, valued at £901,400 = $4,507,000. Of silver, 835,543 ounces, value, £229,773=$1,148,865. Of salt, 1,513,840 tons were produced, valued at £927,227 = $4,636,135; of clays, fine and fire, 1,012,479 tons, of the value of £317,770 = $1,588,850.

Emigration.—The total number of emigrants from the ports of the United Kingdom in 1868, to all quarters, was 196,321. Of these, 155,532 came directly to the United States; 21,062 to British America (and the greater part very soon to the United States); and 12,809 to the Australian Colonies and New Zealand. Of these 196,321 emigrants, 58,268 were English, 14,954 Scotch, 64,961 Irish, and 51,956 foreigners, while the origin of 6,182 was not distinguished; 44,309 were married; 107,468 were single; adults, 38,416 were children under 12 years of age, and of these, 8,096 under one year. Of the adults, 94,765 were men, and 57,012 women. Of the men, 14,454 had trades; 7,258 were farmers, 50,515 were general or agricultural laborers, 7,171 were gentlemen, professional men, and merchants. Of the women, 8,592 were domestic servants. In 1869, the emigration was much larger, owing to the continued depression in many branches of business, and it is likely to increase still further for some

time to come. Just at the close of the year 1869, a meeting was held in London under the presidency of the Lord Mayor, for the purpose of devising ways and means for promoting and greatly enlarging the emigration to the United States and the British colonies. At this meeting, it was stated by Sir James Lawrence that there were hundreds of thousands of people who would be glad to avail themselves of help to emigrate to Canada, Australia, or the United States, on condition of afterward repaying the amount advanced to them. The Lord Mayor said that there were between 70,000 and 80,000 skilled artisans who could not at this time find employment in England, and added that he felt that the sending of skilled laborers out of the country was sending away the very best portion of the community, but there was no alternative, they must either remove them or starve them. The rate-payers are so heavily oppressed by the constantly-increasing poor rates, that they declare that unless relieved they must soon become paupers themselves.

Pauperism in the United Kingdom.—The increase of pauperism since 1866 has been alarming. There had been a period of great distress from the dearth of cotton, culminating in the winter of 1862–'63 (*see* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1863), but from that time until the autumn of 1866 there had been a fair amount of prosperity among the working-classes. The financial panic of that year, and the subsequent extreme fluctuations in the price of cotton, wool, silk, and other raw materials, have continued to exert a malign influence upon manufacturing, and the number not only of unskilled but of skilled laborers who are only kept from starvation by the aid received from the Poor-Law Unions is one of the most serious difficulties with which the statesman is called to grapple. When one-tenth of the entire population are in receipt of temporary or permanent relief from the constituted authorities, aside from the aid afforded by private charity, and when a very considerable proportion of this pauperized class are skilled workmen of various trades, there is ground for suspicion of wrong policy somewhere. In the year ending on Lady's Day (about the 20th or 25th of March), 1866, the entire number receiving *permanent* parish relief from the poor-law guardians in England and Wales was 920,844. Of these 149,820 were able-bodied paupers, and the remainder not able-bodied. In 1867 the number was 958,824, and the proportion about the same. In 1868 it had risen to 1,034,823, of whom 185,630 were able-bodied. In 1869 the number was 1,039,549, and 183,162 were able-bodied. But these numbers do not include vagrants, nor the so-called casual poor, to whom temporary relief is given. In this class (divided into indoor and out-door relief) are included the greater part of these unemployed workmen. A report laid before Parliament in June, 1869, gives the number of these for each year preceding that ending in March, 1868. For the year ending March, 1869, the returns were not received. For the year ending March, 1868, the number receiving in-door relief was 150,040; those in receipt of out-door relief, 842,600, giving a total of 992,640, and making with the other paupers of that year a grand total of 2,027,463 for England and Wales alone. The amount expended for the relief of these dependent classes alone, in that year, was £8,108,829=$40,544,145. That these figures, large as they are, have been materially increased in the nearly two years which have since elapsed is the concurrent testimony of all those who have had occasion to examine the condition of the poor in Great Britain.

In *Scotland* the latest return of paupers and dependants is to the 14th of May, 1868, and gives the total as 128,976, exclusive of the casual poor and vagrants, whose number is not given. If these bear the same proportion to the permanent paupers which they do in England, they should make the grand total about 222,000, and would make the ratio of the dependent poor to the whole population about one to fourteen.

In *Ireland* the returns are for the year ending February 20, 1869, but are obscure. We gather from them that in that year 288,953 were relieved in the work or almshouses, and 19,624 receiving out-door relief. Elsewhere they state that medical out-door relief was furnished, during the year, to 767,759 cases, or about one in every eight of the population. The vagrancy which is so common in Ireland seeks relief generally in begging, and hence the vagrants are not on the books of the poor-law unions to any thing like the extent that they are in England.

Statistics of Crime.—The number of persons committed for trial for felony in England and Wales, in 1868, was 20,091; of these 15,033 were convicted, and 5,015 acquitted. In convict prisons on the 1st of March, 1869, 6,920 male convicts, and about 1,300 female convicts. Aside from these there are a very large number arrested, tried, and convicted on summary process (in police courts, and before county or borough magistrates). These summary convictions amounted, in 1867, to 335,339, out of 474,665 persons proceeded against. There is no reason to suppose that the number was less in 1868. In 1867 there were 167,252 persons in prison on the 29th September, and 145,184 had been committed to prison during the year. There is but slight variation in these aggregates from year to year. There were on the 1st of January, 1869, 64 reformatory and industrial schools in Great Britain (exclusive of Ireland), and 6,248 children in them. The annual expense was £121,697=$608,485.

In *Scotland*, in 1868, there were 3,384 persons charged with criminal offences, of whom 2,822 were tried, 2,490 convicted, and 297 acquitted. This was exclusive of summary trials by police justices and burgh magistrates. How

many there were of these does not appear. The number of vagrants reported by the constabulary for the year ending March, 15, 1869, was 68,036. The number had increased 5,962 from the previous year, and 18,664 in two years.

In *Ireland*, in 1868, 4,127 persons were committed for trial, of whom 2,394 were convicted, and 1,709 acquitted. The summary trials are not reported.

The *police* force of England and Wales, which includes the metropolitan, city, and borough police, and the county constabulary, numbered in January, 1868, 26,073 persons, and its entire cost for the year preceding, was £1,920,508=$9,602,540. The police force in Scotland, in 1869, was 1,878. In June, 1869, the police force in Ireland, including an extra force of 137 men, for Cork city, was 12,994 men, and 380 horses. Its entire cost for the year preceding was £899,872=$4,499,360.

EDUCATION.—The grant for popular education in Great Britain, in 1869, was £840,711=$4,203,555, and in Ireland, £373,950=$1,869,750, making a total for the United Kingdom of $6,073,305 for a population of over 30,000,000. The number of schools receiving annual grants in Great Britain, September 1, 1868 (the latest report yet published), was 14,834, besides which 748 were simply inspected, making a total of 15,572 schools, an increase of 981 from the previous year. The number of certificated teachers was 13,387; of assistants 1,279; and of pupil teachers 13,187. The capacity of these schools for the accommodation of scholars was about 2,400,000, but the attendance at the time of inspection was 1,527,665; the average attendance was 1,241,780, or about five per cent. of the population. The maintenance of these elementary schools, in 1868, cost £1,552,542=$7,762,750, of which £484,010=$2,420,050 was from the government appropriation, and $5,342,660 from endowments, scholars' fees, and the funds of the National School Societies. These societies, numbering 194,745 members, paid, in 1868, for these elementary schools from their subscribed funds £492,941=$1,971,764, and in addition £144,547=$722,735 for building school-houses, and £28,540=$142,720 for the support of training-colleges. Besides these annual-grant schools, there are schools of an inferior grade not inspected, not taught by certificated teachers, and receiving no portion of the government grant, in which there are 1,017,632 scholars, and 321,768 scholars taught in week-day schools of a superior character, or, as we should say, the higher grade of private schools.

The expenditure for building school-houses for the year ending January 1, 1869, was £179,010 = $895,050, of which £34,463 = $172,315, was from public grants, and £144,547 = $722,735, subscribed privately or otherwise. Of this last sum, £131,333 = $656,665, was for Church-of-England schools. The character of the teaching and the standard of attainment in these elementary schools is very low, though improving, and better than in the schools not taught by certificated teachers. Dictation-exercises, reading, writing, and the elementary rules of arithmetic, are the usual range of studies, and even in these, a considerable proportion of the scholars (20.7 per cent., the inspectors say) cannot pass even the very low grade of examination instituted by the inspectors. The average wages of certificated masters, from all sources, were, in 1868, £91 6s. = $456.50 (about $38 per month), and this was an advance of $31 on 1866. Of certificated mistresses of the highest grade, the average salary was, in 1868, £56 2s. = $280.50, an increase of $5.50 on 1866. Of certificated mistresses of infant-schools, the average salary, in 1868, was £54 16s. = $274, an advance of $11.50 on 1866. Fifty-two per cent. of the teachers had, in addition, a house or lodgings (mostly in the country) rent-free.

The buildings for *Normal Schools* have cost £445,977 = $2,229,885, of which £308,010 = $1,540,050 was subscribed, and £137,967 = $689,835 granted by the Government. The expenditure for these for 1868 was £100,586 = $502,930. There were 2,286 resident students, 906 male, 1,380 female; and 1,245 non-residents, 457 males, and 788 females. Of the great endowed schools, the colleges and universities of the United Kingdom, a full account has been given in previous volumes of the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA.

RELIGIOUS STATISTICS. — The Established Church in England (Protestant Episcopal) is governed by 2 archbishops, 26 bishops (24 of them in the House of Lords), 30 deans, 71 archdeacons, 610 rural deans, and about 18,000 clergy of all classes. The incomes of the two archbishops, £15,000 = $75,000, and £10,000 = $50,000, and of several of the bishops, are large, but many of the 13,000 benefices have but a small income. The whole annual income of the Established Church is, in round numbers, about £5,000,000 = $25,000,000. The church population is estimated at 12,500,000, and there are 5,500,000 church-sittings available for them. The Established Church in Ireland, which is to be disestablished in January, 1871, has about 700,000 members, 2 archbishops, 10 bishops, and about 1,700 clergy. There are also 45 colonial sees, with 2,106 clergy, and 6 missionary bishops.

The Roman Catholic Church has in England 1 archbishop and 12 bishops, 67 communities, 232 convents, and 20 colleges, 1,690 clergy, 1,329 churches, with about two million adherents; in Scotland, 1 archbishop and 2 bishops in *partibus infidelium;* in Ireland, 4 archbishops, 24 bishops, 1,391 clergy, and 4,490,583 adherents.

The Established Church of Scotland (Presbyterian) has 16 synods, 84 presbyteries, about 1,300 ministers, 1,250 churches, and 1,800 Sunday-schools, with 140,000 scholars. Its adherents number about 1,500,000. Its annual contributions for home and mission purposes are

about $700,000. The Free Church of Scotland (Presbyterian) is a voluntary church, a secession from the Establishment, and has 16 synods, 71 presbyteries, 880 ministers, 923 congregations, and about half a million adherents. It has 81,891 scholars in its Sunday-schools, and raised, in 1867, £367,527 = $1,842,635 for home and mission purposes. It has a sustentation-fund, from which is paid annually to its clergy an average sum of £140 = $700, by way of salary, and they have in addition, in a large proportion of the churches, manses or parsonages. The other Presbyterian bodies of the United Kingdom are: the United Presbyterian Church, extending over the whole kingdom, with 81 presbyteries, 593 churches, 575 ministers, and about 160,000 members, which raises £260,000 = $1,300,000 for benevolent purposes; the Presbyterian Church in Ireland, with 37 presbyteries, 598 ministers, 560 congregations, 123,000 members, 58,000 scholars in its Sunday-schools, and raising £84,000 = $420,000 for benevolent objects; the Presbyterian Church in England, with 7 presbyteries, 113 churches, 110 ministers, 20,000 communicants, and 15,500 Sunday-scholars; and six smaller bodies, with an aggregate of about 137 churches and 136 ministers.

Of the Dissenting communities, the Methodists, divided into the Wesleyan Body, the New Connection, the Primitive Methodists, the Bible Christians, and the Methodist Free Church, are the most numerous. They count, in all, about 618,000 communicants. The Wesleyan Body has 5,024 chapels, 2,215 ministers, 317,200 members, and 826,775 Sunday-scholars. The New Connection has 659 chapels, 259 circuit, and 1,274 local preachers, 38,095 members, and 75,416 Sunday-scholars. The Primitive Methodists have 3,360 chapels, 161,229 members, 943 itinerant and 14,169 local preachers, and 258,857 Sunday-scholars. The Bible Christians have 417 chapels, 65 itinerant and 957 local preachers, 26,221 members, and 22,000 Sunday-scholars. The Methodist Free Church has 817 chapels, 271 itinerant and 3,246 local preachers; 70,000 members, and 140,000 Sunday-scholars.

The Independents or Congregationalists have 78 associations, 3,300 churches, 2,876 ministers and missionaries, and about 340,000 members. The Welsh Calvinistic Methodists and the Countess of Huntingdon's Connection, who are also Congregationalists in doctrine, have 759 chapels, 700 ministers, 95,000 members, and 140,000 Sunday-scholars.

The Baptists, of whom there are several separate sects, have 2,447 churches, 2,000 ministers, 231,506 members, and 267,396 Sunday-scholars. They raise for benevolent and missionary purposes about $700,000 per annum.

The Unitarians have 277 ministers, 270 chapels, and about 80 missionary stations. The Jews have 80 synagogues, about 100 ministers, and 50,000 adherents. The Friends have 327 meeting-houses, 665 ministers, and 17,000 members. The Moravians, 88 churches, 55 ministers, 5,550 members, 3,220 communicants, and 6,200 Sunday-scholars. The New Jerusalem Church has 50 societies, with 3,724 registered members, 56 schools, and 9,384 Sunday-scholars. The Mormons have 82 churches. There are also numerous minor sects.

GREECE, a kingdom in Southeastern Europe. The present ruler is George I., "King of the Hellenes," born December 24, 1845, the third son of the King of Denmark, brother-in-law to the Prince of Wales and to the hereditary Grand-duke of Russia. Queen Olga is the daughter of the Grand-duke Constantine, a younger brother of the Emperor of Russia. The issue of the union are two sons, Prince Constantine, born at Athens, August 5, 1868; and George, born June 24, 1869. The King has thus far displayed no marked ability, but it must be admitted that he rules over a disorganized country, inhabited by a race which is rather turbulent and lawless, and that the country is laboring under financial mismanagement and the effects of yet novel institutions. He succeeded to the throne, after the overthrow of King Otho by a successful revolution, by virtue of a protocol signed by the protecting powers, June 5, 1863. He was declared to have arrived at his majority, June 27, 1863, by the Greek National Assembly; arrived at the Piræus on the 30th of October, and the next day assumed the crown. The legislative power, according to the Constitution of 1864, resides in a single Chamber of Deputies, who are elected for four years by direct vote, and are 170 in number. There are a supreme court (Areopagus), four courts of appeal, a court of claims, and sixteen district tribunals. The population of Greece proper is 1,096,810, that of the Ionian Islands, 251,172, making a total of 1,348,522. The population in the towns has been increasing. The Greek rite is the national religion, but the Latin rite is tolerated. On the main-land the Greek Church has four archbishops and four bishops, in Peloponnesus four archbishops and six bishops, in the Ægean Islands one archbishop and three bishops, and in the Ionian Islands five archbishops and bishops. The Latins have two archbishops and four bishops.

At the close of the year 1868, the Turkish Government had accepted the proposition of a European Conference which had been made by Prussia, France, and Russia, for the purpose of settling in a peaceable manner its conflict with Greece. Its consent had been given, however, on the condition that its ultimatum of December 11th should be the basis of the negotiations. The Conference was held in Paris, from January 9th to February 18th. In its first sitting it received the following note, presented by the Greek plenipotentiary, A. B. Rangabé:

I deeply regret to be unable to accept the invitation you honored me with, to assist at the sittings of the Conference with a consultative voice.

The object of the Conference being to deal with a

difference which has sprung up between Greece and Turkey, Greece cannot take part in it unless she assists at it on the same footing as the other party. She cannot accept a position of inferiority.

If one of the contending parties is called to sit in the Conference in virtue of her title of great power, Greece, without wishing to lay any stress upon that appreciation, cannot admit the doctrine that the great powers only have the right of having, in contests to which they are parties, a voice which is refused to their adversaries.

If it is because she signed the Treaty of Paris of 1856 that Turkey is admitted to the Conference, and that Greece is excluded from it, I am bound to observe that the special incident to which the Conference proposes to limit its work has no connection whatever with the stipulations of that treaty, which, being taken for the basis of the Conference, presents the serious inconvenience of making an unequal position for the two parties equally concerned, and which put forward mutual grievances.

Whether the Conference has in view an act of arbitration or a work of conciliation, in both cases Greece must take part in it only on the same footing as Turkey.

I have the honor to hand the present remonstrance to the members of the Conference, confiding in their feelings of equity. In case the Conference should not think proper to do justice to it, I am instructed to withdraw and to take no part in its deliberations.

In the ensuing note of Rangabé, explaining the motives of his refusal to assist at the Conference, he states the causes of the conflict, replies to the Turkish ultimatum, and offers conditionally certain measures of compromise on the part of his Government. The following is the text:

1. *Causes of the Conflict.*—The powers assembled in conference having decided that they would confine themselves to the consideration of the present difference only, without reference to its primary cause, it is evident that the sole immediate cause to which the rupture can be attributed is to be found in the very strong notes and the ultimatum recently addressed by the Ottoman Government to Greece. There has not been on the part of the latter any thing which could be considered as a provocation.

It cannot be said that the constant attitude of Greece toward Turkey during the last three years constitutes this provocation. This attitude is not a new fact which could properly justify a sudden resolution. It has been, moreover, on many occasions, on the part of the Greek minister, the subject of free explanations, the importance of which the Turkish Government appeared to understand and to be satisfied with. After all, to go back to this distant cause would be to overstep the limits fixed by the Conference, and Greece would then have the right to claim also an examination of the causes which led to her conduct, and to seek to justify the liveliness of her sympathies for the Cretans.

But it has been said, it is just because the grievances were old, that the cup was full of them, only one drop was required to make it run over: this drop was the insult given to the Turkish minister by the volunteers, who, on their way to Crete, passed under his windows, in full daylight, with their flag flying, the Greek Government being unable or unwilling to prevent them.

This fact, deplorable as it would have been, even supposing that its authors had only in view to brave or to compromise the government, was, nevertheless, of an order which, between governments careful of the peace of the world, was capable of arrangement by explanations or reparations demanded and received in a spirit of conciliation. But the incident did not take place; M. Delyannis, the Greek Minister of Foreign Affairs, in one of his answers to M. Photiades Bey, expressly told him so. This denial, which would have been impossible had it not been true, remained without a reply. Action was, therefore, taken at Constantinople with lamentable precipitancy, on information too lightly received and communicated. The rupture was provoked by an ultimatum which was not justified by any new or immediate cause.

2. *Ultimatum.*—Let us pass to the ultimatum itself; let us examine its conditions, to see how far they are practical or just, and to what point Greece owed it to herself to reject them, or could conform herself to them to serve the interests of peace. These conditions are five in number:

First Point.—That Greece shall assume the express obligation to conform herself for the future to existing treaties between herself and Turkey, and in general to international laws.

Second Point.—To punish, in conformity to the laws, those who have been guilty of attacks upon Ottoman soldiers or citizens, and to indemnify the victims of these crimes.

Third Point.—That the Cretan families should be allowed freely to embark to return to their homes, and that the Greek Government should effectually protect their reëntry into their own country.

Fourth Point.—That the ships the Enosis, the Crete, and the Panhellenium, be disarmed, or, at least, that the Greek ports be closed against them.

Fifth Point.—That the bands of volunteers now existing shall be broken up, and that the formation of new ones shall be prevented.

Having replied to each of these five points severally, Rangabé sums up as follows, and shows the willingness of Greece to accept an amicable arrangement:

But the Porte did not content herself to send to Greece an ultimatum so ill supported. It also accompanied it by violent measures, which have greatly aggravated the difficulties of the situation. One of her naval officers gave chase with hostile intentions, in the Greek Archipelago, to a merchant-ship with the Greek flag, menaced violent measures, and blocked up one of the ports of Greece. The Greek subjects have been requested to leave Turkey in a very short time, to the great injury of their material interests, and the Turkish ports have been shut up to the Greek ships, thereby inflicting on our trade an incalculable loss. Greece has not had recourse to reprisals. She deems it is a duty imposed upon her by justice and humanity to lessen as much as possible the disastrous effects of a conflict, and not to make innocents suffer by them. She has declared that the Ottoman subjects established on her territory would continue to enjoy the protection of her laws. In conformity with the decision of the legal advisers of the crown, a copy of which is hereby annexed, she recognizes that the Turkish rear-admiral was entitled to summon before the competent courts of justice the captain of the Enosis, of whose conduct he complains. Having shown such a spirit of moderation, Greece has the right to insist that, before resuming her ancient relations of friendship with Turkey, Turkey should authorize, on her own side, the indictment of the Turkish rear-admiral on the charges brought against him by the captain of the Enosis; that she should give reparation for the treatment she has inflicted on Greece; that she should indemnify Greece for all the great losses she has suffered from the measures ordered by the Porte. Lastly, that she should give real guarantees for henceforth behaving better toward the Greeks, and treating them on the same footing as the subjects of the other European nations.

To sum up these considerations, we shall say that Greece declines the responsibility of the immediate cause of the actual rupture, reserving to herself to come back to the oldest causes, should the question about them be raised. Of the five points of the ultimatum, the first two, as in the order enumerated in

this memoir, have no importance at all; that the third is admitted by Greece, entirely and without restriction; that the two others are repulsed by the principles of international law, as well as by the national legislation. Consequently, Greece could not submit to them without renouncing her rights, without treading upon the liberties of her citizens; lastly, without exposing herself to consequences that would be full of dangers to her as well as to other countries. The ultimatum ought to be entirely withdrawn, partly as unjust; Turkey ought to defer to competent courts of justice the conduct of the rear-admiral and grant to Greece reparation and indemnities determined by an equitable examination, and Turkey ought also to guarantee that, in the future, she would treat the Greek subjects on the same footing as the most favored nation. On its side the Greek Government would promise, in the most formal way: 1. To put no obstacle to the departure of the Candiotes willing to return to their native country, not to allow any authority nor any Greek subject to oppose such departure, and to severely punish all those who should attempt it. 2. Not to permit any officer, non-commissioned officer, soldier, or civil employé of the State to take up arms on behalf of the insurgents. 3. Not to permit that any ship belonging to the State, with full armament or otherwise, should convey ammunition and assistance to the Cretans. 4. To authorize the indictment of the captain of the Enosis upon a legal complaint of the Turkish rear-admiral.

After the Conference had closed its deliberations, Count Charles Walewski was sent as bearer of the protocol to Athens. The text of the protocol is as follows:

Justly concerned for the dangers which may result from the breach of relations between Turkey and Greece, the powers who signed the treaty of 1856 have come to an understanding to make up the quarrel which has arisen between the two states, and, with this view, have authorized their representatives at the court of his Majesty the Emperor of the French to meet in conference. After careful consideration of the documents exchanged between the two governments, the plenipotentiaries have agreed to regret that, yielding to impulses by which its patriotism has misled it, Greece has given ground for the complaints preferred by the Porte in her ultimatum addressed on December 11, 1868, to the Minister for Foreign Affairs of his Majesty the King of the Hellenes. It is, in fact, beyond doubt that the principles of the law of nations require of Greece, as of all other nations, not to permit the recruitment of bands on its territory, nor that ships should be armed in its ports, for the purpose of attacking a neighboring state. Persuaded, besides, that the Cabinet of Athens cannot misunderstand the thought which inspires this appreciation on the part of the protecting powers of Greece, as on that of the other powers who signed the Treaty of 1856, the Conference declares that it is incumbent on the Hellenic Government to observe for the future in its relations with Turkey the rules of conduct which are common to all governments, and thus to comply with the demands preferred by the Porte, as regards the past, by at the same time reassuring it for the future. Greece should, therefore, for the future abstain from favoring or tolerating the formation within its territory of all bands meant to act against Turkey, and should take the necessary measures to prevent the armament in its ports of vessels intended to aid, in whatever manner, any attempt at insurrection within the possessions of his Majesty the Sultan.

As regards the private damage incurred by Ottoman subjects, the Cabinet of Athens in no way contests the right of Turkey to recover judicially whatever compensation may be due, and Turkey, on its side, having accepted the jurisdiction of the Hellenic tribunals, the plenipotentiaries do not consider themselves called on to investigate crimes nor to discuss complaints preferred on this point. As to the demand of the Sublime Porte which concerns the return home of the Turkish subjects who have taken refuge on Greek territory, the Conference takes note of the declarations made by the Cabinet of Athens in its note of December 9th, and is convinced that it will, so far as depends upon it, facilitate the departure of such of the Cretan families as may wish to return to their country.

The Conference cannot doubt that, in presence of the unanimous expression of the opinion of the plenipotentiaries on the points submitted for their consideration, the Hellenic Government will at once reconcile its acts with the principles which have now been recalled to its recollection, and that the complaints expressed in the *ultimatum* of the Sublime Porte will be definitely removed.

This declaration will, without delay, be brought to the knowledge of the Cabinet of Athens, and the plenipotentiaries feel convinced that the Sublime Porte will abandon the measures announced by it as the result of the rupture of diplomatic relations.

The Greek ministry disapproved of this decision of the Conference, and gave in its resignation on February 2d. The King, however, was determined to yield, and accepted the resignation.

After several fruitless attempts to obtain a ministry sufficiently strong, yet willing to submit to the protocol of the Paris Conference, a new ministry was definitively constituted on February 6th, consisting of the following members: Zainis, President of Interior; Sontros, War; Avierino, Finance; Polialix, Justice; Sarava, Public Worship; Trigetos, Marine; Theodore Delyannis, Foreign Affairs (cousin of the former minister D.). The latter at once notified the Paris Conference, by the following dispatch, that Greece accepted the decision of the Conference:

ATHENS, *February* 6, 1869.

To the French Minister of Foreign Affairs:

SIR: My predecessor, M. Delyannis, has handed over to me the letter you were kind enough to write on the 20th of January, together with the accompanying declaration issued by the plenipotentiaries of the six great powers assembled in conference at Paris, with a view to examine, in a spirit of conciliation, the difficulty which has arisen between Greece and Turkey.

I cannot disguise the fact that the result of the deliberations of the Conference has been received by the whole Greek nation with sentiments of painful emotion; and as a ministerial crisis occurred, and lasted for many days, no reply could be made during this interval to the letter of your Excellency.

The ministry to which I have the honor to belong made it its duty, as soon as it was fully constituted, to take the contents of your letter, and of the declaration accompanying it, into serious consideration.

The King's Government has seen, with regret, that the minister of his Majesty at Paris could not take part in the labors of the Conference, by reason of the position of inferiority in which he was placed with reference to the Turkish plenipotentiary.

Looking at the unanimity displayed by the six chief European powers, and at your declaration that the plenipotentiaries, in dismissing all controversy as to facts, only wished to lay down the rules of conduct which ought to govern the relations of Greece and Turkey, I lose no time in informing you that the King's Government adheres to the general principles of international law laid down by the declaration of the Conference, and is prepared to regulate its attitude in conformity with those principles.

While praying your Excellency to bring this adhesion to the cognizance of the Conference, I entertain the hope that the six great powers, appreciating the difficulties of the situation, will do justice to the desire of Greece to defer to their wishes, and to contribute what in her lies to the maintenance of general tranquillity.

I take this opportunity to express my high esteem for your Excellency, and remain, etc.,

THEODORE P. DELYANNIS.

The new ministry also issued at once instructions to the military and naval officers, countermanding the orders for warlike preparations. A Greek *chargé d'affaires* arrived, March 20th, at Constantinople, to renew the diplomatic relations with Turkey.

The new Chambers, in June, were opened by the King. He announced that new laws would be required for the organization of the educational system of the country. He said that it was the intention of the nation to fulfil her monetary obligations; therefore, a further development of her resources was desirable, and, in that connection, proposed the cutting of a ship-canal through the Isthmus of Corinth.

The army is composed of 561 officers, 2,125 sub-officers, and 8,774 privates—total, 11,464; but has been raised to an effective force of 31,300, comprising 14,300 regular and 17,000 irregular troops. The exact strength of the navy is not certain. At the beginning of 1866 it was composed of one frigate, two corvettes, seven steamers, and twenty-six transports, carrying 114 guns.

The budget for 1868 was: Receipts, 46,666,404 drachmas, or $8,066,619.88; expenses, 46,745,000 drachmas, or $8,080,205.76, being $5.99 *per capita*. This is not a fair exhibit, however, since the deficiency for 1864 amounted to 6,000,000 drachmas, and that of 1865 to between four and five millions—that for 1867 not yet having been published. It is thus proper to infer a deficiency in last year's estimates. The amount of the public debt it is difficult to ascertain. The official account of 1865 made it $51,823,342.76, or $38.42 *per capita;* the report of the Minister of Finance, in 1866, made it $42,546,533.04, or $30.80 *per capita;* while the *Elois*, an Athenian journal, produces official evidence to show that it is actually $88,917,711.52, or 65.98 *per capita*.

GREEK CHURCH.* One of the most important events in the whole recent history of the Greek Church is undoubtedly a letter addressed by the Patriarch of Constantinople to the Archbishop of Canterbury, in reply to one written by the Archbishop to the Patriarch, forwarding a copy of the English Prayer Book. The Patriarch's letter is dated September 26 (i. e., October 8, N. S.), 1869, and was published in the Constantinople newspaper, *Neologos*, on October 11 (23d). The letter (as translated by the Rev. George Williams) reads as follows:

* For the latest statistics of the Greek Church, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

✠ Gregory, by the mercy of God Archbishop of Constantinople, the new Rome, and Œcumenical Patriarch, to the most holy Archbishop, the Metropolitan of Canterbury, and Exarch of the Christians of the Anglican Confession in Great Britain, the Lord Archibald Campbell: peace from God and brotherly salutation in Christ.

Having received, with the greatest joy, the highly-esteemed letter sent by your venerable Sanctity to our humility, we were moved to the inmost heart, as was meet, both at the thanks you so kindly expressed to us, for the fulfilment of what was at once a Christian and canonical duty, in sending our Protocyncellus to the consecration performed by the most beloved of God, the Bishop of Gibraltar, the Lord Charles Amyand, and also at the communication in a spirit of brotherly love of your desire and prayers, that there may be upon earth one elect flock and one Chief Shepherd—our Lord, uniting those that are divided, and guiding all, so that they may think and speak the same thing, and work together for the increase of His Kingdom.

We also night and day, praying our God and Saviour for these very things, do not cease, on every occasion, both to rejoice and, so far as we can, to coöperate readily in every good work and every good design, tending to the edification and perfection of our neighbor, and to the enlightenment and common agreement of all, and to the unity that is in Christ Jesus. Nor do we only pray for this; but we also expect and anticipate it from the common Father, and God the Saviour, and His Spirit; when many shall be taught, and the knowledge of the most ancient and unadulterated Orthodoxy shall be extended which the primitive and Catholic Church of Christ delivered to us, free from error, through the Apostolic heralds of God, and the God-bearing Father, and the seven venerable and God-moved Œcumenical Councils.

But, as to the burial of your countrymen, be it known to your much-desired Holiness, that even if we had not been expressly exhorted and requested by any of the venerable British bishops, we would of ourselves have granted every permission to bury English strangers deceased within our cemeteries, at the request of their relatives; well-knowing that "the earth is the Lord's, and the fulness thereof." This, then, we will much rather permit for the future, from consideration to your Holiness, beloved of Christ, and in recompense, as is meet, of the tribute of brotherly kindness, on the sole condition that no private right of property is in any case acquired in the ground in which they are buried.

Having very gratefully received the sacred Prayer Book of your Anglican Confession, presented to us by you, we have deferred an answer chiefly on this account, that having more leisurely perused this Ecclesiastical Book, we might more accurately ascertain how far it inclines to or diverges from genuine Evangelical and Catholic teaching; and how far it confirms that statement of the Preface (p. 7), that "it contains nothing contrary to the Word of God, and to sound doctrine."

In the mean time, having gladly received the Encyclical Epistle published by the Anglican bishops assembled two years since in England, to which is prefixed the commendatory letter of your ever-to-be-remembered Eminence, and perceiving from it that they distinctly confess and affirm, simply and in general, that they hold firmly and immovably the Holy Scriptures as the Word of God, and that they maintain the Creeds of one Holy and Apostolic Church, and keep pure and undefiled its ancient order and worship * * * and reject all novelty, and are endeavoring to publish abroad in all the earth the saving preaching of the Gospel—perceiving, we say, all this so distinctly and generally affirmed in words, we rejoiced greatly in our soul, suspecting the approach and dawn of the gathering together in one and the same fold of the Lord, and the union of all the spiritual sheep elsewhere.

But on descending to the particulars of the contents of the Prayer Book, and of the distinguished Confession of the Thirty-nine Articles contained in it—since in the perusal of them, both the statements concerning the eternal existence of the Holy Spirit, and those concerning the Divine Eucharist; and further, those concerning the number of the Sacraments, concerning Apostolical and Ecclesiastical tradition, the authority of the truly genuine Œcumenical Councils, the position and mutual relations of the Church on earth and that in heaven; and moreover the honor and reverence due from us to those who are, in theory and practice, the heroes of the faith—the adamantine martyrs and athletes—since we say, these statements appeared to us to savor too much of novelty; and that which is said (p. 592, Art. 19), "As the Churches of Jerusalem, Alexandria, and Antioch have erred, so also the Church of Rome hath erred, not only in their living and manner of ceremonies, but also in matters of faith," deprives the Eastern Churches of the orthodoxy and perfection of the faith—(let us be permitted to say that accusations of our neighbor are out of place in a distinguished Confession of Faith)—these statements throw us into suspense, so that we doubt what we are to judge of the rule of Anglican orthodoxy. We would therefore pray with our whole soul to the Author and Finisher of our salvation to enlighten the understanding of all with the light of His knowledge, and to make of all nations one speech of the one faith, and of the one love, and of the one hope of the Gospel; that with one mouth and one heart, as merciful children of one and the same Mother, the Church—the Catholic Church of the First-begotten—we may glorify the Triune God.

May His saving grace be with your Holiness, dearly beloved to us in Christ, and with all the God-beloved flock subject to you.

September 26, 1869.

The letter made a sensation both in England and in the East, and greatly strengthened the hopes of those who look forward to a final union of the Eastern and the Anglican Churches. A French newspaper of Constantinople, entitled *Le Phare du Bosphore*, edited by a member of the Orthodox Church, says: "At the time when Panslavism, represented by the Orthodox Cabinet of the North, is inciting the Bulgarians to rebel against the Œcumenical Church of Constantinople, and when the court of Rome is assembling the chiefs of the Catholic Church in order to strengthen, if possible, the tottering basis of the temporal power of the Popes, the union of the three—namely, the Œcumenical, the Armenian, and the Anglican Churches—is being prepared, without either pomp, demonstration, or noise. If political circumstances, and the troubles in which Orthodox Jesuitism—Panslavism—have thrown the Œcumenical Church, have a little delayed the smoothing of the path which leads to the triple union of these Churches, we can easily understand that for the future the three churches will do their best to attain their object. For our part we most earnestly wish for the success of this great end, and will never cease to further it as much as is within our power."

In November, 1869, another act of the Patriarch of Constantinople gladdened the hearts of the friends of the union movement. The Patriarch and synod of Constantinople addressed a letter to every bishop of the Patriarchate, directing each of them, in accordance with a request made by the Archbishop of Canterbury, to issue orders to the priests in the diocese to bury in the churchyard of their parish, whenever so desired, members of the English Church dying among them. The Patriarch in this letter directs that, when a priest of the English Church is present, then the cemetery shall be given up to him, and that, in the absence of any minister of the English Church, two priests of the Orthodox Church shall accompany the body of every member of the English Church. The Patriarch himself has selected from the long office for burial—because of its great length rarely or never read entire—such portions as are in conformity with the burial-office of the English Church.

The greatest trouble which the Greek Church has had during the present century proceeds from the Bulgarian question, which has of late obtained a political no less than an ecclesiastical importance; for a proper understanding, a brief history of the question is indispensable. After a long contest between the Bulgarians and the Greek Emperors, in the fifth century, Bogoris, one of their kings, established a peace with the Emperor of Constantinople, and accepted the Christian religion. His people followed his example, and the Bulgarian Church was placed under the supervision of the Greek Patriarch till fifty years later, when Simeon became King. He broke the treaty, marched against Constantinople and compelled the Emperor, Romanus, to concede the complete political and ecclesiastical independence of the Bulgarian Church. The power of the Bulgarians ended with Simeon. Overcome on the North by the Russians, and on the South by the Byzantines, they were again placed under the Greek Patriarchs, and did not regain the enjoyment of ecclesiastical independence till the latter part of the twelfth century. In 1393 their country was conquered by the Turks. For a while many of the Bulgarians became outwardly Mohammedans, but, as religious freedom increased, returned to their earlier faith, and the Bulgarian Church was made an appanage of that of Constantinople. Good feeling prevailed then between the Bulgarians and the Greeks, and the Sultan filled the Bulgarian sees with Greek prelates, who were acceptable to the people. As the Bulgarian nobility was exterminated and the people oppressed by wars which followed, there was, until the beginning of the present century, scarcely a single voice raised against the foreign Episcopate. But the national feeling began to assert itself about fifty years ago, and the Greek Patriarch was compelled to authorize several reforms. Abuses continued, however, and the national feeling increased, so that the Patriarch was obliged, in 1848, to approve the erection of a Bulgarian Church and of a school for the education of priests in the capital. The demand of the Bulgarians for the restoration of their

nationality, in 1856, again aroused the slumbering zeal of the Greeks, and the differences between the two nationalities have continued very active till the present time. The Porte in 1862 named a mixed commission to investigate and settle the difficulties. It proposed two plans of adjustment.

According to one of these plans, the Bulgarian Church was to name the bishops of those districts in which the Bulgarian population is in the majority. The other plan accorded to the Bulgarians the right to have a metropolitan in every province, and a bishop in every diocese where there is a strong Bulgarian population. Both plans were rejected, and the Turkish Government, having been to considerable pains for nothing, left the contentionists to settle the controversy in their own way. Accordingly, the Greek Patriarch, in 1869, proposed a general council, and solicited the different churches of the Greek confession for their opinions and advice on the subject. Greece, Roumania, and Servia, declared themselves in favor of the council. On the other hand, the Holy Synod of St. Petersburg, for the Russian Church, declared the claims of the Bulgarians to be excessive, and that, although it considered a council the only lawful means of settling the points at issue, it feared a schism if the demands of the Bulgarians were not contradicted, and was further afraid that the fulfilment of the demands of the canons would be refused, and advised the continuance of the *status quo*. The real questions, of which the settlement has been thus put off, are not ecclesiastical, but national. The Bulgarians, however, irresolute as they may have been in former times in ecclesiastical concerns, are now in earnest about them. They are not striving for any change in the creed, but for a complete separation from the jurisdiction of Constantinople. The dissension between the Bulgarian nation and the Patriarch of Constantinople has greatly favored the missionary efforts of the Roman Catholic priests among them. Several years ago the Pope appointed Mgr. Sokolski the first bishop of those Bulgarians who had entered the union with Rome, and who constituted the nucleus of a united Bulgarian Church, which, like the other united Oriental Churches, accepts the doctrines of the Roman Catholic Church, but is allowed to retain the ancient customs of the national Church (marriage of the priest, use of the Slavic language at divine service, etc.). Mgr. Sokolski was quite on a sudden carried off from Constantinople (as was commonly thought, by Russian agents), and has never been heard of again. In 1855 Raphael Popof was consecrated the successor of Sokolski. He resides at Adrianople, and under his administration the membership of the United Bulgarian Church increased (up to 1869) to over 9,000 souls, of whom 3,000 live in Constantinople, 2,000 in Salonichi and Monastir, 1,000 in Adrianople, and 3,000 in the vicinity of Adrianople. The clergy of this church consisted of ten secular priests.

Another difficulty arose in the Greek Church, in the course of the year 1869, in consequence of the excommunication of the new Patriarch Nilos of Alexandria by the Patriarch of Constantinople. The Patriarchs of Antioch and Jerusalem declared this measure to be entirely unjustified. The Holy Synod of the Kingdom of Greece sent the Archbishop of Phokis, one of the most learned bishops of the Church, as a special envoy to both parties, to prevent the excommunication, but his mission was unsuccessful.

According to a summary which was furnished to Prof. Seymour, of the General Theological Seminary at New York, by the Rev. Charles R. Hale, chaplain in the United States Navy, the hierarchy of all the Russias consisted in 1868 of four metropolitans—of Kiev and Galicia, Novgorod and St. Petersburg, Moscow and Kolomna, Lithuania and Vilna—twenty-one archbishops, thirty-two bishops, twenty-eight vicar-bishops, and sixteen bishops demissionary.

The Holy Governing Synod of all the Russias in that year was composed as follows: Arsenius, Metropolitan of Kiev and Galicia; Isidore, Metropolitan of Novgorod and St. Petersburg; Innocent, Metropolitan of Moscow and Kolomna; Joseph, Metropolitan of Lithuania and Vilna; Eusebius, Exarch of Georgia, Archbishop of Kartalenia and Cachetia; Eugene, Archbishop (Demissionary) of Jaroslav and Rostov; Basil, Archbishop (Demissionary) of Polotsk and Vitebsk; and the Archpriest Basil Bajanoff, chaplain to their Majesties, and Chaplain-General of the corps of Guards and Grenadiers. Besides, the Archbishops of Nijni Novgorod and Arsamas, and of Kharkov and Aktyr, and the Archpriest John Rojdestvarsky, the Ober-procurator and the Vice-procurator, are entitled Prisoutsvouustchie, and take part in the deliberations of the Holy Synod, but are not, strictly speaking, members of it.

The following statistics of the Russo-Greek Church were compiled by the Countess Olga Pontiatine for the year 1865: monasteries, 393; monks, 5,695; convents, 148; nuns, 3,069; churches, 34,909; chapels, 130; parochial clergy, 37,702; clerks and deacons, 76,587; hospitals, etc., at monasteries and churches, 550; schools at monasteries and churches, 19,437; *number of Orthodox*, 55,000,000; *number of converts:* Roman Catholics, 49,000; Armenians, 23; Protestants, 589; Rascolnicks, 1,407; Jews, 487; Mohammedans, 529; heathen, 2,189; *Edinovertzi*, 802. Total converts, 54,968. There are no correct statistics as to convents and nuns in the Crimea, Bessarabia, Ekaterinoslav, Volhynia, Tomsk, and the Exarchate of Georgia, nor concerning the churches and clergy in Volhynia and Tomsk. In 1866, 519 churches were erected.

The clergy of the Greek Orthodox Church of Russia are divided into three classes: the

black, or the clergy of the cloisters, to whom belong all the dignitaries, and by far the larger portion of the teachers in the clerical schools; the white, or secular clergy, the members of which form an hereditary caste and are obliged to marry, but on the death of the wife leave the clerical rank, or enter the cloister; and the servile clergy, likewise an hereditary rank, to whom belong the deacons, sacristans, choir-singers, and the church-scholars who have not been able to pass examination. All nominations are in the hands of the bishops, who, with their court-circle of monks, exercise an almost unlimited authority. It appears from the statistical reports that from 1841 to 1857 a total of 1,569 women and 4,147 men entered the Russian cloisters, of whom more than two-thirds were descendants of the clerical order, and only 88 noble. A prejudice prevails among the higher classes of Russian society against the Greek cloister-life; Russians of rank, who wish to become monks, frequently go abroad, become Roman Catholics, and generally enter the order of Jesuits. Since the emancipation of the serfs the peasants are also less inclined to enter the cloisters, but prefer to unite with the secret societies of monks of the sect of old believers. According to the Russian law, no one, who has not gone through the course of the seminaries, can go into a cloister before his thirtieth year. But favor is shown the sons of priests who cannot pass examination, and their novitiate, instead of three years, is allowed to endure from twelve to fifteen years. Thus every cloister has a number of indolent and stupid youth, whose time is divided between menial employments and idleness. Besides these people, there are connected with the cloisters those monks who have mastered the seminary course with honor, or have obtained learned degrees at the Academy, for the monastic clergy possess all the higher offices, and the directors of the clerical institutions take especial care to gain their most gifted pupils for the tonsure. The bishops are the overseers of the clerical institutions in their districts, and give the monastic clergy, to which they belong themselves, the preference. In this control by the monks of the educational institutions lies the guarantee of their continued increase. In it also is the foundation of the hostility between the "black" and the "white" clergy. This hostility forms the characteristic peculiarity of the Russian clergy, and the standing mark for the assaults of the reform press.

The Russian monks have been very richly recompensed by the Government for the confiscation of their lands and the curtailment of their prerogatives, and have received large rewards from the public for the exercise of clerical offices, so that the receipts of the most prominent monasteries amount to half a million silver rubles. The Alexander Newsky Monastery in St. Petersburg has been paid for burial-places within its walls from 1,500 to 3,000 rubles. The monasteries send out monks with registry-books, in which laymen subscribe certain sums of money for particular prayers. A monk of Athos collected in this manner 20,000 rubles. At the coronation of the present Czar there were 800 of these collectors in Moscow, and the Czar was obliged to restrain them. The Sergius Cloister at Moscow receives from the collector's books, which it has placed all along the railway from Moscow to St. Petersburg, 200,000 rubles annually. In time of epidemics, a holy image, which is taken to the sick by two, four, or six horses, according to rank or condition, has brought in 27,000 rubles. The monasteries have also the privilege of baking the sacramental wafers, from which a monastery at Kiev realizes about 50,000 rubles. There are no begging or barefooted monks in Russia, and the monasteries are richer than even in Roman Catholic countries. The so-called cloisters with particular lines are held in especial regard, in which only simple wants of the monks are cared for on the side of the cloister, and the surplus is divided among the members without taking account of it. The Episcopal houses, with their many monks, have monastic rights and privileges; among them, the incense and the catechism in each diocese are the monopoly of the bishop.

In contrast with this wealth, the poverty of the secular clergy is pitiable; the entire real property brings to nearly 190,000 priests not more than 86,000 rubles rent, the members receive from the state at most 300 rubles, and the rest of their support is drawn from fees, which in the large cities are not inconsiderable, but in the rural districts are exceedingly small. In some cases they may amount to from 4,000 to 5,000 rubles, but do not average more than from 150 to 200 rubles. An annual circuit, which the priest makes at Epiphany, at the head of his dependants, from house to house, is the chief source of revenue. But it frequently happens that the servant meets the priest in the hall, and offers him a gift, but forbids his blessing the house—which is the essential point. Not much more pleasurable is the duty laid upon the poor priests of seeing that each Russian partakes of the sacrament once in every year. They depend largely upon the communion-offerings for support.

The classical authors of Russian literature are forbidden in most of the seminaries, as are also the possession of newspapers, and a resort to the libraries, which had increased very much in the last ten years. Whence it comes that such scholars, who have completed the course of the clerical schools, and will not become priests, often cannot pass even the reception examination for the university, and that, although 5,000 graduates in theology have gone out from the clerical academies since 1859, not more than a dozen and a half of theological works have appeared. And the pupils, forbidden wholesome lectures, turn to the revolutionary and atheistical works of the

German and French communists. It is a fact that a large number of the turbulent spirits of Young Russia received their education in the ecclesiastical institutions.

The Russian Government has during the year 1869 commenced a radical reform of the clergy by the promulgation of a decree, by which the hereditary levitical character of the Russo-Greek priesthood is to be forever abolished. The measure, according to the *Moscow Gazette*, has been carefully prepared, to avoid the infringement of justice in respect to vested interests. The children of the clergy lose none of their rights with the abolition of the hereditary character of the clerical office. If born of priests or deacons, they will in future have the status of "personal nobility" (that is, the social position of gentry), while those of parents who are lower in the hierarchy are now placed on an equality with the upper grade of the mercantile class. They are to continue to have the benefit of the charitable and educational establishments hitherto maintained for the clergy. Another important feature in the new ukase is the better provision which it makes for the maintenance of the priesthood. Their poverty has been principally due to the excessive number both of parishes and priests, the former having been created for the latter. There is to be a new distribution of cures, on the basis of population, facility of communication between villages, the moral condition of parishioners, etc. Each parish will be served only by an "incumbent" and "psalmist," the office of deacon being abolished except in the capitals and in cathedrals, where a greater number of priests can also be attached; and no priestly office can in future be held under the age of thirty. The *Moscow Gazette* calls this act the "emancipation of the clergy." Another important alteration in the ecclesiastical laws of Russia is about to be submitted to the Emperor for approval. It admits of civil marriages in the case of Russian Dissenters who do not acknowledge the Orthodox Sacraments, and is calculated to obviate a great amount of immorality among a large and not unimportant class of the population.

There are several sects among the Russian schismatics, of very marked peculiarities in doctrine and discipline, some of which are distinguished by extreme fanaticism and endurance in self-infliction. Although they have existed for several centuries in the heart of the empire, and even in the principal cities, but little has been known of them in other countries till within a few years, when they have been described with considerable particularity in the works of Haxthausen and other writers. Two hundred of these sects are said to have been described by Archbishop Dimitry, in a book which he wrote about them a century and a half ago; since his time some of them have died out, and others have sprung up, so that it would be a difficult task to describe them all.

Among the most remarkable of these sects are the Morelschiki, or the Immolators. Their leading idea is to mortify the flesh for the sake of saving the soul, and in order to do this efficiently they have recourse to various means of mutilation and death. Fearful accounts are given of the way in which their sacrifices are performed. Sometimes a deep pit is dug in the earth, and partly filled with wood and straw, which are lighted, and into which the victims leap, singing hymns, and are burned. At other times they in a similar manner burn themselves in houses, their neighbors looking on at the act without interfering, for they consider the rite a sacred one of baptism by fire. To this sect belong the Scoptsi, or Society of the Mutilated, who practise peculiar secret rites of mutilation. The order is quite strong in organization, and its members are found in nearly every station of social life, and some in official positions, where the tutored eye can easily distinguish them by the peculiarities of their appearance. Among their religious exercises is a peculiar dance, which they call the "Boat Radyenie," which is participated in by members of both sexes, and in which they become excited to an uncontrollable frenzy, when, according to their belief, they become spiritually united with Christ, and the "whole Trinity" descends upon them. The Scoptsi have ideas about marriage, and the relations of the sexes, which are justly regarded as detestable. In other respects they are eminently sober and prudent. They are teetotallers, and extend the principle of abstinence to tobacco, and to some practices which the world generally regard as innocent. Even in the poorest districts they are always well to do, if not affluent, and pauperism is utterly unknown among them. Within their own circle they are very charitable, and they are not unkindly even to outsiders. It is said that most of the money-changers of Russia, and many of the jewellers and goldsmiths, belong to the sect; thus they have many rich men among them. Their numbers have been exaggerated, and are really quite small. In 1843 the Scoptsi known to the police were under 2,000. Haxthausen said in 1847 that there were "from 2,000 to 3,000 known to the officials," but that more than ten times that number really existed. Like the Shakers, they depend entirely upon accessions from outside for the keeping up of their numbers. Not only are their social tenets objectionable, but their political doctrines are fraught with danger to the Government. They believe that the Emperor Peter III., whose person is tenanted by the soul of Christ, is still alive. Some day, they hold, he will return from Siberia, whither he has fled. Then he will enter the Church of the Ascension in the Kremlin at Moscow, and sound the great bell. Its peal will be heard in every part of the habitable world; whereupon the Scoptsi will arise and assemble around their lord, and the whole earth shall be given up to them, and they shall reign with him for-

ever and ever. Many attempts have been made by the Russian Government to suppress the Scoptsi, but as yet they have proved fruitless.

In 1869 the authorities made a raid upon the Scoptsi of Marshausk, seized their common fund, and imprisoned several of their leading members. The latter are to be brought to trial at Moscow, when it is expected that a degree of light will be thrown upon the secret history of the sect, which is at present involved in mystery.

Another peculiar sect is that of the Khlisti, or Scourgers, whose notion of a religious service is a wild dance accompanied by severe castigation. In the middle of the room in which they meet stands a vessel containing water, and to this they go from time to time, in order to wet their heads or to drink out of their hands. Then they resume their stamping and their flogging, until they fall down utterly exhausted, or convulsions seize them, during which they utter ravings which they call prophecies. Every Easter night, the fanatics "all assemble for a great solemnity, the worship of the Mother of God. A virgin fifteen years of age, whom they have induced to act the part by tempting promises, is bound, and placed in a tub of warm water; some old women come and first make a large incision in the left breast, then cut it off, and stanch the blood in a wonderfully short time. Other barbarities follow, too shocking to be told. During these operations a mystical picture of the Holy Spirit is put into the victim's hand, in order that she may be absorbed in regarding it." Afterward a wild dance takes place around the tub, kept up by the whole congregation until their strength is exhausted. The girls who have been thus mutilated are ever afterward considered sacred. At the age of nineteen or twenty they are said to look like women of fifty or sixty, and they generally die before reaching their thirtieth year.

The Beslovesniki, or dumb, existed in considerable strength in former days, but appear to have died out. Scarcely any thing is known about them, for as soon as any one joined the community he became mute, and from that time forward no articulate sound ever escaped his lips. Various attempts have been made at different times to torture them into speaking, but always in vain.

From among the Molokani have arisen the Dukhobortsi or Soul-wrestlers, who hold that "the Dukhoborets is God, and cannot sin, but the non-Dukhoborets is radically wicked—all that he does, even what appears to be good, is sin." One of their characteristics is "the remarkably handsome forms of both the men and women, and the health and strength they display." This is partly to be accounted for by the fact that they put to death every child that is delicate or deformed. "The soul," they say, "being the likeness of God, must dwell in a worthy, noble, and vigorous body. If we find it in a weak and poor one, we are bound to free it from its ignoble prison; it then chooses for itself, according to the law of transmigration of souls, another and a better body." Such child-murder gives little pain to the parents, for their theory is, that "the soul, the image of God, recognizes no earthly father or mother," and that "there is only one father, the totality of God, who lives in every individual; and one mother, universal matter or Nature, the earth." Consequently, the Dukhobortsi never call their parents "father" or "mother," but only "old man" and "old woman;" and the parent does not speak of "my" children, but of "ours," meaning the community's.

GRESWELL, Rev. EDWARD, D. D., a learned theological and chronological writer, Senior-Fellow and Vice-President of Corpus Christi College, Oxford, born at Denton, England, August 8, 1797; died at Oxford, June 29, 1869. His early education was conducted by his father, and subsequently at the Manchester Grammar-School, and in 1815 he was elected to a scholarship in Brasenose College, which he soon exchanged for the Lancashire scholarship at Corpus Christi College. He graduated B. A. in 1818, a double first class in classics and mathematics. He was appointed college tutor in 1822, and served till 1833. He was elected to a fellowship in 1823. In 1833 he resigned his tutorship to devote himself more exclusively to the great theological and chronological works on which he had then been engaged for fifteen years, and to which he determined to dedicate his life. Thenceforward he held no college appointment except that of vice-president, the duties of which were very light. He devoted many years of close and wearisome study to the investigation of the primitive calendars and their relations to the chronology of the Scriptural events. His investigations on this difficult subject were exhaustive; he had published, between 1840 and 1868, seventeen octavo volumes of these "Histories of the Primitive Calendar," taking up in succession the calendars of the Egyptians, Chinese, Hindoos, the early Italians, the early and later Romans, the early and later Greeks, the Jews, etc., and had nearly completed a fourth instalment embracing the Mexican and South American and some of the African calendars, and an elaborate treatise on the chronology of the Old Testament which would have occupied eight or nine more volumes. He had also published in 1840 a very elaborate work on the chronology of the Scriptures to the close of the Evangelists, as a prolegomena to his great work on the gospel harmony; and in 1862 "The Three Witnesses and the Threefold Cord," being the testimony of the natural measures of time, of the primitive civil calendar, and of antediluvian and postdiluvian tradition, on the principal questions of fact, in sacred or profane antiquity. In addition to these labors, which consumed the greater part of fifty years of sedulous and constant work, Dr. Greswell had prepared a

Harmony of the Gospels and the Acts, in Greek, and an exposition of the parables and other parts of the Gospels, in six volumes, octavo, and a reply to Colenso's work on the Pentateuch. He had also published translations of Milton's "Comus" and "Samson Agonistes" into Greek verse. There are very few examples of a scholar devoting himself for more than fifty years so patiently to investigations which can never be popular, and which bring with them only the reward of a consciousness of an unattractive and somewhat wearisome labor well and conscientiously performed.

GRISI, GIULIA, an eminent Italian opera-singer, born in Milan, May 22, 1812; died in Berlin, Prussia, November 29, 1869. She was the daughter of an officer of engineers in the army of Napoleon I., and a niece of the celebrated singer Josephine Grassini. She was educated at first in a convent at Girizia, and subsequently was for a short time a pupil in the *Conservatoire* of Milan, where her elder sister, Judith, had received a brilliant musical education. She was, when yet but a child, a pupil of the composer Marliani, and at his direction went from Milan to Bologna, to complete her musical training. In that city she made her first *début* in Rossini's *Zelmira*, when she was but sixteen years old, and won all hearts by her sweet and powerful voice, the grace of her action, and her wonderful beauty. From Bologna she went to Florence, and there achieved a remarkable success in the part of Juliette in Vaccai's opera of the *Capulets;* and the year following in Rossini's *Zoraida*. From this time forward her success in all the Italian theatres was assured. In 1830 she appeared in the theatre of Pisa, and in 1831 came before the critics of *La Scala* in Milan as *Adelgisa*, in the opera of *Norma*, an opera in which she subsequently won her highest reputation, sharing at this time the glory of the performance, which enchanted all her hearers, with Pasta. Her first Parisian season as prima donna of the Italian opera was extremely brilliant; her *début* in London, in 1834, was equally successful, and she soon won and held a rank, as a great dramatic singer, second to that of none of her contemporaries. Her wonderful personation of the part of *Norma* won for her the title of "Diva." As *Semiramide*, *Lucrezia Borgia*, and *Elvira*, she displayed great ability as an actress, and in the buffo music of *Il Barbiere di Seviglia*, *Don Pasquale*, or *Cenerentola*, she was scarcely less successful. In 1836 she was married in London to M. de Melcy, a French gentleman, but the union proved unhappy, and for many years she lived with Mario, by whom she had a number of children. In 1854 she visited the United States, in company with Signor Mario, sang in the principal cities, and returned the next year to England. She was connected with her Majesty's Theatre in London till 1846, and with the Royal Italian Opera, Covent Garden, from that time till 1861, except her tour in the United States. She retired from the stage in 1861, but reappeared for a short time in Madrid in 1864, and in London in 1865 and 1866. Her voice had become somewhat weakened by the lapse of time, but she acted her part as gracefully as ever, and retained much of her former beauty. Her reputation in *Norma*, which never waned, was due quite as much to her graceful action and to her melodious recitative, or *cantabile*, as the Italians named her special gift, as to her admirable singing. She has the credit of being the first operatic singer who introduced this effective style of chanting into her performance. In 1869 she visited St. Petersburg with her children, and spent some months there. She had reached Berlin on her return-journey when she was seized with fatal illness.

GUTHRIE, JAMES, LL. D., an American statesman, born near Bardstown, Ky., December 5, 1792; died in Louisville, Ky., March 13, 1869. He was educated at the Bardstown Academy, and, after spending several years of his life as a trader to New Orleans, he studied law, and some time afterward entered upon the practice of his profession at Louisville. At this early period the internal trade of the Southwest was dependent upon the flat-boats of the Mississippi, and it was as an owner of these that he conducted his business during the few years that he was engaged in mercantile pursuits. In 1820 he was appointed prosecuting attorney in the county in which he lived. Early in his political career he was shot by an opponent, the wound prostrating him so that he was confined to his bed for three years. He was for fifteen years a member of the Kentucky Legislature, and during six years of that time he was a member of the State Senate. In 1849 he was chosen president of the Kentucky Constitutional Convention, in which body he not only gained prominence as a presiding officer, but was distinguished as an able and ready debater. He was Secretary of the Treasury, under the Administration of President Pierce, from 1853 to 1857. In 1860 he was a candidate before the Charleston Convention for the presidency, and he was a delegate to the Chicago Democratic Convention in 1864. Mr. Guthrie was elected to the United States Senate in 1865, and took his seat in that body, but in February, 1868, he was compelled to resign, owing to his failing health. During the war he was steadfastly union, and was especially active in preventing Kentucky from joining the Confederacy. The last political body of which he was a member was the "National Union Convention," held at Philadelphia in 1866.

H

HAMBURG, a free city of the North-German Confederation. Area, 156 square miles; population in 1867, 305,196. The "budget" for 1869 estimates the receipts at 5,059,400 thalers, and the expenditures at 5,357,400 thalers; deficit 298,000 thalers. The public debt, on December 31, 1867, amounted to 31,275,000 thalers. Total imports by land and sea in 1868, 818,040,000 marks banco (one mark banco equal to 34½ cents; one thaler equal to 69 cents). The exports of Hamburg cannot be ascertained, as, since 1857, no statement of exports has been demanded. The movement of transmarine shipping, in 1868, was as follows: entered, 5,397 vessels, together of 1,021,777 lasts; cleared, 5,287 vessels, together of 1,019,229 lasts (1 last 4,000 pounds). The merchant navy consisted, at the end of the year 1868, of 467 ocean-going vessels, together of 122,608 lasts.

The number of emigrants from the port of Hamburg amounted to 50,050 in 1868, to 42,889 in 1867, and to 44,780 in 1866.*

HARPER, JAMES, an American publisher, for more than fifty years the head of the publishing-house of Harper and Brothers, born at Newtown, L. I., April 13, 1795; died in New York City, March 27, 1869. He was the son of Joseph Harper, a farmer of Newtown, and his earlier years were passed upon his father's farm, and in attendance upon the public school of the village. At the age of sixteen he and his younger brother John were apprenticed to different printers in New York. The two boys were strictly temperate, industrious, and faithful, and, by increasing their small wages by overwork, were able to save a little sum, sufficient, when John had completed his apprenticeship in 1817, to enable them, with a few hundred dollars of assistance from their father, to establish a small printing-office in Dover street, N. Y. Their firm name was J. and J. Harper. In August, 1817, they delivered to Evert Duyckinck—then a leading bookseller of the city—2,000 copies of Seneca's "Morals," the first book they printed; in December, 2,500 copies of Mair's "Introduction to Latin," to the same publisher. In April, 1818, they sold to Mr. Duyckinck 500 copies of Locke's "Essay upon the Human Understanding," the first book upon which their imprint was placed. They proceeded cautiously, and when contemplating the publication of a book, especially if it was a reprint, sent to the leading houses in the trade to ascertain the number of copies each would take. Their work being well done, and their judgment in regard to the books demanded by the public proving excellent, they soon took rank as a leading and successful publishing-house. They published, among other serial works, "Harper's Family Library," which eventually extended to nearly 200 volumes. In 1825 two younger brothers, Joseph Wesley and Fletcher, having been admitted to the firm after having served their time as apprentices, the name of the house was changed to Harper and Brothers, and they removed to Nos. 81 and 82 Cliff Street. As the years drew on, the fame and business of the firm grew and increased, until they were acknowledged to be the largest publishers in the country. They had gradually added to their accommodations in Cliff Street, till they owned and occupied nine contiguous buildings, none of them fire-proof. On the 10th of December, 1853, this vast establishment was reduced to a mass of rubbish by a sweeping fire, and with but slight insurance. The loss was about a million dollars; but the great executive ability of James Harper and his brothers never showed to better advantage than on this occasion. Temporary quarters were immediately engaged; the *Magazine*, the entire edition of which for January had been nearly completed and was all consumed, was reproduced with but slight delay, and the business went on upon hired presses and with hands unskilled in their routine, for a time; but, before the rubbish could be cleared away, the plans for the new buildings, thoroughly fire-proof, were ready, and they were built and stocked without delay. In all these losses and the hurry and confusion which followed, James Harper never lost his equanimity or complete self-possession. Always early at his post, he was ever cheerful, genial, and courteous; ready with a kind word, a pleasant jest, a quick repartee, or judicious counsel. He was attached to his business, and, though he consented reluctantly to serve the city as mayor in 1844–'46, he could never afterward be drawn into political life or office, "preferring," as he said, quietly "to stick to a business that he understood." He was greatly in request as a presiding officer, a position which he filled with dignity and ability. From his early boyhood he had been rigidly temperate, and he was identified with many of the temperance movements of the time. He was a strictly religious man, a prominent and leading member of the Methodist Episcopal Church, and active in all benevolent enterprises. His fine health gave him the appearance of being much younger than he really was, and when he was last at his place of business, two days before his death, his powerful frame and his ruddy and healthful expression indicated that he had yet a full quarter of a century of life before him. On that afternoon, while driving in the upper part of the city, the pole of his carriage broke, his horses became

* For statistics of emigration of the years 1846 to 1867, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

frightened and ran, throwing both his daughter and himself violently upon the pavement. He was taken up insensible and carried into St. Luke's Hospital, where, two days later, without regaining consciousness, he died.

HAYTI.* The civil war in which Hayti had been involved for several years continued throughout the year 1869. In January, the rebels, under General Saget, advanced on Port au Prince and laid siege to it. Cape Haytien was also closely besieged by other revolutionary forces. Jacmel was still in their possession and able to resist the threatened attack by Salnave. The latter remained continually at the seat of war, conducting himself the military operations, and represented at Port au Prince by his Secretary of State. A desperate encounter took place on January 16, in which the Picos (Salnave's troops) lost some 200 men in killed and wounded, and were driven from their position. The port of Salut was bombarded and completely destroyed. The village of Torbecq, three miles from Aux Cayes, was burnt. Salnave visited, with two war-ships, the forts, and carried destruction everywhere. Business was suspended in Aux Cayes, and the foreign residents were seeking protection at their respective consulates, and on the vessels in the harbor. The conduct of the President roused the indignation of the French admiral at St. Marc; when he saw two French barks towed in by the Haytian gunboat Salnave as prizes, he put to sea in the flag-ship Semiramis, and, taking the two French vessels in tow of his own ship, brought them into St. Marc's with their national colors flying, and declared that there was no effective blockade in Hayti; that, by the French treaty which gave the latter her independence, France had a right to trade with the southern ports of the republic, and that the mere presence of a few gunboats on the coast could not be considered by the French as an effective blockade.

In the beginning of March, Salnave was again defeated, loosing 100 men and 8 pieces of artillery. The insurgents commenced the siege of Gonaives, to reënforce the garrison of which Salnave had arrested 200 merchants and others of Port au Prince.

In the mean while the French admiral reiterated his demand upon the Haytian Government for the payment of the French debt, and compelled Salnave to conclude a convention with France, by which the latter was to receive 12 per cent. of the revenues toward the payment of her claims. Her vessels were allowed to enter all the ports of Hayti.

Salnave was in a precarious situation, owing to the state of his finances. The navy had not received any pay for three months, and there was dissatisfaction at the capital against him. The blacks were jealous of the whites, and assassinations were feared.

The recklessness of Salnave's officers brought on new complications. They boarded the British mail steamer Cuba, seized the mail-bags addressed to Mr. St. John, the British *chargé d'affaires* at Port au Prince, broke the seals in spite of his remonstrances and protest, and abstracted numerous private letters, and delivered over the balance to him. The consequence was, that numerous arrests were made, on the strength of information obtained from the letters seized, while a number of other parties were shot. The British steamer Doris, twenty-four guns, under the command of Captain Glynn, was sent to demand from the Government at Port au Prince explanations and satisfactory reparation for the insult, and also to demand the immediate release of the British sloop Dolphin, which, having a cargo of merchandise for Aux Cayes, had been seized.

Soon after Salnave's arrival at Gonaives with his war-ship Alexandre Petion, the Cacos (insurgents) made a vigorous and very desperate attack, pressing far into the city, which they at one time held, fighting with great bravery and determination. The guns, however, of the Alexandre Petion threw them into some confusion, which was taken advantage of by the Government forces, who drove them from their position with considerable loss.

At St. Marc the revolutionists acted with spirit; they fortified the town, making it a stronghold. The British steamer Doris had meanwhile arrived at Port au Prince, and notified the commander of the Haytian gunboat Salnave and the war-bark Trait d'Union that neither of them would be permitted to leave port until an apology and ample reparation had been made for the insult offered to her Majesty's mails. The same announcement was made to the President (the effect of its delivery was somewhat startling to the Haytian authorities), who immediately hastened to the Doris and assured the commander that the most ample satisfaction would be given; but, as the embargoed ships were on an important mission, and their detention would be attended with great inconvenience, they requested that the vessels might be permitted to proceed. The English captain, however, was not so easily imposed on; he expressed regret that their detention should so seriously interfere with the plans of the President, but that these were his instructions. The steamer and bark were accordingly detained, and, lest either should slip out to sea in the darkness of the night, a strict watch was kept upon them, and the British war-ships Doris and Jason kept their boats manned and in readiness on alarm, to make the captures if escape was attempted.

On the 31st of March Salnave made the most humiliating apology to the commanders of the Doris and Jason, in the presence of Mr. St. John, the British *chargé d'affaires*, declaring that he was utterly ignorant of the seizure of the mail-bags, and at the time was far away from the capital. He assured them of his

* For statistics, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

extreme regret and annoyance at what had been done, and his grief of mind at the discovery, when it was too late to remedy it; expressing his readiness, in the official *Moniteur* of the 3d, to make the most ample public apology.

Captain Annesley, of the Jason, in reply, stated that this was the third time her Majesty's ships had been sent to Port au Prince to demand satisfaction from the Government of Salnave for insults offered to the British flag, her Majesty's representative, in the person of Mr. St. John, and also, on the present occasion, for an outrage of a most barbarous character, and for a most barbarous purpose, on her Majesty's mails. On each occasion, the only reparation offered was a paltry apology; but to commit an outrage and then apologize was not quite so satisfactory to her Majesty's Government as the Government of Hayti seemed to suppose, and he felt it his duty on the present occasion to inform the President that this was the last time such apologies would be accepted, and that next time when her Majesty's naval authorities were sent to Port au Prince on a similar mission the reparations demanded and enforced would be of a much more substantial character, and would also be of such magnitude as would make the Haytian authorities hesitate before offering insult to a great power, and sufficiently effective to check very materially the naval strength of the republic. The President expressed himself satisfied, and the naval commanders, having accepted of the President's apology, liberated the embargoed vessels, and, hoisting the Haytian flag on the fore of the Doris, gave it a national salute, and the Jason returned to Jamaica to report.

Thus the civil strife went on, with alternate success or defeat, until, in September, things began to turn in favor of the revolutionists. On the 27th a naval engagement took place before Cape Haytien between Salnave's steamers and those of the revolutionists. In the beginning, the rebel steamer Republic fought alone against the Alexandre Petion and the Silvain, and, notwithstanding she was subject to the concentrated fire of those two steamers, ran down the Silvain, causing her great damage. At this time the rebel steamer Mont Organisé appeared on the scene of conflict, thus making the forces equal. After eight hours' engagement, Salnave's steamers were so badly damaged that they were compelled to retire, the Alexandre Petion being completely disabled, and having to be towed into Cape Haytien by the Silvain, where they took protection under the guns of the fort.

Gonaives was surrendered to the revolutionists; so were Aquin, Borgue, Fort Liberté, Saint-Louis, Le Male, and Port de Paix. A large quantity of coffee, reported to be twelve thousand bags, fell into the hands of the revolutionists in Aquin. In Jeremie and Aux Cayes the headquarters of Salnave's troops were abandoned to the rebels, and the communications by land to Aquin were entirely reëstablished. Salnave's forces, besieging Jacmel, went over to the revolutionists.

In October gold rose to 1800. Salnave applied to the British admiral, Phillimore, commanding the English squadron at Jamaica, to send a vessel to Port au Prince to protect it against the threatened bombardment by the rebels. He also forwarded troops and supplies to Gonaives, Aux Cayes, and Jacmel, the last place being beseiged by General Chevallier, Salnave's Secretary of War. But his general, Vil Lubin, was defeated before Jacmel by the insurgents under General Louis Tanné. The Picos (Piquets), seeing the turn things were taking with Salnave, began to desert from his ranks in large numbers, and to join the revolutionists. In November, Salnave prepared for the worst. He rapidly concentrated the few forces left at his command and fortified Port au Prince to the utmost. Exchange rose to 2,500. Salnave's position in November is best seen by the following proclamation:

To the People and to the Army:

HAYTIANS: After the unfortunate surrender of the army of Gonaives under the command of Victorin Chevallier, after the unwarrantable and extravagant acts he committed at the capital during my absence at Camp Bondet, I nevertheless ventured to nominate him to the high position of Minister of War and Marine, to satisfy his insatiable ambition, and the better to have under my notice his injurious and hypocritical movements. Shortly after, at the head of the army besieging Jacmel, he has, after two months' sojourn before that city, managed, from the nature of his high position, to betray my confidence and to raise the standard of revolt at the head of the army he commanded; without, however, reflecting that he was contributing by that act of infamous treachery to augment the evils which for so long a time have afflicted our unfortunate country.

Haytians! it was on the 4th of this month of November that Victorin Chevallier betrayed his command in pretending that the army under his orders had voluntarily bestowed on him the title of chief of the popular army, in using the name of General Vil Lubin as Provisional President, and in seeking, finally, to seduce from allegiance General Jean Chrisostom Ulysse, commanding the Department of the West, and Hector Rebecca, commandant of the district of Léogane.

These two honorable officers have done their duty toward me by remitting me the dispatches addressed to them. They have done worthily. I congratulate them.

This act, without precedent in our political antecedents, instead of enfeebling me, adds to my stability; for, as I have promised to the nation, in the face of God and of man, I will chastise all these traitors; I will purge society from these ambitious men who infest it; I will reëstablish public order and national unity.

In consequence, Victorin Chevallier, ex-Secretary of State for War and Marine, is placed without the pale of the law. All citizens are invited to abandon him, and the officers generally of the army are absolved from all obedience to him.

Given at the National Palace of Port au Prince, 6th November, 1869, and the sixty-sixth year of independence. S. SALNAVE.

General Chevallier, in his turn, issued the following proclamation:

REPUBLIC OF HAYTI.

General of Division, VICTORIN CHEVALLIER, *General-in-Chief of the Popular Army. To the Committee of Jacmel, and to the Military Authorities:*

SIRS: The people, worn out by the sanguinary exactions of Salnave, have proclaimed his downfall. You are invited to reunite for the carrying on of the revolution, to labor with its members for the organization of a definite and regular government.

The brave and loyal General Vil Lubin has been proclaimed by the army Provisional President.

That those who partake of our sentiments may unite with us, we request your attendance forthwith at Camp Ogé.

Safety and the country! V. CHEVALLIER.

GENERAL QUARTERS OF CAMP OGÉ, *Nov.* 6, 1869, And the sixty-sixth year of Independence.

Victorin Chevallier, General in-Chief of the Popular Army, to the Army.

SOLDIERS: A new order of things has arisen. It is time that the civil war which has decimated your ranks and destroyed the vitality of the country was ended.

General Salnave is deposed from the presidency of Hayti. From all parts his downfall is proclaimed. You have made your voices heard—you, who have remained longest faithful to a chief in whose hands you placed the destinies of your country, and who has held them so cheap.

Before the national will, Salnave has bowed his head. If, forgetting the submission he owes to the sovereign will of the people, he accedes not, it is necessary that you, who have arms in your hands to make the nationality respected, and to watch over the safety of your country—it is necessary, I say, that you impose on him obedience and submission.

We are going to march, then, against Port au Prince. Close your ranks. Press round your flags; they are the banners of order. Let him who remains behind be proclaimed a traitor to his country. Yet a few days, and this land, saturated with the blood of our fathers, and which should never be overclouded by the actions of their descendants, by disorder, anarchy, and the phalanx of evils which accompany them, shall again flourish under the shadow of peace.

Soldiers, cry with me, "Vive la paix et l'ordre! Vive la Constitution! Vive la république, une et indivisible et prospère!" V. CHEVALLIER.

General Chevallier was received with enthusiasm in Jacmel, and the day after, the 5th, taking with him all the pickets that had surrounded Jacmel for fourteen months, he marched on to Port-au-Prince. Cape Haytien was taken by storm by the insurgents on November 13th, and the war-vessels A. Petion, Salnave, and Rouillone, in Cape Haytien, were captured, so that Salnave was confined to the city and vicinity of Port au Prince. The revolutionists being now in the complete possession of the northern part of the island, made energetic preparations to attack Port au Prince, where $4,000 Haytian paper-money were worth one dollar in gold.

The attack upon Port au Prince by the revolutionists was commenced on the morning of the 18th of December, at four o'clock. At that hour the rebel steamers, three in number, made their appearance in the harbor, and seized Salnave's last vessel, the Terreur, lying at anchor. Immediately after, General Brice landed with about 1,200 men. An engagement followed, and, after a sharp struggle, the insurgents carried the northern lines of the town. These were held by General Brice until eleven o'clock in the forenoon of the 19th, at which time he received reënforcements. Salnave, growing desperate, retired to the national palace, whence he dispatched his trusty General Vil Lubin, at the head of the guards, amounting to four hundred men, to attack the insurgents. They took with them a piece of ordnance, which, for some time, made sad havoc in the insurgent ranks, but which was eventually captured by a body of volunteers, fifty in number, composed of gentlemen who had been ill-treated by Salnave, and had joined Brice. Vil Lubin, finding that the battle was lost, retreated to the palace, whence he returned to impart the unwelcome intelligence to his chief. From the palace Vil Lubin returned to his command at Fort Bezouton, and the fighting was continued at intervals during the day, the arsenal and Fort St. Clair falling into the hands of Brice before dark. On the morning of the 19th General Brice held a council of war, and it was determined that Salnave should be attacked in the palace. The fleet was ordered to prepare for a bombardment, and the Terreur was selected to fire on the palace. Salnave, by this time, saw that to hold out any longer would be useless, and he left, followed by several of his generals, intending to go to the American consulate. Before he had mounted his horse, however, a shell from the Terreur struck the throne-room, the most magnificent apartment in the building, which was consumed in a short time, and Salnave, with a few followers, took the Petionville road. Just about this time fire was put to the northern part of the town by Salnave's soldiers, but Captain Salmon, of H. B. M. ship Defence, with several of his officers and the crew of that vessel, landed, and through their noble exertions the conflagration was subdued, and that part of the town was saved from being entirely consumed. It appears that Salnave had stowed away, in vaults at the palace, a large quantity of ammunition. The shells fired from the Terreur penetrated its vaults, causing several terrific explosions, and the palace was utterly destroyed. Twelve houses in the neighborhood were burned to the ground; many more, in other parts of the same quarter of the town were destroyed, and hundreds of people have consequently been left without homes.

On the afternoon of the 19th a steamer was despatched to l'Archaie for Nissage Saget, who arrived in the capital on the 20th, where he was received with acclamations. A few days after the taking of the city, Domingue, the so-called President of the South, was sent for, and a Provisional Government was formed. This Government consists of Nissage Saget, President; Domingue, Vice-president; General F. Rameau, Minister of Finance and Commerce; Septimus Rameau, Minister of Justice; and General Brice, Minister of War. A decree was

issued convoking the Legislative Chambers for the 1st of February, 1870, and ordering elections in the mean time to fill the vacancies in the Lower House. Salnave was captured, tried by court-martial, and shot.

HENGSTENBERG, ERNST WILHELM, a German theologian, author, and editor; born in Fröndenberg, Westphalia, October 20, 1802; died in Berlin, Prussia, June 3, 1869. He was the son of a Lutheran clergyman, and was prepared for the university by his father. While at the University of Bonn, he devoted himself principally to Oriental and metaphysical studies, taking an enthusiastic part at the same time in the *Burschenschaften*. While at this university, he published two volumes which gained him considerable reputation, a German translation of the metaphysics of Aristotle, and a critical commentary upon the *Moallakah*, a famous Arabic poem of the sixth century. His sympathies at that time were with the rationalistic school, but in 1823, going to the University of Basel, he came under the influence of the missionary institution, and soon commenced his theological studies there with new and higher views, becoming identified with the Evangelical Lutherans. In 1824 he went to Berlin as a theological *privat-docent*, and soon became known as the leader of a rising orthodox party, and for many years defended their principles with singular zeal and ability. He published two small theological treatises in 1825 and 1826, and in the latter year was made extraordinary, in 1828 ordinary professor of theology, and in 1829 doctor of theology. In 1827 he founded the *Evangelische Kirchenzeitung* (Evangelical Church Gazette), a periodical which is still in existence and has combated with great zeal and ability all the forms of rationalism. His theological works have been mostly written with the same object—the defence of orthodoxy against the assaults of the rationalists. The following are those which have given him the most reputation: "Christology of the Old Testament, and Commentaries on the Messianic Prophets," 3 vols., 1832–'35, revised in 1854–'56; "Introduction to the Study of the Old Testament," 3 vols., 1831–'39; "Commentaries on the Psalms," 4 vols., 1842–'45; second edition 1850; "Commentaries on the most Important and most Difficult Portions of the Pentateuch," 1 vol., 1842; "Commentaries on the Apocalypse of St. John," 2 vols., 1850–'51; "Explanation of the Song of Songs of Solomon," 1 vol., 1853; "Essay upon the Book of Job," 1856; "Freemasonry and the Duty of the Evangelical Pastor," 1854. Of late years Dr. Hengstenberg had parted company with his old Evangelical associates, Neander, Tholuck, and Lange, and had become a very High-Church Lutheran, and extremely intolerant, going so far as to recommend to the King the persecution of all sectaries; but his splendid contributions to theological science will live when these errors are forgotten.

HESSE-DARMSTADT,* a grand-duchy of Germany. Grand-duke, Ludwig III., born June 9, 1806; succeeded his father June 16, 1848. Area, 2,970 square miles; population, according to the census of 1867, 823,188 (among whom were 564,657 Evangelicals, and 229,373 Roman Catholics). Hesse-Darmstadt forms part of the North-German Confederation, but only for the province of Upper Hesse, and two little communities north of the river Main, belonging to the other provinces, together with 257,479 inhabitants. The budget for one year of the financial period from 1869–'71 estimates the revenue at 10,311,922; the expenditure at 10,000,017 guilders. The public debt (inclusive of railroad debt) amounted, at the close of 1868, to 15,621,000 florins.

HUBER, VICTOR AIMÉ, a German historian, critic, publicist, and promoter of coöperative enterprises, born at Stuttgart in 1800; died at Wernigerode, in the Hartz Mountains, July 26, 1869. He was educated at Würzburg and Göttingen, and studied medicine, intending to devote himself to the practice of that profession. But, after leaving the university, he travelled extensively in France, Spain, Portugal, England, and Scotland, and, having made himself master of the literature of those countries, resolved to undertake the work of instruction in them. He was successively professor of Modern Languages, History, and Literature at Bremen, Marburg, and Berlin. In 1852 he resigned his professorship, in order to prosecute with more vigor and energy the two somewhat incongruous objects he had at heart, the promotion of coöperative societies and cooperative efforts among the working-class, and the support of the reactionary measures of the German governments against state constitutions and republicanism in every form. For the latter purpose he wrote "The Conservative Party," Halle, 1841; "The Opposition," Halle, 1842; "To Every One His Own," Berlin, 1849; "Berlin, Erfurth, and Paris," Berlin, 1850; and founded, in 1845, and edited an annual volume, entitled "Janus, a German Year-Book of Opinion, Education, and Action." For the promotion of coöperation he made the widest and most thorough investigations in England, Scotland, France, and Italy, and wrote and printed many valuable and helpful books and tracts on the subject, and finally made his village, Wernigerode, in the Hartz Mountains, a perfect hive of coöperatives. In this village, which he may almost be said to have created, he built and established, on his favorite plan, schools, workmen's homes, etc., devoting for the later years of his life his entire energies to the work. His principal historical and critical works were: "History of the Cid," Bremen, 1829; "Chronicle of the Cid," Marburg, 1844; "Essays on Spain" (a work of great merit), 4 vols., Göttingen, 1828–

* For an account of the population of the largest cities, and the regulation of military affairs, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

'35; "The New Roman Poesy in France," Leipsic, 1833; "The English Universities," 2 vols., Cassel, 1839–'40; translated into English by F. Newman in 1843, and acknowledged by English authorities to be the best work on the subject; and "Essays on Ireland," Berlin, 1850. He was strongly attached to England, and was often present at the meetings of the coöperative societies of Rochdale and other great manufacturing centres in Lancashire.

HUNGARY, a kingdom of Europe, united with Austria under one sovereign, but separated from it in local government. (For the statistics of population and nationalities, *see* AUSTRIA.)

In February a conference of the non-Magyar nationalities was held at Temesvar. Besides Croatians and Slavonians, who form a group apart and have a special convention with Hungary insuring to them complete independence, there are, dispersed in larger and smaller groups and intermingled with the Hungarian and German elements, Serbs in the south, Rumanians in the east of Hungary and in Transylvania, and Slovaks and Ruthenes in the north. All these, of course, enjoy the same civil and political rights as the Hungarian and German populations, and in the last Diet a special law was carried by which the free use of their language in local administration and in the courts of law has been insured to them, the Hungarian language retaining merely the precedence in the Diet and the Central Government and in the courts of appeal, without which any thing like a political union of the country would have been an impossibility.

The position thus created for these nationalities did not satisfy their leaders, who brought in a project of their own by which the whole internal division of Hungary into counties was to have been remodelled according to nationalities, so that in each administrative unit the language of the majority should be the ruling one, to the exclusion of the language of the minority. This proposal, which was tantamount to cutting up Hungary into so many Swiss cantons, was, however, not even supported by all the representatives of the different nationalities in the Diet, as only a few of the Northern Slovaks and Ruthenes gave it a qualified support; only the Rumanians of Transylvania and Hungary and the Serbs stood up for it, and when they saw they could not carry their point, they withdrew from the debate. The following programme was agreed to:

1. Solidarity of all non-Magyar nationalities or races, as they have a common interest.
2. The question of nationalities is to be solved in the sense of the proposal made in the last Diet by the Serbs and Rumanians.
3. The conference adopts the declaration of the Rumanian deputies of Transylvania, protesting against the union of Transylvania with Hungary.
4. The nationalities will work with all their power to upset the compromise of 1867, as its decisions are fatal to the national rights of the non-Magyar races.
5. The nationalities will support the opposition of the party in Croatia, which is against the compromise effected between that country and Hungary.
6. Municipalities are to be organized on the principle of liberty and democracy.
7. The conference protests against the insinuations that the nationalities follow a policy which aims at the destruction of the Hungarian state.
8. The members sent by the non-Magyar races to the Diet will form there a distinct national party which has nothing in common with any of the Hungarian parties.

This programme aims at something like the Swiss Confederation.

The Rumanians held also a conference by themselves on February 15th, at Deés, in which, after exhaustive debates, almost all the members decided in favor of abstaining from the elections, because, after the sufferings of centuries, the just claims of the Rumanian nation had been disregarded by the Pesth Reichsrath, and the unjust electoral law had been maintained.

The elections were conducted with no little asperity, and resulted favorably to the Deak party. Both Houses of the Hungarian Diet were opened by the Emperor Francis Joseph in person, who made the following peaceful address:

Magnates and Gentlemen: It is with feelings of satisfaction that I welcome you at the opening of this new session, the more so as I am convinced of the necessity of your wise and powerful support in order to bring to an early and successful solution the great questions which lie before us. Although the last Diet has, through the settlement of state questions which had been pending for generations, created a safe basis upon which the work is now carried on more easily, there is still much to be done to lay the foundations of a better future, and the greatest and most pressing part devolves upon the present Legislature. For the fate of nations the constitutional state relations form but one part of the elements or pledges of success; the chief and most enduring among those pledges, without which not even the best constitution can offer a lasting success, lies in the internal development of the strength of the nation itself.

The development of this vitality depends upon those traditions of the past which are opposed to the progressive spirit of the times, and to frame, according to it and to the wants of the new situation, the institutions of the country; to develop the moral and material weight of the nation in every direction, so that it may fill with dignity the place which it has taken in the rank of states, as one of the guardians and representatives of Western civilization. My government will lose no time in claiming your activity in that direction. It is, above all, the grave question regarding the administration of justice which I recommend to your serious consideration. A just, rapid, and impartial administration of the laws is one of the first requirements of a well-ordered state. It is, therefore, necessary that, on the one side, he to whom the exercise of judicial power is intrusted should be surrounded with every guarantee of independence, individually as well as officially; while, on the other, every person should be secured against any usurpation of judicial authority. My government will, therefore, present to you projects of law regarding the exercise of judicial power, as well as the responsibility of judges. In conjunction with this is the project of law concerning the organization of tribunals of the first instance, which proposes that those tribunals should have permanent official places of judicature, distributed according to the requirements of the populations and traffic, so that every one may find, in a sure and speedy manner, the judicial assistance necessary for his case.

At a later period there will be brought before you

for constitutional consideration the bill of criminal procedure, which will place the high interests of society as well as the personal liberty of the individual—till now dependent upon insufficient and uncertain laws, and be insured between the central government and organs of the administration. The recent election has given you fresh proofs of the defects of the electoral laws of the year 1848. To remove these defects and to regulate the elections so that the liberty of the electors is guaranteed against the excesses of party-spirit, is also one of your foremost and most pressing tasks.

The laws of 1848 have transferred the legislation of the country from the representation of the former estates to one based upon that of the people, but have left the organization of the House of Magnates (*Magnatentafel*) unchanged. It will be an essential part of your legislative activity to reform the organization of the House of Magnates according to the present necessities of the country, retaining, at the same time, all the advantages which this Upper House affords by its historic traditions and its connection with the highest interest of the kingdom. As regards the freedom of the press, there are in the present laws two great guarantees, one of which consists in the abolition of the censorship, the other that the press offences will be tried by jury. At the same time that these two principles are to be upheld, care also must be taken that the dignity of the press be maintained. It should be provided for that in serious discussions of public interest, passion must not interfere, and respect for them not lost sight of, which can be done by quick punishment of all abuses dangerous to the real liberty of the press. As in this respect article eighteen of the press law of 1848 is in many respects insufficient, public order requires that its deficiencies should ere long be remedied. The right of meeting must also be regulated, so that this fundamental right of constitutionalism may be placed under the protection and control of the law, and a line drawn as to the obligation of government interference.

The last Diet has passed a law concerning the commutation of tithe on wine. It will be one of the duties of the present Diet to abolish the remnants of feudalism, yet preserving the sanctity of property on the basis of sound political and economical principles. The late Diet has, by its law upon elementary schools, extended the blessings of public instruction to the entire population. But by this only the first stone has been laid toward the whole edifice of public instruction, and the highest interests of the nation demand also the regulation of the higher spheres of studies, in which the citizens of the state can obtain superior instruction in the several branches of art and science, according to the progress of the age.

There will be laid before you, according to article sixteen of the law of 1867, several international treaties concluded with foreign powers for your sanction. It is an absolute necessity to regulate the industrial relations about which we have partly defective and partly no laws at all. The impulse given to enterprise and the prosperous state of commerce render it incumbent that the companies formed by shareholders should also be governed by a new law. My government will introduce the necessary bills in regard to both these subjects, and several others concerning the preservation and augmentation of national property. You will have to decide on the projects of law respecting the construction of several railway lines, and also public works and river laws, which will give in their practical results a fresh impulse to the material well-being of the people. Your constitutional activity will also embrace the financial estimates, in fixing which you will, I am convinced, take good care that the economy of the state be well balanced and the finances of the country placed upon a safe basis. I must here call your attention to the necessity of reform in the system of taxation (*Steuerwesen*), which forms one of the most important elements in the prosperity of the kingdom. The discussions of the Diet will offer you a favorable opportunity to draw closer that legal union which the late Diet has reëstablished between Hungary, Croatia, and Slavonia, by sentiments of reciprocal brotherly love and attachment, so that they may share the burdens as well as the glory of those legitimate measures on which the common weal and greatness of the united countries of the Hungarian crown depend.

Magnates and Deputies: You are face to face with an important period of transition. Besides the beforementioned tasks, there are many others awaiting you yet. To surrender every thing that has become untenable in past traditions, and create at the same time institutions corresponding with new ideas, is the double and inseparable problem, the solution of which you have to overcome. This sifting of circumstances requires great efforts and time, for the difficulties in the execution may be augmented not only by clinging to remembrances of the past, which support even that which has no life in itself and prevents new creations; but also, on the other side, by too great hurry, which will not take into account existing facts, and cover the field, which ought to be sown, with ruins that prevent further action. The right sense of the nation, its moderation and wisdom, will no doubt take the right road between the two extremes which will lead us to more prosperous times. The friendly relations which we maintain with all foreign powers give us the assuring prospect that the peace and tranquillity which are required for the execution of internal reforms will remain. God bless your deliberations! Under the burden of your work, may you be fortified by the consciousness that it is the welfare of future generations which is in your hands, and that, although at such periods patriotic devotion enjoys but very rarely the gratitude of the contemporaneous world, the thanks are more sure and imperishable which are given by posterity to all those perseverant workmen of this great transformation! I declare this Diet opened.

The speech was received with loud cheering. During the inaugural ceremony the Hungarian and Croatian tricolors were hoisted beside the royal standard on the castle of Buda. At the close of the sessions of the Hungarian Diet, the speech from the throne enumerated the favorable results which had attended the labors of the Diet, and which, it says, were due to the sincere union existing between the King and the nation. It adds:

The Diet has put an end to the uncertainty hitherto prevailing. Both halves of the empire are independent of each other as regards the conduct of their own affairs, and they exercise an equal constitutional influence over the affairs which are common to both. The monarchy has sought and found a rallying-point within itself, and now marches onward with renewed strength, in a path which will conduce to the peace and welfare of the country, and to its preservation of the position which it is called upon to take up among European nations. The King nourishes the conviction that the new constitutional bases which have already effected so much good, and so greatly strengthened the monarchy, will be durable, and beneficial to the interests of the country.

Complaints have arisen among commercial men in Vienna and Pesth concerning the sand-banks which have again formed at the Salina mouth of the Danube. The keeping open of this mouth was, by the Treaty of Paris of 1856, intrusted to a so-called "European Committee of Regulation," the seat of which has been Galatz. It is contended in Pesth that the navigation of the Salina mouth has again be-

come almost as dangerous as it was before the Crimean War, when it was under the exclusive sovereignty of the Emperor of Russia. The remedy suggested is to raise a loan of 3,500,000 francs for the removal of this obstruction.

HUNT, JAMES, M.D., Ph.D., F.S.A., an English physiologist, philosopher, anthropologist, and author, born at Swanage, Dorsetshire, in 1833; died near Hastings, from the effect of a sunstroke, August 29, 1869. He was educated for a physician, and gave special and earnest attention to the study of anatomy, physiology, and chemistry. Before the completion of his twenty-first year he had published three volumes of great merit, a "Memoir of his Father, Thomas Hunt, M.D.;" a treatise on "Stammering and Stuttering, their Nature and Treatment," which is still accepted as the standard work on the subject; and an elaborate work on "The Philosophy of Voice and Speech," for which he had drawn largely on Dr. James Rush's "Philosophy of the Human Voice." In 1854 he became a member, and in 1859 Honorary Secretary of the Ethnological Society, into which he infused new life. He resigned in 1862, and the next year founded the Anthropological Society of London, of which he was president for four years, and director for one. He edited *The Anthropological Review and Journal*, the organ of the Society, contributed largely to its two volumes of memoirs, and translated and edited several French and German anthropological works. Belonging to the most advanced section of the modern physio-philosophical school, he was engaged much of the time in active controversies, but manifested great tact and ability in the maintenance of his opinions. He was an active member of the British Association for the Advancement of Science, and contributed many papers to its transactions. He was a Fellow and Honorary Foreign Secretary of the Royal Society of Literature, and a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries, and had been elected a corresponding member of many foreign archæological and anthropological societies. The University of Giessen had conferred on him, in 1855, the diploma of Doctor of Philosophy, and in 1867 that of Doctor of Medicine, *honoris causa*.

HYDROGENIUM. Thomas Graham, F.R.S., master of the British Mint (whose death during the year was a great loss to the world of science), submitted to the Royal Society in June a second paper, giving additional observations on hydrogenium, the supposed metallic base of hydrogen gas, the discovery of which in 1868, by Mr. Graham, was the most remarkable event in the chemical annals of that year (*see* article HYDROGENIUM in AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPEDIA for 1868). From his former experiments Mr. Graham had inferred the density of hydrogenium to be a little under 2, but he subsequently found that another number of about half that amount could be deduced with equal probability from the same experimental data. This double result is a consequence of the singular permanent shortening of the palladium-wire, observed after the expulsion of hydrogen which had been previously occluded by the palladium. In a particular observation formerly described, for instance, a wire of 609.14 m.m. increased in length to 618.92 m.m. when charged with hydrogen, and fell to 599.44 m.m., when the hydrogen was extracted. The elongation was 9.77 m.m., and the absolute shortening or retraction 9.7 m.m., making the extreme difference in length amount to 19.47 m.m. Mr. Graham proceeded to say:

> Now, it is by no means impossible that the volume added to the wire by the hydrogenium is represented by the elongation and retraction taken together, and not by the elongation alone, as hitherto assumed. It is only necessary to suppose that the retraction of the palladium molecules takes place the moment the hydrogenium is first absorbed, instead of being deferred till the latter is expelled: for the righting of the particles of the palladium-wire (which are in a state of excessive tension in the direction of the length of the wire) may as well take place in the act of the absorption of the hydrogenium as in the expulsion of that element. It may, indeed, appear most probable in the abstract that the mobility of the palladium particle is determined by the first entrance of the hydrogenium. The hydrogenium will then be assumed to occupy double the space previously allotted to it, and the density of the metal will be reduced to one-half of the former estimate. In the experiment referred to, the volume of hydrogenium in the alloy will rise from 4.68 per cent. to 9.36 per cent., and the density of hydrogenium will fall from 1.708 to 0.854, according to the new calculation. In a series of four observations upon the same wire, previously recorded, the whole retractions rather exceeded the whole elongations, the first amounting to 23.29 m.m., and the last to 21.38 m.m. Their united amount would justify a still greater reduction in the density of hydrogenium, namely, to 0.8051.
>
> The first experiment, however, in hydrogenating any palladium-wire appears to be the most uniform in its results. The expulsion of the hydrogen afterward by heat always injures the structure of the wire more or less, and probably affects the regularity of the expansion afterward in different directions. The equality of the expansion and the retraction in a first experiment appears, also, to be a matter of certainty. This is a curious molecular fact, of which we are unable as yet to see the full import. In illustration, another experiment upon a pure palladium-wire may be detailed. This wire, which was new, took up a full charge of hydrogen, namely, 956.3 volumes, and increased in length from 609.565 to 619.354 m.m. The elongation was, therefore, 9.769 m.m. With the expulsion of the hydrogen afterward, the wire was permanently shortened to 600.115 m.m. It thus fell 9.470 m.m. below its normal or first length. The elongation and retraction are here within 0.3 m.m. of equality. The two charges taken together amount to 19.239 m.m., and their sum represents the increase of the wire in length due to the addition of hydrogenium. It represents a linear expansion of 3.205 on 100, with a cubic expansion of 9.827 on 100. The composition of the wire comes to be represented as being—

	In volume.	
Palladium	100.000	or 90.895
Hydrogenium	9.827	or 9.105
	109.827	or 100.000

> The specific gravity of the palladium was 12.3, the weight of the wire 1.554 grm., and

its volume 0.126 cubic centim. The occluded hydrogen measured 120.5 cubic centims.; the weight of the same would be 0.0108 grm., and the volume of the hydrogenium 0.012382 cubic centims., and its density therefore 0.872, which is a near approach to the preceding result of 0.854. Calculated on the old method, the last experiment would give a density of 1.758.

Mr. Graham presented the results of experiments upon the occlusion of hydrogen by the alloy of palladium with various metals. He had first ascertained that palladium alloyed with silver continued to occlude hydrogen, and he afterward proved that this property belongs generally to the palladium alloys when the second metal does not much exceed one half of the mixture. The alloys are all enlarged in dimensions, when they acquire hydrogenium. In conducting the experiments, the alloy of palladium with platinum, gold, etc., was made into wire or a thin ribbon, and the elongation caused by the addition of hydrogenium measured on a graduated scale as in the earlier experiments; the results appear in the following summary:

Palladium was fused with platinum, a metal of its own class, and gave an alloy consisting, according to analysis, of 76.03 parts of the former, and 23.97 parts of the latter. This alloy was very malleable and ductile. Its specific gravity was 12.64. Like pure palladium, it absorbed hydrogen, evolved on its surface in the acid fluid of the galvanometer, with great avidity. A wire 601.845 m. m. in length (23.69 inches) was increased to 618.288 m.m., on occluding 701.9 volumes of hydrogen gas. On expelling all hydrogen from the wire at a red heat, the latter returned to its first dimensions as exactly as could be measured. The platinum present appears to sustain the palladium so that no retraction of that metal is allowed to take place. This alloy, therefore, displays the true increase of volume following the acquisition of hydrogenium without the singular complication of the retraction of the fixed metal. The compound alloy returns to its original density (12.64) upon the expulsion of the hydrogen, showing that hydrogen leaves without producing porosity in the metal.

Palladium, Gold, and Hydrogenium.—Palladium fused with gold formed a malleable alloy, consisting of 75.21 parts of the former, and 24.79 parts of the latter, of a white color, and ductile. Its specific gravity was 13.1. A wire of this alloy, 601.85 m.m., lay occluded, 464.2 volumes of hydrogen, with an increase in length of 11.5 m.m. The wire returned to its original length after the extraction of the hydrogen, and there was no retraction. The hydrogenium may be supposed to be in direct combination with the palladium only, as gold by itself shows no attraction for the former element.

To ascertain the smallest proportion of gold which prevents retraction, an alloy was made by fusing seven parts of that metal with 93 parts of palladium, which had a specific gravity of 13.05. The button was rolled into a thin strip and charged with hydrogen by the wet method. An occlusion of 585.44 volumes of gas took place, with a linear expansion of 1.7 on 100. A retraction followed to nearly the same extent on afterward expelling the hydrogen by heat.

With another alloy, produced by fusing 10 of gold with 90 of palladium, the occlusion of gas was 475 volumes, the linear expansion 1.65 on 100. The retraction on expelling the gas afterward was extremely slight. To nullify the retraction of the palladium, about 10 per cent. of gold appears, therefore, to be required in the alloy.

Another alloy of palladium of sp. gr. 13.1, and containing 14.79 per cent. of gold, underwent no retraction on losing hydrogen, as already stated.

The presence of so much gold in the alloy as half its weight did not materially reduce the occluding power of the palladium. Such an alloy was capable of holding 459.9 times its volume of hydrogen with a linear expansion of 1.67 per cent.

Palladium, Silver, and Hydrogenium.—The occluding power of palladium appeared to be entirely lost when that metal was alloyed with much more than its own weight of any fixed metal. Palladium alloys containing 80.75, and 70 per cent. of silver, occluded no hydrogen whatever.

With about 50 per cent. of silver, palladium rolled into a thin strip occluded 400.6 volumes of hydrogen. It expanded 1.64 part in 100 in length, and returned to its original dimensions without retraction upon the expulsion of the gas.

An alloy, which was formed of 66 parts of palladium and 34 parts of silver, had the specific gravity 11.45. It was drawn into wire, and found to absorb 511.37 volumes of hydrogen. The length of the wire increased from 609.601 to 619.532 m.m.

In a repetition of the experiment upon another portion of the same wire, 407.7 volumes of hydrogen were occluded, and the wire increased in length from 609.601 m.m. to 619.44 m.m. The absolute volume of hydrogen gas occluded was 124.0 c. c., and its calculated weight 0.01111 grm. The two experiments are, indeed, almost identical. The wire returned in both experiments to its original length exactly after the extraction of the gas.

Palladium, Nickel, and Hydrogenium.—The alloy, consisting of equal parts of palladium and nickel, was white, hard, and readily extensible. Its specific gravity was 11.22. This alloy occluded 69.76 volumes of hydrogen, with a linear expansion of 0.2 per cent. It suffered no retraction below its normal length on the expulsion of the gas by heat.

An alloy of equal parts of *bismuth* and palladium was a brittle mass that did not admit of being rolled. It occluded no hydrogen, after exposure to that gas as the negative electrode, in an acid fluid for a period of eighteen hours. It seems probable that malleability and the colloid character, which are wanting in this bismuth alloy, are essential to the occlusion of hydrogen by a palladium alloy.

An alloy of one part of *copper* and six parts of palladium proved moderately extensible, but absorbed no sensible amount of hydrogen. The metallic laminæ which remain on digesting this alloy in hydrochloric acid, and which were found by M. Debray to be a definite alloy of palladium and copper (PdCu), exhibited no sensible occluding power.

The following is a statement of the author's conclusions as to the density of hydrogenium observed in its compound with palladium, and also with the palladium alloys:

	Density of Hydrogenium observed.
When united with palladium	0.8540 to 0.8720
When united with palladium and platinum	0.7401 to 0.7545
When united with palladium and gold....	0.7110 to 0.7150
When united with palladium and silver...	0.7270 to 0.7420

He called attention to the fact that the results are most uniform with the compound alloys, in which retraction is avoided, and they lie between 0.7110 and 0.7545. Taking the mean of these two numbers as the most legitimate deduction from the experiments on the compound alloys, Mr. Graham thought that 0.733 should be accepted provisionally as the approximate density of hydrogenium.

I

ILLINOIS. On the 5th of January the Legislature assembled at Springfield, the political complexion being—

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	18	58	76
Democrats	7	27	34
Republican majority	11	31	42

On the 13th of January, General John M. Palmer, the Governor-elect, was inaugurated as the fourteenth Governor of the State, to serve for four years, that being the duration of his term of office.

The Legislature, as one of its first important acts, passed a bill providing for a general convention to revise the constitution of the State, the people of the State having by their votes demanded such action.

The legislation of the session was very heavy, over two thousand bills and joint resolutions being passed and submitted to the Governor for signature. Of these, by far the greater part were private bills; of the others, the greater proportion were acts of incorporation and railroad bills. Much time was taken up in investigating the manner in which the work upon the new State-house had been performed, and in providing for its continuance.

The Canal and River Improvement Bill; the bill to repeal the act by which seven per cent. of the gross earnings of the Illinois Central Railroad were paid as taxes to the State; the appropriations for State charitable and reformatory institutions; the bills in reference to the Chicago harbor and lake front, and the "Texas Cattle Bill," took up a large amount of time. The action taken in each case will appear below.

On the 5th of March the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was submitted to the Legislature, and was ratified by the following vote:

	Senate.	House.
Yeas	17	52
Nays	7	27
Majority	10	25

On Thursday, the 11th of March, the Legislature took a recess until the 14th of April, to give the Governor an opportunity to examine over 1,500 bills awaiting his signature. April 14th the Legislature reassembled, when the Governor returned over sixty of the bills, without approval, among them the bill for the enlargement of the harbor of Chicago, and giving the entire lake front to the city.

Among the acts which became laws were an act to provide for building a soldiers' monument at the National Cemetery, near Mound City; an act for the improvement of the Illinois and Michigan Canal from lock fifteen to its junction with Illinois River; and an act appropriating $25,000 to the Douglas monument at Chicago.

"The Canal and River Improvement Bill" approved by the Governor, and entitled, "A bill for an act to amend an act entitled an Act for Canal and River Improvements," approved February 28, 1867, when put upon its final passage, received a very decided majority in both Houses, the vote in the House being sixty-one to nine in its favor.

The amended act fixes the number of Canal Commissioners at three, whose term of service is limited to two years. The appropriation is limited to $400,000, and no more; and the commissioners are strictly confined and restricted to the surveys contemplated in the original act, and to the construction of one lock and one dam in the Illinois River, as mentioned in section ten of said act, and to dredging out the mouth of said canal at La Salle, between the lower lock and the river. More than this, the commissioners are forbidden to commence the construction of the lock and dam, or improvement of the Illinois River, as provided for in section ten above referred to, unless they shall first ascertain from the estimates of at least two competent engineers, separately made, that the same can be completed for a less sum of money than is appropriated by the said act—to wit: $400,000, including all incidental expenses. And the commissioners shall not, under any circumstances, or under any claim of right, under any law, take, or attempt to take possession of, or in any manner interfere with, the Illinois and Michigan Canal, or the tolls or revenues thereof.

"The Texas Cattle Bill," providing for the exclusion from the State of cattle from those sections of the country where the Texas cattle-disease had been prevalent, became a law, but during the summer, on a trial of a case under its provisions in the Bellville Judicial Circuit Court, the decision was that the law was "repugnant to that clause in the Constitution of the United States which gives to Congress the right to regulate commerce between the States." The judge who rendered the decision said:

"The act prohibits the bringing of, *not diseased*, but Texas or Cherokee cattle into this State. This is equivalent to prohibiting Louisiana sugar, South Carolina rice, Georgia cotton, or Massachusetts boots and shoes. It would hardly be doubted that an act excluding any of those products would be declared to be unconstitutional. It was undoubtedly intended by the framers of our national Government that free trade should obtain among and between the several States, and for that reason the power of regulating commerce between the States was committed to the control of Congress exclusively. Texas would have no motive or interest in remaining in the Union if any other State could exclude her products at pleasure. This view is not incompatible with the right

of the State to provide proper police regulations. She may enact such laws as will protect the property, health, morals, or lives, of her people from injury or danger. She could prevent the introduction of gun-cotton or nitro-glycerine, because they are dangerous to life and property. She could inhibit obscene books, pictures, etc., because they are detrimental to good morals or policy. She could exclude goods or articles supposed to contain the germs of infectious diseases, because they would be dangerous to health. But the legislation must specify the causes of the exclusion, and the prohibition must be directed against the particular thing; thus, goods manufactured in, or shipped from a place where small-pox or yellow fever prevailed, could be rightfully excluded, but not all the trade with a State be disallowed because particular portions were infected with disease. All the goods manufactured in Massachusetts could not be declared contraband because there was small-pox in Lowell. The Legislature had the undoubted right and power to exclude diseased cattle coming from any or all the States, but had no power, in my judgment, to exclude all the cattle coming from Texas, whether they were diseased or not, or capable of communicating disease or not. Now, no doubt our General Assembly intended to guard against the introduction of diseased cattle from Texas or the Cherokee nation, but they were unfortunate in the choice of means. To say that all Texas cattle should be excluded because some Texas cattle could communicate a disease to our cattle, is going beyond our constitutional bounds, and treading upon inhibited ground.

I felt very reluctant to hold an act of the General Assembly to be invalid, because I think courts, and particularly circuit courts, should hesitate before they maintain that a co-ordinate department of the Government had transcended or mistaken its powers.

The session of the Legislature closed on the 20th of April, having lasted (including the recess) 106 days.

The question of the New State-house having come before the Legislature, and grave charges of corruption and extravagance, especially in the use of unnecessarily expensive stone for the foundations, being made, a full examination was had, and the action of the commissioners vindicated in every respect. The sum of $325,000 per annum for the years 1869 and 1870 was appropriated, and Jacob Bunn, J. H. Beveridge, and J. C. Robinson, reappointed commissioners. Their report for the year 1869 shows the following facts:

Vouchers issued by former Board and included in their report	$329,339 48
Vouchers issued by former Board and included in report of present Board	41,453 77
Vouchers issued by present Board and included in this report	156,876 76
Total amount expended to November 30, 1869.	$527,659 95

In prosecuting the work no new contracts were made, but the work was carried forward under the existing contracts to a point beyond what was at first contemplated; the foundation for the dome and the several vaults were carried up with the same material and class of masonry, to receive the basement floor.

The commissioners further state that full, complete, and perfect plans and specifications in detail, of the cut stone of the basement story, have been furnished, and satisfactory arrangements have been made to furnish and deliver the stone; also, all the iron-work that may be used, except the beams—the cutting of the stone and preparation of the iron to be done in the State prison with convict-labor.

The appropriations made during the session of the Legislature are as follows:

New State-house	$350,000
Southern Asylum for the Insane, and pay of Commissioners	143,250
Illinois State Hospital for the Insane, Jacksonville (old)	194,000
Northern Illinois Hospital and Asylum for the Insane, and pay of Commissioners	127,800
Illinois Institution for Education of the Blind	55,000
Illinois Institution for Education of the Deaf and Dumb	173,400
Illinois Penitentiary, including special appropriations for same	370,080
Normal University (Bloomington)	40,900
Illinois Industrial University	60,000
Southern Illinois Normal University, and expense of Trustees	79,000
Home for Children of Deceased Soldiers (Bloomington)	130,000
Illinois Soldiers' College (Fulton)	40,000
State Agent at Washington	12,100
Chicago Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary	10,000
State Entomologist	6,000
Improvement Little Wabash	35,000
Canal and River Improvement	400,000
Commissioners of the Board of Public Charities	16,000
Constitutional Convention (estimated)	75,000
Printing and binding Adjutant-General's Reports	26,140
Sundry special appropriations	26,900
Amboy, Mattoon, and Sparta City Courts	8,000
Reform School (Pontiac)	80,000
All revenue tax in Alexandria County, given to county	14,000
Revenue tax given for Levee Funds in St. Clair, Lawrence, Randolph, and other Counties (estimated)	30,000
Increased compensation to Judges	67,200
	$2,797,870

The amount appropriated for salaries of the judicial and executive officers, Legislature, public printing and binding, conveying convicts to the penitentiary, and all ordinary and contingent expenses of the State government, including interest on the school, college, and seminary funds, is not included in the above, but, in the aggregate, would amount to about $725,000, making a grand total of $3,822,870.

The railroad legislation was of great magnitude and importance, and several new lines of road were chartered. The interest of the general public, however, centred in two bills, one of which, now a law, caused considerable discussion during the session. The act provides that it shall be lawful for any railroad company, organized and doing business, or which shall hereafter be organized under any law or laws of this State, by resolution of its board of directors or executive committee, to divide its board of directors into three classes, numbered consecutively: the term of office of the first class to expire on the day of the annual election of said company then next ensuing; the second class one year thereafter, and the third class two years thereafter. At each annual election after such classification, the stockholders shall elect, for the term of three years, a number of directors equal to the number in the class whose term expires on the day of such election, etc. The other and most important bill was one fixing rates of fare, and was general in its terms, yet was vetoed by

the Governor, on the ground that it interfered with the terms of the charter of the Illinois Central Railroad Company, and was, therefore, unconstitutional, since a charter, after acceptance by a company, becomes a contract, and is only subject to judicial control, and the Legislature, in attempting to interfere with its provisions, "assume judicial powers."

The State of Illinois is noted for the care bestowed upon those persons who, from physical or mental causes, are unable to provide for themselves, and the legislation for the year 1869 showed no departure from previous customs. Besides making ample provision for carrying on the institutions already in existence, appropriations were made for the extension of established asylums of different kinds, and for the founding of new institutions.

On the 1st of December, 1868, the number of inmates of the Insane Asylum was four hundred and six. This number of inmates was so large, and the rate of increase was so rapid, that, after carefully considering the matter, $300,000 was given for the establishment of two new institutions, to be located, one in the northern and one in the southern portion of the State, the money to be equally divided between them.

On the 11th of November the State Board of Public Charities met to consider the best system of treating the insane, in view of the alarming increase of lunatics in the State, and the inadequate provision for their care. In the course of the meeting the fact was elicited that, notwithstanding all that has been done by the State, a large number of insane paupers are now kept confined in cages at the various poor-houses throughout the State. The Board adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, In the judgment of this conference, so far as practicable, a combination in insane asylums of the cottage system, with that at present in vogue, is desirable.

Resolved, That there are weighty reasons to believe such combination is practicable, and it would increase the economy and efficiency of asylums for the insane.

The general features of the Illinois plan are as follows: 1. A central hospital, with all the appliances in use at present, constructed upon the present system. 2. A large farm, not less than six hundred and forty acres of arable land. 3. Detached houses (not cottages) scattered over the farm, built to resemble ordinary dwellings, and without expensive heating-apparatus or plumbing. 4. Each house for male patients to be under the supervision of a man and wife, assisted by one female servant and two farm laborers. 5. Frequent transfers from one house to another, as circumstances may indicate. 6. More thorough classification. 7. The organization of labor; the whole institution to be, as far as possible, upon an industrial basis; and the attendants employed with the distinct understanding that they are not mere nurses, but fellow-laborers with the patients. 8. Increased personal freedom, and more life in the open air. 9. Provision in the same institutions with the curables for all the incurables in the State.

The State Institution at Jacksonville for the education of feeble-minded children, as appears from its annual report, is a great success, though entirely inadequate to the demands upon it. It furnishes the means of education to the children of the community who are not provided for in any other of its public institutions, and keeps them under the educational influences which it possesses, until they are sufficiently prepared for the ordinary duties of life. Physical training, bathing, exercise, and other details of sanitary process are applied to the little patients, to awake and develop their dormant mental faculties. The more apt pupils are also provided with suitable occupations, as far as circumstances will admit.

There are at present 63 pupils in the school, while there are 268 applications on file for admission to its privileges, though there is no room for the applicants. The reports of the other State benevolent institutions show a prosperous condition of affairs.

The Southern Illinois Normal University is to be completed by the 1st of September, 1871, the trustees having contracted for the erection of the university building at a cost of $65,000. It is to be 208 feet in length by 108 feet in width, two stories in height, with basement and Mansard roof. The fears which were entertained that the decreasing flow from the spring which supplied the State Prison at Jacksonville would leave that institution without water, have been dissipated by the success of the artesian well. This well has reached a depth of 513 feet, and water of good quality flows from it the full size of the five-inch bore. It is the opinion of the engineer in charge that by reducing the size of the tube the water will ascend of itself to the highest part of the prison.

The State finances are in a fine condition, and, while the debt is constantly decreasing, the valuation of property is constantly increasing. From the report of the Auditor of Public Accounts for the fiscal year ending November 30, 1869, it appears that the amount of the principal of the bonded debt paid and cancelled during the year was $799,411.14, and, including the payments on the registered canal bonds by the Canal Trustees, $864,162.87. The total State debt, on the 30th of November, was $5,124,995.64, distributed as follows:

Bonded debt falling due after 1869	$67,000 00
" " " 1870	3,142,633 41
" " " 1876	80,000 00
" " " 1877	1,270,426 23
" " " 1879	564,900 00
Amount not yet presented, called in by Governor's proclamation	20,136 00
Total	$5,124,995 64

There was in the Treasury, belonging to the State Debt Fund, on the 30th of November, $1,114,153.67, and it is estimated that the total receipts of funds applicable to the payment of

the State debt up to July 1, 1871, will amount to $4,211,103.03, which will be increased by the 1st of January, 1874, by the receipts from the Central Railroad, to $5,811,103.03. This will be more than sufficient to liquidate the whole outstanding debt of the State, and the Auditor estimates that the necessity for collecting the two-mill tax will cease after one more levy, the receipts from the Central Railroad being sufficient to pay the remainder of principal and interest.

The receipts into the Treasury during the fiscal year amounted to $956,478.43, and the warrants drawn thereon to $1,670,004.42. The amount of the School, College and Seminary Funds, on the 1st of September, 1869, was $1,165,407.32, upon which interest was paid at the rate of six per cent., amounting to $69,924.43. Of this amount $12,445.99 was paid to the Normal University, $2,913.51 to the Institution for the Deaf and Dumb, and $54,564.98 distributed to counties. The school-tax, distributed to counties in addition to the above, was $900,000, making a total of $954,564.12 distributed for school purposes. The total assessed value of property in the State, according to the assessment of 1868, was $463,776,494, and according to that of 1869 it was $486,954,577, showing an increase of $23,178,083.

The assessed value of railroad property (with the exception of the Illinois Central) was as follows:

RAILROAD PROPERTY.	Average Value.	Assessed Value.
Lands, acres 40,532	.....	$655,656
Town lots, No. 3,270	.....	1,302,260
Track, 2,917 miles, 2,502 ft.	$2,660 56	7,762,073
Rolling-stock	1,894 27	5,526,475
Other personal and miscellaneous property	.....	601,262
Total	.....	$15,847,726

The following table shows what portion of the property, according to the assessment of 1869, was personal and what was its nature:

PERSONAL PROPERTY.	Number.	Average Value.	Assessed Value.
Horses	374,237	$31 69	$27,702,943
Neat-cattle	1,584,445	9 78	14,497,350
Mules and asses	88,046	36 55	3,217,769
Sheep	1,937,564	89	1,612,472
Hogs	2,086,804	1 93	3,929,832
Carriages and wagons	279,433	21 55	6,022,396
Clocks and watches	239,900	3 95	948,142
Pianos	11,940	77 12	920,843
Total		$183 39	$59,651,769
Goods and merchandise			19,843,329
Bankers, brokers, and stock-jobbers' property			196,459
Manufactured articles			1,912,408
Moneys and credits			17,400,485
Value of moneys invested in bonds, stocks, joint-stock companies, etc			1,747,873
Value of shares in the capital stock of State and national banks			8,794,445
Unenumerated property			18,385,708
Aggregate			$128,133,470
Deductions			3,744,187
Total assessed value of personal property			$124,388,283

The county, township, and town and city debts, are as follows:

COUNTY DEBTS.	
Railroad debts	$2,152,566
Other than railroad debts	6,307,298
Railroad subscriptions not yet debts	7,078,933
Total	$15,538,797
TOWN AND TOWNSHIP DEBTS.	
Railroad debts	$1,697,028
Other than railroad debts	473,528
Railroad subscriptions not yet debts	4,474,400
School debts	10,702
Total	$6,655,658
CITY DEBTS.	
Railroad debts	$1,964,250
Other than railroad debts	13,060,704
Railroad subscriptions not yet debts	1,354,500
School debts	316,000
Total	$16,715,454
Grand total	$38,909,909

Of this amount, however, it will be seen that $12,907,833 are returned as railroad subscriptions not yet debts, leaving the amount of actual debts $26,002,076.

In consequence of the extraordinary expenditures under the appropriations of the last General Assembly for the benefit of several charitable and educational institutions, and for the Constitutional Convention, it was found necessary to increase the levy of 6½ mills on the assessment of 1868, to 18 mills, to meet the ordinary expenses of the State government and the deficiency of 1868. The Auditor, however, is of the opinion that the assessed value of the taxable property of the State is only about one-fourth its real value, and that the rate of taxation is not exorbitant, or relatively greater than that of other States.

The State bank system is virtually abolished, only two banks remaining in operation—the "Sycamore Bank," and the "Cumberland County Bank." The former had a circulation, on the 1st of December, of $87, and the latter of $419.

The report of the State Treasurer shows the following condition of the Treasury:

Amount on hand December 1, 1868, and amount received to December 1, 1869	$4,325,623 82
Amount paid out from December 1, 1868, to December 1, 1869	2,562,649 12
Total amount of funds in the Treasury, December 1, 1869	$1,762,974 70

The Treasurer says:

"In July, 1861, the bonded debt of the State was $12,327,166.86. On the 1st of December, 1866, it was $8,595,343.02, which was increased, in 1867, by the issue of bonds to meet the expenses of the penitentiary, $50,000—making a total debt, in 1867, of $8,645,342.02. On the 1st day of December, 1868, the debt was $5,988,453.53. On the 1st day of December, 1869, the entire debt, including $20,136 which has been called in by proclamation of the Governor, which has not been presented, and on which interest has ceased, is only $5,124,995.64.

The amount of principal of the debt paid from December 1, 1868, to December 1, 1869, was $863,457.89. This amount was paid from the State Debt and Illinois Central Railroad Funds, and by the Trustees of the Illinois and Michigan Canal from the

receipts of the canal. All of the debt which has matured has been called in by proclamation of the Governor, and the same paid, excepting the small amount of $20,186, referred to above. Of the outstanding debt, $67,000, which matures on the 1st Monday of January, proximo, has been called in by proclamation of the Governor, dated November 28, 1869, and will be paid at maturity. Of the remaining debt, $3,149,633.41 matures in 1870, which, when paid, will leave a debt of less than $2,000,000. It is estimated that the two-mill tax for 1869, collected in 1870, will yield $950,000, and that the amount to be received from the Illinois Central Railroad Company, previous to 1871, will be about $700,000, which, added to the State Debt Fund and the Illinois Central Railroad Fund now on hand, will nearly equal the amount of the debt which matures January 1, 1871, not taking into account the premium on gold. One more levy of the two-mill tax is all that will be required.

The number of acres of land in cultivation, according to the returns of the assessors, was as follows: wheat, 2,589,214; corn, 5,193,747; other field products, 1,820,538—total, 8,603,599.

The fertility of the soil of Illinois is proverbial, and, happily for the State, the origin of the prairie loam precludes the possibility of sterile extremes arising from local causes. Almost the entire State is covered by a stratum of drift formed by the decomposition of every variety of rock, and commingled in a homogeneous mass by the agents employed in its distribution. This immense deposit varies from ten to two hundred feet in thickness. Enriched by all the minerals existing in the crust of the earth, it necessarily contains a great diversity of constituents. Since plants differ so widely in the elements of which they are composed, this multiplicity of composition is the means of growing a great diversity of crops. The amount produced is correspondingly large, and so great is the fertility, that years of continued cultivation do not materially diminish the yield. Should superficial sterility be induced by excessive working, the subsoil extends to an unusual depth, and, when rendered available by deep ploughing, has a producing capacity equal to that of the surface.

From the report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, it appears that the number of universities and colleges in the State is 20; female colleges and academies having a four years' course, 12; academies and seminaries of various grades and courses, 16; ladies' schools, of less than four years' course, 3; theological seminaries and church schools, 10; miscellaneous institutions, 5; public libraries, 7.

The forty-sixth Annual Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church was in session at Lincoln for four days, commencing September 22d. This conference was of especial interest as the scene of a jubilee in honor of the fiftieth anniversary of the entry into the ministry of Rev. Peter Cartwright, the last survivor of a class of preachers who have passed away. The following is a synopsis of his remarks on the occasion:

He said he had been called a strong man, but to-day he felt weak as a child, so overcome was he by this manifestation of the love and esteem of his fellow-Christians. He was the oldest preacher in the Methodist Church now engaged in the ministry. For sixty-five years he had labored for his Lord and Master, and during that time had only received at three times the amounts allowed him by the Church. He had the oldest preacher's wife in the world, and had lived happily with her for sixty years. He had seven children and sixty grand and great-grand children. He was born in Virginia, and had been a citizen of the West from the time he was six years old, and he is now eighty-five years. He had no language to describe the situation of this country at that time. He had suffered much in body, mind, and purse. He had been caught five hundred miles from home, in a strange land, with an old blind horse, and seventy-five cents in his pocket. He had never been officially complained of in quarterly meeting but once. In his young days he wore knee-breeches and top-boots. At the first conference he ever attended a complaint was laid against him for corrupting the morals of the people by wearing a pair of suspenders, and they sent him home. But the Lord always provides for the lazy and His lame, and he found that Bishop McKendree had indulged in the same luxury. He was then shouting, happy enough. When he entered the ministry there was but one college-bred preacher, and he was only half bred. Through the efforts of Dr. Akers he got D. D. stuck to his name, and that very day he was taken with a bad pain in his back, and he rather thought it arose from his title. He was a poor soldier's boy, and his only son. There was but one mill within forty miles, and no paper in the country. His father wanted to make an educated man of him, but he missed it badly. When it pleased God to give him religion it was of the true backwoods style. He knew he had obtained the pardon of his sins, and the knowledge of that had sustained him in all trials. He had preached as many sermons as any living man, although he could not say how good they were. He hailed with delight the success of all who preached the true gospel. He had not strength to labor as a regular preacher, and he now entirely dissolved his connection with the Church as a travelling preacher; and, notwithstanding the crosses, trials, and troubles of a travelling preacher, he would rather be one than President of the United States; and, glory be to God, He sustains us all if we have His love in our hearts; and he bade farewell to his brethren with much love and feeling. He did not originate this jubilee and is not worthy of it. After a long, hard life, he had performed nothing but his duty. Farewell, farewell. I ask your sympathy and prayers for an old man who has spent his life in God's service; and may He bless you now and for evermore!

There is a large dairy interest in the vicinity of Elgin, Ill. The lands are high and rolling, while springs and streams of living water are more numerous than we obtain usually on the lands of Illinois. The soil here is a dark loam, not unfrequently mingled with clay, sand, and gravel, and good for grass. The production of milk, on farms in the vicinity of Elgin, springs from its demand in Chicago. Of easy access by rail to the city, with good prices and a constantly-increasing call for milk and cream, farmers were induced to try this kind of dairy farming, and soon were convinced that it yielded more profits than growing grain.

There is at this point a company called the "Elgin Milk-condensing Company," organized for the purpose of condensing and preserving milk and making cheese. The following abstract is taken from the books of the company:

	New milk received.	Preserved Milk.		Condensed Milk.		Cheese.	
		New milk.	Product.	New milk.	Product.	New milk.	Product.
1868.	Quarts.	Quarts.	Quarts.	Quarts.	Quarts.	Quarts.	Pounds.
July....	84,464	2,477	617	30,366	7,425	41,892	10,144
August.	60,462	5,226	1,236	24,396	6,097	29,457	6,895
Sept..	50,497	3,923	896	23,169	5,779	23,330	5,092
October	42,663	17,600	4,525	24,154	6,034	900	245
Nov....	46,863	21,857	5,494	24,429	6,126		
Dec....	48,559	41,636	10,896	6,851	1,711		
1869.							
Jan....	67,146	66,746	17,188	400	90		
	400,644	158,777	40,812	134,360	33,261	95,079	23,376

Amount of sugar used in the above preserved milk was 44,869 pounds.

Other articles of food are condensed and preserved at this factory under the Borden process. A considerable business is done in condensing meats, beef and mutton, while the process is employed successfully in taking out the water from fruits and preserving them fresh in a condensed form.

The following important decisions were made in the Supreme Court, during the year, one of them on the matter of the assessment of bank capital for taxation.

The Court has decided that bank capital must be assessed at its par value, because, being itself the representative and standard of its own value, the assessor can have no discretionary judgment in the premises.

Another was in reference to the mutual rights of railway companies and travellers. The Supreme Court decided (Illinois Central Railroad *vs.* Whittemore) that a passenger on a railroad train must not be expelled from the car at any other place than a regular station, for the non-payment of fare. The justice of this ruling will at once become apparent and fully appreciated by those who travel on railroad trains. It not unfrequently happens by a multiplicity of causes, that a passenger is unable to secure a ticket at the office. The rules of the road prohibit the sale of tickets on the train, and compel the conductor to expel those who refuse to pay fare—the non-purchase of tickets being a violation of the rules of the company, and hence construed to be a refusal to pay fare.

Under such circumstances, there would be gross injustice in stopping the train at whatever point it might happen to be, whether in the day or night, and ejecting the passenger (it may be a woman) from the car. The court holds that a railroad company has a right to require of its passengers the observance of all reasonable rules calculated to insure comfort, convenience, good order and behavior, and secure the safety of its trains, and the proper conduct of its business as a common carrier, and that when a passenger wantonly disregards a reasonable rule (as to refuse to surrender a ticket to the conductor, etc.), the obligation to transport him ceases, and the company may expel him from the cars, not at a dangerous and inconvenient place; but a refusal to pay fare justifies an expulsion only at a regular station.

By far the most important event of the year, in the history of Illinois, is the assembling of the convention to revise the constitution. The convention was called under the first section of article twelve of the present constitution, as follows:

Section 1. Whenever two-thirds of all the members elected to each branch of the General Assembly shall think it necessary to alter or amend this constitution, they shall recommend to the electors, at the next election of members of the General Assembly, to vote for or against a convention; and, if it shall appear that a majority of all electors of the State voting for representatives have voted for a convention, the General Assembly shall, at their next session, call a convention, to consist of as many members as the House of Representatives at the time of making said call, to be chosen in the same manner, at the same place, and by the same electors, in the same districts that chose the members of the House of Representatives, and which convention shall meet within three months after said election, for the purpose of revising, altering, or amending this constitution.

Under this provision of the constitution, the Legislature, at the session of 1867, adopted the following concurrent resolution submitting the question to a vote of the people:

Resolved by the House of Representatives, the Senate concurring herein, That the electors of the State of Illinois be, and they are hereby, recommended, at the next election of members of the General Assembly, to vote for or against calling a convention to form a new constitution for the State of Illinois.

In accordance with this resolution, the people at the election in November, 1868, voted on the question of a State Convention, with the following result:

Whole number of votes cast for Representatives	444,860
One-half this vote (being the vote to be overcome)	222,430
Actual vote for Convention	223,134
Majority for Convention	704

The Legislature, accordingly, passed an act calling a convention, to consist of eighty-five members, to meet at Springfield on the second Monday in December, 1869, each representative district to be entitled to the same number of members of the convention as it was entitled to members of the House of Representatives of the then sitting General Assembly; the members of said convention to be chosen in the same manner, at the places fixed for holding general elections, and by the electors qualified to vote for members of the General Assembly, in the same districts that chose the members of the House of Representatives of the then sitting General Assembly.

The act also prescribed the manner of holding the election, of organizing the convention, of preserving the records, and of submitting the amendments to the people. It also provided for the pay of members, fixing the rate at six dollars per day, with mileage.

At the general election of November 2d, forty-four Republicans and forty-one Democrats were chosen as members of the convention.

Three State Constitutional Conventions have already met in this State. The first met at Kaskaskia, and concluded its labors August 26, 1818. An enabling act had been passed April 18, 1818, and the State was formally admitted with this constitution by the action of Congress, December 3, 1818.

The constitution of 1818 remained in force twenty-nine years, when a second Constitutional Convention was called, which assembled in Springfield June 7, 1847, and closed its session August 31st following. This convention was presided over by Newton Cloud, of Morgan County, and consisted of one hundred and sixty-two members. It counted among its members a large number of the most prominent men of the State. The constitution framed by this convention was submitted to a vote of the people at an election held on the first Monday of March, 1848, and ratified by a large majority.

The third State Constitutional Convention was chosen under an act of the Legislature of 1861, at the election in November following; met in Springfield, January 7, 1862, and adjourned *sine die* March 24, 1862. It consisted of seventy-five members, of whom forty-five were classed as Democrats, ten Union Democrats, and twenty Republicans. W. A. Hacker was president. The constitution framed at this time was submitted to a vote of the people on the Tuesday after the third Monday of June, 1862, and rejected by the following vote:

Against the Constitution	141,113
For the Constitution	125,052
Majority against Constitution	16,061

The convention met in the hall of the Representatives at 2 P. M. on the 13th of December.

On attempting to organize, William Cary, of Jo Daviess County, and J. C. Dement, of Lee County, were both put in nomination, both declared elected, and both conducted to the chair. A roll of the members was then called, and Mr. Dement, the Democratic candidate, elected, the Independent Republicans of Cook County voting with the Democrats. Secretaries were chosen, and the convention adjourned. No permanent organization was effected until the fourth day, December 17th, when the Democrats, by a union with the Conservative or Independent Republicans, secured the organization. The vote on president stood, Charles Hitchcock (Democrat), 45; Joseph Medill (Republican), 40.

The president did not announce the standing committees until Monday, December 20th, the sixth day, on which day the convention adjourned for the holidays, until January 5, 1870.

The following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That it is the sense of this convention, that any amendments to this constitution as proposed by this convention shall not take effect until ratified by a vote of the people.

Resolved, That the constitution of the State should be amended as follows, to wit: that the Governor of this State shall, at each regular session of the Legislature thereof, present with his message to the General Assembly a statement of the moneys paid out of funds under his order or control, and on what account, together with the vouchers therefor.

Also resolutions calling upon the Auditor for certain reports, in compliance with which the following statistics were furnished the convention:

Gross earnings of the Illinois Central Railroad, and amount of Tax paid into the Treasury since May 1, 1861:

FROM—	Gross earnings reported.	Amount of 7 per cent. on reported earnings.
May 1 to Oct. 31, 1861	$1,318,906 47	$92,323 45
Nov. 1 to April 30, 1862	1,063,790 61	74,465 84
May 1, '62, to Oct. 31, '62	1,967,275 18	137,709 26
Nov. 1, '62, to April 30, '63	1,809,066 97	126,634 63
May 1, '63, to Oct. 31, '63	2,482,382 12	173,759 75
Nov. 1, '63, to April 30, '64	2,429,393 28	170,055 08
May 1, '64, to Oct. 31, '64	3,363,699 48	235,458 96
Nov. 1, '64, to April 30, '65	3,436,453 28	240,553 84
May 1, '65, to Oct. 31, '65	3,656,286 56	255,936 00
Nov. 1, '65, to April 30, '66	2,985,788 55	209,501 70
May 1, '66, to Oct. 31, '66	3,165,843 63	221,574 05
Nov. 1, '66, to April 30, '67	2,959,566 99	207,169 70
May 1, '67, to Oct. 31, '67	3,383,400 57	236,838 04
Nov. 1, '67, to April 30, '68	2,780,043 05	194,603 01
May 1, '68, to Oct. 31, '68	3,339,921 01	233,794 47
Nov. 1, '68, to April 30, '69	2,999,196 41	209,943 75
May 1, '69, to Oct. 31, '69	3,642,706 06	254,989 56
Total	$46,743,011 97	$3,271,310 79

The Auditor reported that, since June 11, 1862, this last-named amount—$3,271,310.79—had been paid into the State Treasury by the company; $254,989.56 of this was paid on the 4th instant. The resolution requiring the statement was passed on the 20th of December.

The earnings of the road from November 1, 1868, to April 30, 1869, were from the following sources:

Freight	$2,066,947 53
Passengers	797,361 73
Extra baggage	904,074 00
Mails	33,601 36
Express	95,361 03
Total	$2,999,196 41

Do. from May 1 to October 31, 1869:

Freight	$2,529,734 82
Passengers	908,229 15
Extra baggage	1,027 04
Mails	38,188 89
Express, etc	165,587 16
Total	$3,642,706 06

Real and Personal Property of the State from 1864 to 1869, inclusive.

	Year.	Total value of real and personal property.	Rate of levy for all State taxes, per $100.	Total amt of errors, insolvencies, commissions, etc.
As assessed	1864	$356,878,847	7¼ mills	$214,774 57
"	1865	392,827,906	7 2-10 "	200,522 56
"	1866	410,694,993	7 "	236,094 19
" & equalized	1867	504,683,553	7 7-10 "	270,850 19
" "	1868	474,461,429	6½ "	239,109 14
" "	1869	491,081,314	13 "	*491,000 00

The total debt of the State is as follows: Bonded debt, December 1, 1869, $5,124,995,64;

* Estimated.

school fund, $1,165,407.32; total debt, $6,290,402.96.

The following are among the leading questions which will be agitated in the convention: special legislation; pay of officials; veto-power of Governor; the general railroad system; the Illinois Central Road; universal suffrage, including women; the compulsory observance of the Sabbath; ratification of amendments to the Constitution of the United States; majority and minority representation; corporations only to be created by general acts; judicial system of the State; amalgamation of races; "watering" stocks; educational system; death penalty; State militia; pledging the State credit; taxation; canal and river improvements; apportionment of Legislature; law of divorce; homestead law; the two-mill tax; State rights and Federal relations.

IMMIGRATION. The immigration to the United States from foreign countries, for the year ending June 30, 1869, was greatly in excess of that of any previous year since 1854, having reached the number of 352,569. The magnitude of the immigration for this year, as well as its rapid increase since the war, is shown by the following comparative statement of the total arrivals at the different ports of the country since and including the year 1856:

1856	200,436	1863	176,282
1857	251,306	1864	193,418
1858	123,126	1865	248,120
1859	121,282	1866	318,554
1860	153,640	1867	298,358
1861	91,220	1868	297,215
1862	91,987	1869	352,569
		Total in fourteen years	2,918,213

Total from July 1, 1865, to June 30, 1869, five years, 1,514,816.

The nationalities and occupations of the foreigners arriving in the United States during the year which ended June 30, 1869, as well as the proportion landed at the different ports, are given in the following exhibit:

Number of immigrants arrived in each customs district.		Number of immigrants arrived from each country.		Number of immigrants arrived belonging to each occupation.	
New York, N. Y.	263,754	Germany	122,537	Laborers	88,649
Huron, Mich.	35,686	Great Britain	60,286	Farmers	28,096
Boston, Mass.	23,294	Ireland	64,998	Mechanics	16,553
San Francisco, Cal.	13,490	Sweden	24,294	Servants	10,365
Baltimore, Md.	11,302	Brit. North Am. Provinces	20,918	Merchants	8,809
Portland, Me.	4,026	Norway	16,066	Miners	6,005
New Orleans, La.	3,494	China	12,874	Clerks	1,643
Detroit, Mich.	3,396	France	3,879	Masons	1,388
Philadelphia, Pa.	1,061	Switzerland	3,650	Mariners	1,219
Oregon, Oregon	978	Denmark	3,649	Tailors	1,194
Texas, Texas	709	West Indies	2,284	Shoemakers	1,106
Key West, Fla.	476	Belgium	1,922	Bakers	870
Charleston, S. C.	381	Italy	1,498	Weavers	771
Cuyahoga, Ohio	215	Holland	1,134	Butchers	645
Chicago, Ill.	206	Spain	1,122	Physicians	397
Gloucester, Mass.	170	Azores Islands	420	Artists	375
Marblehead, Mass.	76	Russia	343	Painters	369
New Bedford, Mass.	76	Mexico	330	Clergymen	298
Puget Sound, W. T.	28	Poland	184	Engineers	285
St. Augustine, Fla.	28	South America	90	Seamstresses	282
Genesee, N. Y.	21	Portugal	87	Brewers	247
Providence, R. I.	13	Africa	72	Fishermen	211
New Haven, Conn.	6	Japan	63	Teachers	181
Portsmouth, N. H.	6	Turkey	18	Jewellers	171
Savannah, Ga.	4	Greece	8	All other occupations	1,436
Newport, R. I.	2	All other countries	25	Occupation not stated	725
Bristol and Warren, R. I.	1	Not stated	15	Without occupation	180,449
Total immigrants	352,569	Total immigrants	352,569	Total immigrants	352,569

The State of New York has the most extensive and the best-organized system in the country for the reception and care of immigrants. The "Board of Commissioners of Emigration of the State" has been in successful operation since the 15th of May, 1847; and its labors have been most beneficial to the interests of the immigrants, and to those of the country. The commissioners, who contribute their services gratuitously, make it their duty to anticipate the wants of immigrants on their arrival; to protect them from fraud and imposition, to care for the sick and helpless, render aid to those seeking employment, and, in general, to superintend their welfare. For the purpose of creating a fund to enable the commissioners to carry on this work, a *per capita* tax of two dollars and fifty cents is assessed upon each alien entering the port of New York, which is paid by the owner of the vessel carrying the immigrant. This commutation fund is the consideration of a contract between the immigrant and the State of New York, by which the latter binds herself "to protect him on his arrival, and for the period of five years thereafter provide him with shelter if destitute, and with medical and other aid if sick." The amount of this fund for the year 1868 was $538,480.50, and for the year 1869 exceeded the sum of $650,000; and the good which it has enabled the commissioners to accomplish is shown by the fact that in the year 1868 they paid to the hospitals and cities and counties of the State, for the nursing and support of immigrants, upward of $100,000, and also $230,000, the cost of maintaining 11,513 inmates of the immigrant hospitals and asylums on Ward's Island, in the bay of New

York. The Board now holds in trust a property on Ward's Island, valued at not less than two million dollars, and is constantly enlarging and improving the facilities for the effectual care and support of unfortunate immigrants. One of the most useful features of the system adopted by the commissioners is the "Labor Exchange," recently established for the purpose of procuring, free of charge, speedy employment for immigrants, and of supplying the demand for all kinds of labor in any of the States. The results of the labors of this Bureau, for the years 1868 and 1869, are here given. They indicate the points to which immigrants were sent in response to applications for their labor through the Labor Exchange; and it will be seen that the demands for labor from the States of New York, New Jersey, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania, were greater than from all the other States:

DESTINATION.	1868.		1869.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
New York (Met. Dis.)	6,579	6,984	7,047	7,988
New York (outside do.)	5,728	2,979	6,959	1,177
New Jersey	3,230	2,268	5,556	1,886
Connecticut	884	268	1,408	297
Pennsylvania	583	147	1,288	28
Virginia	91	46	6	....
Illinois	222	44	2	2
South Carolina	133	61	88	20
Massachusetts	177	56	112	30
Vermont	95	30	8	1
Wisconsin	23	2	2	....
Tennessee	14	11	2	....
Rhode Island	84	11	56	9
Georgia	17	3	3	....
Michigan	3	9	5	....
New Hampshire	6	3	3	6
Maryland	2	2	....	3
Ohio	15	8	1	2
Maine	68	1	1	5
Kentucky	2	....	28	3
Alabama	1	....	16	2
Missouri	....	....	1	....
Mississippi	....	....	21	11
Louisiana	....	....	5	....

There is also an immigration on the Pacific coast which it may not be out of place here to mention. This consists of the Chinese who have arrived at San Francisco from Asia. The large mass of them are located chiefly in California; but many have found their way to the mining regions of Nevada and of some of the Territories. In California they are occupied chiefly in mining pursuits, and have generally been extremely successful. They cannot, perhaps, be strictly regarded as permanent inhabitants, as the intention to return to China with their accumulations is almost universal. They are males mostly, and come for the purpose of gain. In 1856 the number arrived at San Francisco was 4,783; in 1860 it was 5,467; in 1865 it was 2,942, and in 1869 it was 12,874. The total number of arrivals of Chinese since 1855 has been 78,817.

New York is the principal port of entry for the vast numbers of immigrants to this country, where more than five-sevenths of all those arriving are landed. Of the total number of arrivals during the year ending December 31, 1869, 254,837 entered at the port of New York. The nationalities and destinations of these, compared with the same statistics of last year, are given in the following statements, which also show the States receiving the largest number of immigrants:

	1868.	1869.
NATIONALITY.		
Germany	101,999	96,541
Ireland	47,571	68,628
England	29,695	41,387
Sweden	14,530	24,693
Scotland	7,390	10,411
Switzerland	3,802	3,153
France	2,811	1,084
Holland	1,265	1,342
Denmark	1,857	2,673
Norway	1,008	2,587
Italy	993	1,540
Wales	699	1,022
Newfoundland	....	1
Australia	....	1
Brazil	....	1
Chili	....	1
China	....	5
Japan	....	1
Lima	....	5
DESTINATION.		
Alabama	114	104
Arizona	....	104
Arkansas	78	18
British Columbia	66	13
California	3,969	3,594
Canada	2,722	2,564
Central America	21	3
Colorado	38	91
Connecticut	3,456	3,922
Cuba	14	6
Dakota	38	9
Delaware	409	143
District of Columbia	873	335
Florida	24	20
Georgia	127	117
Idaho	15	7
Illinois	34,625	37,311
Indiana	3,853	3,025
Iowa	7,040	8,028
Kansas	1,085	1,632
Kentucky	1,398	843
Louisiana	567	227
Maine	298	223
Maryland	1,604	1,384
Massachusetts	7,604	8,136
Mexico	14	7
Michigan	7,294	6,989
Minnesota	5,891	6,735
Mississippi	84	98
Missouri	6,517	4,721
Montana	14	18
Nebraska	1,410	1,641
Nevada	18	40
New Brunswick	113	89
New Hampshire	411	192
New Jersey	5,916	7,763
New Mexico	5	5
New York	65,714	89,873
North Carolina	114	117
Nova Scotia	150	49
Ohio	11,788	11,738
Oregon	20	22
Pennsylvania	16,226	20,746
Rhode Island	2,279	2,227
South America	185	61
South Carolina	148	148
Tennessee	549	495
Texas	266	265
Utah	3,155	2,235
Vermont	533	498
Virginia	731	777
West Indies	14	25
West Virginia	22	140
Wisconsin	16,537	15,698
Wyoming	....	5

Since the year 1847 no less than 4,038,991

immigrants have been landed at the port of New York alone. Valuable statistics, showing the country from which they emigrate, and the favorite localities for settlement, have been prepared with great care, and are given in the following exhibits:

TABLE SHOWING THE NUMBERS AND NATIONALITIES OF IMMIGRANTS WHO ARRIVED AT THE PORT OF NEW YORK, FROM MAY 5, 1847, TO JANUARY, 1869.

NATIONALITY.	1847.	1848.	1849.	1850.	1851.	1852.	1853.	1854.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.
Ireland	52,946	96,061	112,591	117,038	163,806	118,131	113,164	82,302	43,043	44,276	57,119	25,075
Germany	58,180	51,973	55,705	45,535	69,919	118,611	119,644	176,986	52,892	56,113	80,974	31,874
England	8,864	23,062	28,321	28,163	28,553	31,551	27,126	30,578	22,938	23,787	28,622	12,324
Scotland	2,354	6,415	8,840	6,772	7,302	7,694	6,456	4,909	4,240	4,723	5,170	2,718
France	3,330	2,734	2,683	3,462	5,964	8,868	7,470	7,986	4,174	2,984	3,069	1,786
Switzerland	1,947	1,622	1,405	2,380	4,499	6,471	4,604	8,883	3,273	2,559	2,454	1,315
Holland	3,611	1,560	2,447	1,174	1,798	1,223	1,085	1,466	822	1,666	1,784	348
Wales	472	1,054	1,782	1,520	2,189	2,531	1,182	1,288	1,118	1,376	887	566
Norway	882	1,207	3,300	3,150	2,112	1,889	377	81	203	438	62	3
Sweden	139	165	1,007	1,110	872	2,008	1,630	1,859	304	918	619	237
Italy	197	321	602	476	618	359	553	785	667	690	596	669
Belgium	551	.....	118	230	475	82	34	398	1,201	850	444	253
Spain	101	253	214	257	278	471	659	646	457	330	263	146
West Indies	299	392	449	554	575	265	.....	11	19	225	330	344
Denmark	95	52	159	90	229	157	94	102	174	469	453	284
Poland	26	79	133	188	422	188	186	169	346	142	245	88
Sardinia	.....	.....	172	165	98	69	72	148	67	426	405	324
South America	.....	31	33	104	121	120	175	111	112	163	66	92
Portugal	34	57	287	65	26	37	237	205	24	30	93	27
Nova Scotia	.....	.....	151	164	81	73	6	128	9	30	40	18
Russia	10	28	38	18	23	33	39	55	20	56	42	19
Canada	.....	.....	59	61	50	48	.....	2	64	57	30	17
Mexico	.....	12	23	41	42	23	51	34	20	19	11	13
Sicily	.....	.....	21	28	12	42	37	58	18	10	26	19
China	.....	2	9	11	22	14	53	20	18	8	11	15
East Indies	23	.....	34	32	10	18	.....	.....	5	....	.....	7
Greece	.....	1	6	4	1	11	1	7	3	3	8	2
Turkey	1	.....	6	4	4	5	10	6	2	4	.....	6
Arabia	.....	.....	8	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Africa	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Australia	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Japan	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Central America	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Unknown	.....	95	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Annual Total	129,062	189,176	220,602	212,796	289,601	300,992	284,945	319,223	136,233	142,342	183,778	78,589

NATIONALITY.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	Total.
Ireland	33,658	47,880	26,784	33,217	91,157	89,399	70,463	68,047	65,134	47,571	1,597,805
Germany	28,270	37,809	27,129	27,740	35,003	57,446	83,451	105,716	117,591	101,989	1,536,649
England	10,375	11,861	5,633	7,975	18,757	23,710	27,296	36,186	33,712	29,695	498,578
Scotland	2,325	1,617	659	692	1,937	1,126	3,963	4,979	6,315	7,390	100,595
France	1,583	1,549	1,200	1,187	1,308	1,804	2,059	3,246	3,204	2,811	74,405
Switzerland	791	1,423	1,398	1,254	1,194	1,652	2,513	3,685	3,985	3,302	62,608
Holland	261	440	331	456	407	615	729	1,506	2,156	1,265	27,100
Wales	500	811	697	1,062	1,148	659	505	540	142	699	22,732
Norway	36	53	98	23	238	88	158	583	309	1 1,008	16,392
Sweden	318	361	382	663	1,370	1,516	2,337	3,907	4,843	14,520	41,085
Italy	399	542	780	487	444	475	591	918	1,083	998	13,164
Belgium	57	76	165	195	456	186	97	157	1,628	149	7,797
Spain	234	228	190	194	202	196	224	315	208	210	6,201
West Indies	416	523	165	156	256	236	283	246	214	171	6,139
Denmark	498	496	612	1,669	1,580	565	727	1,586	1,373	1,087	12,504
Poland	114	80	42	50	187	198	423	231	268	268	4,094
Sardinia	164	89	67	89	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	2,306
South America	138	110	88	98	60	124	109	155	97	134	2,235
Portugal	45	19	14	13	3	34	42	96	79	13	1,470
Nova Scotia	81	23	11	67	77	40	77	40	22	52	1,190
Russia	69	61	36	46	47	37	93	154	185	145	1,254
Canada	25	25	19	33	17	35	43	28	42	33	686
Mexico	13	22	45	13	38	92	70	56	28	34	700
Sicily	1	4	1	9	1	3	3	1	.....	3	297
China	4	13	10	13	5	41	36	96	17	49	399
East Indies	.....	4	2	1	3	1	7	15	4	2	168
Greece	6	2	1	6	2	13	5	5	8	10	105
Turkey	3	3	5	3	2	5	5	8	6	22	110
Arabia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	8
Africa	.....	.....	.....	.....	6	.....	37	15	2	10	70
Australia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	44	26	100
Japan	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	18	12	87	3	97
Central America	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	7	21	40
Unknown	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	12	.....	.....	107
Annual Total	79,322	105,162	65,589	76,806	156,844	182,296	196,352	238,418	242,731	213,686	4,086,991

AVOWED DESTINATION OF PASSENGERS LANDED AT CASTLE GARDEN, FROM AUGUST 1, 1854, TO JANUARY 1, 1869.

DESTINATION.	1855.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	TOTAL.
New York	19,489	55,065	78,585	34,296	40,922	56,121	32,782	38,512	94,105	92,409	99,486	97,807	91,610	66,714	698,497
Pennsylvania	4,469	11,749	14,600	6,708	7,270	9,512	5,114	6,116	15,295	18,212	23,976	24,874	27,484	16,998	192,745
Illinois	2,444	11,064	13,750	6,690	8,940	4,077	4,010	5,209	8,435	11,521	17,177	23,286	26,264	34,565	175,102
Wisconsin	4,667	13,227	12,704	4,953	2,441	2,289	2,217	4,574	5,075	6,265	6,127	9,160	14,221	16,537	104,457
Ohio	3,250	7,055	10,064	6,176	4,668	5,198	3,863	3,942	6,574	9,257	10,316	13,993	18,812	11,133	108,343
Massachusetts	2,027	6,494	6,904	3,212	5,119	6,271	3,433	4,453	11,734	14,139	8,967	11,874	10,434	7,804	102,745
Canada	3,845	9,526	9,673	4,218	2,213	1,877	1,564	2,530	3,089	2,644	1,267	1,741	2,223	2,722	48,133
New Jersey	1,119	3,243	3,806	1,922	2,621	3,414	1,892	1,683	3,144	5,206	5,295	7,817	7,271	5,916	54,569
Unknown	1,354	6,300	6,489	1,967	2,039	2,542	.....	2,457	.....	.....	11	96	10	.....	23,035
Michigan	1,443	3,996	4,108	1,697	1,205	1,478	1,530	1,900	2,062	3,167	3,178	4,185	7,119	7,224	44,247
Connecticut	899	2,292	2,974	1,227	1,229	2,579	1,416	1,248	3,229	3,608	3,288	3,711	4,209	3,488	35,127
Iowa	795	2,250	3,775	1,796	664	776	1,599	1,082	1,094	1,948	2,400	4,493	5,616	7,040	38,679
Missouri	434	1,064	2,396	1,490	1,586	1,814	900	850	2,188	2,378	5,016	4,918	7,281	6,517	39,885
Indiana	881	1,988	2,474	1,271	1,122	1,906	906	988	1,257	1,826	2,720	3,901	5,960	5,888	34,272
Rhode Island	551	1,254	1,289	510	1,001	1,281	520	421	1,005	1,246	1,255	2,299	2,470	1,379	19,145
Maryland	485	1,164	1,535	907	902	1,014	434	401	1,012	1,580	1,888	1,518	1,704	1,904	14,445
California	447	778	877	1,084	1,108	1,141	1,022	1,422	1,149	1,459	877	1,678	1,979	3,009	19,017
Minnesota	197	491	1,958	698	542	486	780	949	1,433	1,109	1,514	2,459	3,783	5,861	22,534
Utah	250	1,579	14	3	740	906	1,441	2,418	3,561	1,894	1,092	2,082	514	3,115	21,866
Virginia	292	567	702	548	575	452	481	102	187	334	560	1,006	913	731	7,450
Kentucky	183	460	660	520	546	650	301	215	592	910	1,060	1,638	1,870	1,392	10,778
District of Columbia	202	407	532	336	308	301	166	585	1,054	1,026	1,229	890	917	873	8,732
Vermont	168	250	297	172	198	270	125	153	297	362	763	928	859	833	5,576
Louisiana	60	171	206	240	265	321	190	80	240	327	268	550	689	567	4,194
South Carolina	80	178	157	105	185	296	45	2	.....	6	77	171	192	146	1,736
Maine	143	148	186	210	192	143	176	121	340	409	413	330	550	258	3,223
Tennessee	72	178	127	165	147	208	62	56	190	226	293	560	499	549	3,281
Georgia	70	147	127	162	193	178	25	2	4	.....	22	225	264	127	1,486
New Hampshire	71	177	179	99	121	123	29	63	110	143	202	189	311	411	2,297
Delaware	40	81	113	55	117	48	16	55	110	143	149	238	281	409	1,556
New Brunswick	2	.....	97	75	82	63	93	42	99	89	80	90	98	113	963
Texas	5	76	55	43	52	92	28	3	6	9	41	124	427	266	1,330
Kansas	1	11	25	38	77	43	25	63	122	231	286	468	705	1,003	3,203
North Carolina	11	66	41	52	48	15	52	.....	.....	7	87	140	83	114	666
Mississippi	6	14	62	21	50	45	19	.....	.....	1	52	65	73	96	485
Alabama	7	30	21	25	39	21	11	.....	7	.....	27	96	75	114	473
Nova Scotia	30	9	42	53	14	46	14	149	65	43	45	80	64	156	797
Nebraska	.....	2	27	41	31	18	3	.....	89	13	116	119	649	1,419	2,510
South America	28	80	18	14	36	22	13	7	23	15	24	27	33	185	476
Cuba	.....	.....	26	22	46	21	20	17	22	29	50	11	21	14	219
Arkansas	5	30	9	10	16	17	3	6	.....	.....	4	33	71	73	274
Florida	13	13	5	11	39	9	6	6	1	4	5	10	29	34	177
Mexico	.....	19	1	5	7	13	4	3	18	10	71	19	96	14	208
Oregon	1	.....	7	6	6	9	6	.....	2	22	18	38	19	30	164
West Indies	2	11	.....	6	5	1	4	7	.....	17	15	15	15	14	115
New Mexico	.....	.....	5	.....	22	8	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5	44
Central America	.....	.....	.....	3	9	22	10	5	5	.....	.....	7	28	21	111
Prince Edward's Isle	.....	.....	.....	3	3	1	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	7	13	.....	35
Vancouver's Isle	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	3	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	5
Washington Territory	.....	.....	.....	.....	3	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	3
Australia	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	1	1	1	2	1	.....	3	2	.....	12
Bermuda	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2
Sandwich Isles	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
Russian America	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1
British Columbia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	396	8	22	7	11	30	66	540
Nevada	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	4	17	18	39
Colorado	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	30	22	28	80
Idaho	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	1	7	15	23
Dakota	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	2	38	40
West Virginia	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	22	22
Montana	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	14	14
Total	51,114	141,538	165,076	84,296	88,902	108,692	68,211	81,458	161,648	184,700	200,081	238,851	241,985	214,222	2,089,424

From the above statistics it will be seen that the emigration from Ireland, during the seven years immediately following 1847, was unusually large, and that the tide of German emigration, greater in 1851 than it had been during any previous year, rapidly increased in each of the three succeeding years. The years 1858 and 1859 as well as 1861 and 1862 show a great decrease in the number of arrivals. The causes of these results are explained by Mr. Frederick Kapp, one of the Commissioners of Emigration of the State of New York, who has made the subject of immigration a special study, in the following language:

"The emigration from Ireland, which from 1844 rose much beyond its former proportions, reached its culminating point after the great famine of 1846. During the decade of 1845 to 1854 inclusive, in which period the highest figures ever known in the history of emigration to the United States were reached, 1,512,100 Irish left the United Kingdom. In the first half of that decade, viz., from January 1, 1845, to December 31, 1849, 607,241 went to the United States, and in the last half, viz., from January 1, 1850, to December 31, 1854, as many as 904,859 arrived in this country. With this unprecedentedly large emigration Ireland has exhausted herself. Since 1855 her quota has fallen off to less than one-half of the average of the preceding ten years.

"Almost coincident, in point of time, with this mighty exodus from Ireland was the colossal emigration from Germany which followed the failure of the political revolutions attempted in 1848 and 1849. Already in 1845 and the following years the German contingent of emigrants to the United States showed an average twice as large as in the same space of time previous to the year named. But a voluntary expatriation on a much larger scale resulted from the final triumph of political reaction. The *coup d'état* of Louis Napoleon closed for all Europe the revolutionary era opened in 1848. In the three years preceding that event the issue of the struggle of the

people against political oppression had remained doubtful. But the 2d of December, 1851, having decided the success of the oppressors for a long time to come, the majority of those who felt dissatisfied with the reactionary *régime* left their homes. The fact, that the largest number of Germans ever landed in one year in the United States came in 1854, showed the complete darkening of the political horizon at that time. The apprehension of a new continental war, which actually broke out a year later in the Crimea, also hastened the steps of those who sought refuge in this country. People of the well-to-do classes, who had months and years to wait before they could sell their property, helped to swell the tide to its extraordinary proportions. From January 1, 1845, till December 31, 1854, there arrived 1,226,392 Germans in the United States, 452,943 of whom came in the first five years of this period, and 773,449 in the last five.

"But the numerical strength of emigration to this country is not governed by material and moral disturbances in Europe only. While bad crops, commercial and industrial crises, and unfavorable turns in political affairs in the Old World tend to increase emigration, the appearance of the same phenomena in the United States as certainly tends to decrease it. Thus, in 1838, the total of emigration decreased to 38,914, while in the previous year it had amounted to 79,340, and in 1839 and 1840 it increased again to 68,069 and 84,066 respectively. The reason of this extraordinary decrease was the great financial crisis of 1837, which shook the foundation of the whole industrial and agricultural life of the United States. Again, the influx of aliens into New York was smaller in 1858 and 1859 than in any previous year since 1842, for the only reason that the commercial crisis of 1857 had frightened those who wanted to make a living by the labor of their hands. In 1858 and 1859 only 78,589 and 79,322 immigrants respectively arrived in New York, while in 1856 their number amounted to 142,342, and in 1857 to 186,733. In 1860 it rose to 105,162, but, in consequence of the breaking out of the civil war, it fell again in 1861 to 65,539, and in 1862 to 76,306. In 1867 the German immigration in New York increased over that of 1866 by more than 10,000, in which last-mentioned year it had already reached the large number of 106,716 souls. Its ranks were swollen in 1867 in consequence of the emigration of men liable to military service from the new provinces annexed to Prussia in 1866, and of families dissatisfied with the new order of things. Hanover contributed the largest share to this kind of emigration. In 1868 the tide subsided again, as people began to become reconciled to the sudden change. In short, bad times in Europe regularly increase, and bad times in America invariably diminish, immigration."

The occupations of the passengers that arrived in the United States, during the thirteen years from 1856 to 1868 inclusive, are shown in the following statement:

OCCUPATIONS.	1856.	1857.	1858.	1859.	1860.	1861.	1862.	1863.	1864.	1865.	1866.	1867.	1868.	Total.
Laborers.....	37,019	43,249	22,317	21,696	31,968	19,413	17,752	46,198	48,041	45,245	58,639	55,443	68,947	515,217
Farmers.....	24,722	34,702	20,500	16,333	21,742	11,668	9,365	12,349	13,887	20,012	30,302	29,717	19,804	264,949
Mechanics...	9,805	18,074	11,995	13,092	13,088	7,575	6,934	14,418	14,156	20,218	23,939	25,966	17,326	196,503
Merchants...	11,101	12,114	10,217	12,495	11,207	7,523	7,763	7,562	9,468	12,676	15,834	11,841	8,393	128,214
Miners.....	6,126	5,660	4,354	9,510	8,894	2,897	1,732	4,314	6,098	7,631	8,010	7,305	4,698	71,414
Servants.....	1,748	1,922	1,142	1,261	1,415	770	3,704	9,088	15,629	9,336	8,905	6,367	8,021	68,628
Mariners.....	906	990	1,109	836	1,007	734	1,624	2,088	2,106	2,518	2,687	2,501	1,892	20,988
Clerks.....	135	271	259	194	200	122	658	1,277	1,574	2,775	2,731	2,317	1,351	13,864
Bakers.....	19	51	74	46	104	28	133	520	647	1,003	966	988	751	5,330
Butchers.....	54	22	38	38	58	27	194	403	545	842	840	974	623	4,658
Seamstr's, Milliners..	215	258	261	250	273	49	182	347	640	304	373	336	282	3,770
Physicians...	163	147	178	253	221	216	226	294	315	399	521	438	365	3,736
Artists.....	37	69	45	97	80	31	88	377	340	606	662	661	468	3,561
Clergymen...	118	173	132	157	183	213	274	231	258	374	453	454	302	3,322
Weavers, etc.	1,255	189	80	114	141	43	57	347	130	143	135	156	76	2,866
Tailors.....	25	108	156	137	204	41	66	75	147	266	322	299	205	2,151
Shoemakers.	22	86	117	141	156	358	85	73	148	209	273	250	186	2,128
Lawyers.....	90	73	113	166	116	106	108	156	182	249	259	253	17	1,943
Manufactu's.	22	187	74	63	50	218	94	66	107	181	254	198	183	1,696
Engineers...	105	73	165	118	132	99	97	95	86	100	142	111	24	1,345
Teachers....	25	28	46	86	57	22	19	16	29	59	143	38	237	809
Masons.....	10	16	68	40	50	32	21	31	37	77	132	184	102	799
Millers.....	73	26	39	37	48	29	21	5	24	40	54	65	36	497
Musicians...	15	31	115	45	108	26	14	7	12	10	21	32	14	450
Actors.....	4	44	33	54	27	5	17	15	20	18	47	94	.....	378
Painters.....	1	31	31	15	29	11	3	27	29	43	65	60	18	363
Printers.....	12	21	19	8	14	12	22	15	19	20	44	22	19	247
Hatters.....	2	.....	3	.....	.....	1	1	.....	1	1	12	4	1	26
Miscellane's.	602	246	451	609	885	218	389	360	308	455	648	437	426	5,984
Occ'n not specified.	130,045	158,717	70,869	77,619	93,090	60,761	62,860	99,047	106,657	101,589	202,442	192,222	191,493	1,603,411
Aggregate	234,496	271,982	144,906	155,509	179,691	112,702	114,463	199,811	221,585	287,399	359,943	339,627	326,282	2,998,296

The above figures include the arrivals of citizens of the United States, returning to this country, the proportion of which will be found by comparing the aggregates for the different years with the total number of alien arrivals for the same period given above.

It is estimated that more than two-thirds of the population gained by the United States

since 1790 is of foreign extraction. This estimate is based upon the calculation that the average increase of the population of this country, by the excess of births over deaths, is at the rate of 1.38 per cent. Applying this rule to the increase of the population of this country since 1790, in which year it was, exclusive of slaves, 3,231,930, the results show the magnitude of the foreign element.

The following figures represent what the population, exclusive of slaves, would have been at intervals of ten years, if increased only by the excess of births over deaths, and what it actually was under the influence of constant immigration:

	By natural increase.	Actual population.
In 1800	3,706,674	4,412,896
" 1810	4,251,143	6,048,450
" 1820	4,875,600	8,100,056
" 1830	5,591,775	10,796,077
" 1840	6,413,161	14,582,008
" 1850	7,355,423	19,987,563
" 1860	8,435,882	27,489,662
" 1865	9,034,245	about 30,000,000

From this, it will be seen that, of the total population in 1865, 20,965,755 were of foreign extraction.

In 1856, the Commissioners of Emigration in New York prepared statistics for that year, showing the average amount of money brought into the country by immigrants, and this was found to be $68.08 for each person. The commissioners subsequently discontinued this examination, because they were not able to obtain correct information, the immigrants being suspicious of their motives. It has since been estimated that the average amount of personal property brought by each immigrant to this country is $150.

The subject of immigration has recently received a new interest and an increased importance, on account of the needs of the Southern and Southwestern States, and the efforts made by them to increase the flow of immigration into their section of the country. In all of the commercial conventions held during the year, this was one of the leading topics of discussion, and there was a marked unanimity of opinion as to the necessity of encouraging immigration as the best means of developing the material and industrial resources of the South. A plan was recommended by the Commercial Convention assembled at Louisville in October, for the establishment of a General Agency, or Bureau of Immigration, for the purpose of preparing reports showing the physical geography of these States, their industrial resources, and the advantages and inducements offered to immigrants; such reports to be translated and published in the various languages, and gratuitously distributed among the nations of Europe. The active efforts made by the South to induce immigrants to settle there will undoubtedly have an important influence upon the future history of emigration to the United States.

INDIA, British, a dependency of Great Britain, in Asia. According to the "Statistical Abstract for the Colonial and other Possessions," etc., 1852–1866 (London, 1868), British India had, in 1866, an area of 988,091 square miles, and 150,767,851 inhabitants. The revenue was £48,935,000; the expenditures, £47,332,000; the debt, £98,384. The imports were valued at £56,160,000; the exports, at £67,660,000.

Out of 150,000,000 of people under British dominion, it is estimated that there are 110,000,000 Hindoos, 25,000,000 Mohammedans, 12,000,000 of the aboriginal tribes, and 3,000,000 or 4,000,000 Buddhists, Jews, and Parsees.

In no part of India is the progress so remarkable as in the Punjab. Of its area, 96,000 square miles are under the direct government of Great Britain, while no less than 197,000 square miles are owned and administered by native chiefs. Of these 96,000 square miles, 33,000 are cultivated. The crops are raised from 9,752,165 acres in spring, and 9,250,245 acres in autumn, judging from the approximate returns of last year. Upward of 50 per cent. of the spring crops was wheat, and 30 per cent. other food grains; 4 per cent. consisted of oil seeds, and 2 per cent. of vegetables; tobacco covered 76,866 acres; the poppy for opium 16,872; and tea 5,187. About 8 per cent. of the autumn crops was rice, and 7 per cent. other food grains; 4 per cent. was sugar-cane, and between 8 and 9 per cent. cotton; 188,671 acres were under oil-seeds, and 67,546 acres were covered with indigo. The wages of a common laborer varied from 3d. to 7½d. a day, and of skilled labor from 6d. to 1s. 6d., the last being the rate given to masons and carpenters. Wherever the railway and public works are found, prices rise in even a higher ratio than wages; but the only class which suffers is the unskilled laborer, who is always the victim of famine. Every war, whether in Hindostan, China, or Abyssinia, benefits the Punjabee above all classes, and soon leads him to turn his sword into a ploughshare, so that it is now impossible to get good Sikh and even Punjabee Mussulman recruits for the army. Of the whole population of about 17,500,000, 9,403,819 are agriculturists, and 8,190,127 non-agriculturists.

The revenue in 1867–'68 was £3,283,107 from all non-military sources, and the civil disbursements £1,230,655, leaving a surplus, for the army, public works, and other imperial demands, of £2,052,452. Of these £3,250,000, exclusive of all local funds, £2,170,636 is derived from the state assessment on the land, which falls so lightly as at the rate of 2s. 1d. on each acre of cultivated area, or 1s. 3½d. on each acre of cultivated land, or 8½d. on each acre of the total area assessed, which is upward of 61,000,000 acres. As a rule, the natives of India are very lightly taxed. They pay per head of population from 9s. a year, as in British Burmah, where alone there is a capitation tax, to 5s. in other provinces.

The army in the Punjab consists of the purely native frontier force of about 13,000 men, besides a militia; the ordinary English and Sepoy troops count 29,000 men, and 130 guns.

The figures showing the value of the trade of India during the years ending 30th April, 1867 and 1868, are suggestive. In a year of continued commercial stagnation, the trade amounted to £101,038,621 in value, or £5,500,000 more than in the previous twelve months, which almost immediately succeeded the close of the American War:

	1867.		1868.	
Foreign Trade.				
Imports	£30,639,282		£37,902,560	
Exports of Indian produce, etc.	46,551,356		48,561,478	
Exports of foreign merchandise	1,178,356		1,275,277	
Imports of treasure	14,598,051		11,657,968	
Exports of treasure	2,473,165		1,641,338	
Total	95,440,110		101,038,621	
Domestic.	Vessels.	Tons.	Vessels.	Tons.
Entered	5,428	1,922,073	5,823	2,168,063
Cleared	5,864	2,000,843	5,993	2,186,026
Foreign.				
Entered	5,148	1,722,195	5,632	2,049,478
Cleared	5,561	1,816,275	5,755	2,053,527
Coasting Trade between the various Presidencies:				
Entered	13,287	1,511,216	11,402	1,179,485
Cleared	11,340	1,630,793	9,663	1,151,187
Total value of imports of treasure	£4,145,940		£2,380,291	
Total value of export of treasure	4,935,371		3,009,553	

The modern question of the national tongue has taken a peculiar shape on India soil. The Urdu and the Hindi languages contend for the predominance in official use and in journalism. The former is employed by twenty-five million Moslems, the latter by a large portion of the one hundred and ten millions who, living under English rule, are described as Hindoos on the registers. Yet it is not easy to define wherein the difference between the two consists. They are not two languages, nor two dialects, but the same language, corrupted in different degrees by foreign words of Persian and Arabic origin—the Urdu more, the Hindi less. Both are commonly called Hindustani, and the only real distinction of the Hindi is the Indian, of the Urdu, the Arabic characters and writing. While the contest is thus apparently about the alphabet, in the background lie Sanscrit and Arabic, Koran and Veda.

Both styles of letter are alike inconvenient for a people who read and write much, and rapidly. The Arabic is still in a state as of infancy, being destitute of vowel-signs. It is not strange, then, that shrewd persons tell the nationalists who rally for the Hindi, and seek to supply their wants from the treasures of the Sanscrit, as well as the Moslems who seek their fine phrases in the technical language of the Arabians, and in the turgid poetry of the modern Persians, that much better than the use of either would be the adoption of the English language; should they, however, insist upon the Hindustani, it would be desirable to accept a European alphabet.

We learn from a recent pamphlet* of M. Garcin de Tassy, for many years teacher of Hindustani in the school of modern Oriental languages at Paris, on what ground the contest is carried on on both sides. It is not very remarkable that the learned and amiable author of the "*Histoire de la littérature hindoue et hindoostane*" (of which at the close of the year 1869 a second edition was in press) inclines to the Moslem view.

The native journals, which, after the English style, have become very numerous, so far as they appear in the northern provinces, generally adhere to the Urdu, and affect Arabesque titles—for example, the "Mirror of Wisdom," "Novelties of Novelties," "Fountain of Knowledge," "Star of News," etc. Most of the readers in that section seem also to be followers of the Prophet. On the other hand, the many national unions which the intelligent Hindoo has likewise copied from his latest rulers, and in which most of the efforts for a reform in social and religious concerns are made, address their countrymen in Hindi. In this respect they hold on to the old, and take their titles from the Sanscrit—for example, *Brahma Dschnan Prakash* (Guide to Brahmanic Knowledge), a monthly review published under the direction of the *Brahma Sabha* (Brahma Club); *Pap Motschan* (Deliverance from Evil), likewise a periodical of the reformers in Agra; *Dschagat Samatschar* (How it goes in the World), a weekly paper issued at Mirat, and many others.

The most extensive, most influential, and most active of these societies, which has been some time established, is the above-mentioned Brahma Club, located at Calcutta, a society of theists. They spin out the old threads of the Vedanta philosophy, and interweave them with European nationalism. They have both theoretically and practically abolished all that seemed to them unworthy and childish in the religious traditions of their fathers. They lay claim to a higher point of view, and to a freer horizon than those of the Christians. The chief of this new sect, Babu Ischandr Sen, who has built a temple in Calcutta to the new service, where "the one true and holy God shall be worshipped in spirit and in truth," is honored by his followers as inspired; according to their ancient custom of worship, they fall at his feet, and call him good master, and the refuge of sinners.

Another society has been organized in Calcutta, under the presidency of Radscha Kali Krishna Bahadur, with the single purpose of purifying the religious customs of the Hindoos.

* *Cours d'Hindoustani. Discours d'ouverture du 6 Décembre*, 1869. (Paris, 1870.)

If it should know how to carry through a real reform while yet adhering to the simpler and significant forms of worship of the olden time, it might succeed in abolishing many absurdities and blemishes of a newer invention. But the interest of those who enjoy the fruits of the present usages will stand in its way.

By far the most numerous kind of societies, which later years have produced, are of a philanthropic or popular scientific character. Lucknow, that city of remarkable history in connection with the great Indian rebellion, has a society of this kind, with conferences, lectures, and periodical publications, which accepts members of every nationality. And in Jeypoor where the roads from Delhi and Agra meet, the prince of Rajpootana—who boasts himself descended from Rama, and to belong to the oldest dynasty in the world, that of the Mikado not excepted—patronizes an association which is called the Rajpootana Social Science Congress, and goes out to found schools, to distribute instructive books, and to oversee public sanitary measures, and the elevation of the peasantry. Quite remarkably, the association begins by arranging a system of instruction for young persons of the higher families, in which are taught natural science and political economy, English as well as the native language, and the accomplishments of cavaliers. The Rajpootanans are the feudal lords of the district, the oppressors of the races which they call their subjects, professed descendants of the almost extinct warrior-caste. It is thus natural that they should first think of culture of corresponding character for the aristocracy.

Not far from this place, in Alighur, is the seat of the East India Association, with the general object of promoting the good of the people, which has recently connected with itself a branch society in Mooradabad, east of Delhi, which is under the patronage of Sir William Muir, Governor of the Northwest Provinces, author of a Biography of Mohammed, and brother of the celebrated patron of Indian studies, John Muir, to whom the University of Edinburgh is indebted for its chair of Sanscrit. This association will, among other objects, assist journeys of natives to Europe, since the Pundits have very recently found that these journeys are not directly forbidden in their books. The Government, also, is not idle in this matter. It has granted stipends for literary journeys to England, two for each of the three presidencies, and three for the other provinces.

An active spiritual movement is to be observed among both Hindoo and Moslem. On both sides they seek to secure for themselves the advantages of European culture, primarily in the hope of being able to bid effectively for the position of ascendency against their tyrants. Necessarily, with the spread of this culture, a great many foolish prejudices will fall, which are now held as inseparable from national integrity.

That Islam, although its adherents are unmistakably the more energetic party, has a prospect of flourishing again, is hardly to be feared. It is in itself too powerless and thoughtless to throw kindling sparks into the spirit. Nevertheless, many conversions to it are taking place, not only from the Hindoos, but from abandoned persons of European descent. Thus, not long ago, a number of beggarly fellows are said to have abjured their faith in a mosque at Madras, and to have gone on a pilgrimage to Mecca, in order, as the Hindoo says, to fill their bellies there. And one curious fellow, a Swiss, not contented with the name only of Islam, is reported to travel as its missionary through the Bundelcund, dressed in Oriental costume, expounding the Koran in the public places.

INDIANA. The regular session of the Legislature commenced in January, and during that month and February but little actual business in the way of legislation was accomplished. Bills were introduced with the intention of materially altering the constitution of the State courts, but, owing to the premature adjournment in March, were not acted upon. Grave complaints were made against the prison management, and much of the time of the Legislature was taken up with debates on the subject and with official investigations. The necessity of electing a United States Senator, in place of Thomas A. Hendricks, caused party spirit to run high; and while the Democrats were united on Hendricks, the Republicans were divided between Lieutenant-Governor Will Cumback and James S. Frazer. The two Houses met in joint convention, January 20th and 21st, without effecting a choice, but on the third day, January 22d, the Republicans united on Daniel D. Pratt, who was elected by the following vote: Daniel D. Pratt, 83; Thomas A. Hendricks, 70.

On the 25th of February, the following joint resolutions were approved by the Governor, after passing both Houses of the Legislature:

That our Senators in Congress be and they are hereby instructed and our Representatives requested to vote for and otherwise promote the repeal of the act of Congress commonly known as the tenure-of-office law.

That our Senators in Congress be instructed, and our Representatives requested to oppose, by their influence and votes, the passage of any bill that shall specially legalize coin contracts until the United States shall redeem its Treasury-notes in coin; and to oppose the enactment of any law which shall have the effect to reduce the present volume of the paper-money in use among the people of the United States.

They were presented to the United States Senate, by Senator Morton, March 2d.

The question of adopting the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States having come before the Legislature, the Democratic members and a portion of the Conservative Republicans opposed its consideration, on the ground that, at the time of the election at which they were chosen, the ques-

tion was not before the people, and consequently should not be acted upon until the will of the people could be ascertained from the result of an election based upon this issue. The Republican members having, in caucus, resolved to force the ratification through the Legislature, the Democratic members on the 3d of March, in caucus, resolved to resign in a body, and all did so with the exception of those who were ordered by the caucus to remain and care for the interests of the party. Seventeen Senators and thirty-six Representatives resigned, on the 4th of March, thus reducing the number of both Houses below a quorum, and stopped legislation. This disruption of the Legislature left the charitable and other institutions of the State in a crippled condition, as the appropriation bills had not been passed. The Governor at once issued writs for special elections of members of the Legislature, to fill the places of those who had resigned, and, on the 22d of March, issued a proclamation convening the General Assembly of the State, in special session, and summoning the members to meet on the 8th day of April.

On the 8th the Legislature assembled in obedience to the call of the Governor, but, before taking the oaths of their offices, the Democrats exacted from the majority of the Republican members of the Legislature a pledge that the consideration of the fifteenth amendment should not be taken up until after the legislation necessary for the interests of the State had been accomplished.

Among the more important acts passed by the Legislature were, an act providing for the introduction of the German language into the course of study in the public schools, and an act establishing a female prison and reformatory institution for girls and women at Indianapolis, to which all female convicts should be sent instead of to the State prison.

The location of the Agricultural College was fixed in Tippecanoe County, and, in consideration of the gift of $100,000 cash, by John Purdue, of Lafayette, was called the Purdue Agricultural College.

On the 13th of May a joint resolution for the ratification of the fifteenth amendment was introduced in the Senate, but, as all the Democratic members had handed their resignations to the Governor, it was claimed by the opposition to the resolution that there was no quorum. There were, however, enough present in the Senate-chamber to constitute a quorum, and, though they refused to vote, and claimed that they were no longer Senators, the President of the Senate decided that, no notification of their resignations having been sent to the Senate by the Governor, they were still members of that body. A vote was accordingly taken, and the resolution was adopted. On the 14th of May the joint resolution as adopted by the Senate came up in the House, but in the mean time all the Democratic members, except two (left by order of caucus to attend to the interests of the party), having resigned—forty-three in all—there were about fifty-six members left, eleven less than a quorum. The Democrats claimed that there could be no legal legislation, the chair ruled that there was a quorum of the *de facto* members present. The opposition appealed from the decision, in the following language:

On Friday afternoon, May the 14th, A. D. 1869, a call of the House having been ordered and taken, which showed that only fifty-six (56) members were present, and no motion being made to send for absentees, and a communication from the Governor having been presented and read, showing that, on the 13th day of said May, forty-two members of the House had resigned; thereupon the gentleman from Putnam and Hendricks (Mr. Osborn) moved to proceed to the consideration of the Senate joint resolution No. eighteen (18), which is a joint resolution to ratify the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, whereupon the gentleman from Huntington (Mr. Coffroth) raised the point of order that it was not competent for the House to proceed to the consideration of said joint resolution, because there was no quorum present; and that, for the same reason, it was not in order to transact any legislative business. But the chair overruled the said point of order, and decided that the House could proceed to the consideration of and a decision upon said resolution.

Now, from said decision, we, the undersigned, appeal.

J. B. COFFROTH,
Representative from Huntington.
JOHN S. DAVIS,
Representative from Floyd.

The appeal was laid on the table, and a vote on the resolution was taken as follows: yeas 54, nays 0, the appellants refusing to vote.

The Specific Appropriation Bill was passed under the same circumstances, and the question of its validity was brought up before the Supreme Court in July. The result of the trial was, to sustain the validity of the act.

The election laws of the State were so modified as to have the elections held biennially instead of annually, the first election under the new law to be held the second Tuesday in October, 1870.

After ratifying the fifteenth amendment and passing the Specific Appropriation Bill, the Legislature adjourned.

During the year the Hospital for the Insane was enlarged, repaired, and improved, and is now said to be fully equal to any other State institution of the kind in the country. The question of the right of the State to tax national-bank notes having been brought before the Supreme Court of the State, a decision was rendered to the effect that, while legal-tender notes are not taxable under the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, this is not the case with national-bank currency. The opinion was given by Judge Ray, who quotes the thirteenth section of the act of June 30, 1865, and says:

This, at a first glance, might seem to bring the national currency within the exemption, and we are now indebted to counsel for a solution of the difficulty; it, doubtless, has misled them into argument. But the words in the quotation in the thirteenth sec-

tion are technical, and are not the identical words used in the same order in the first section; and, therefore, the reference to that question would be more than questionable. All doubt, however, is removed by the use of the same technical phrase in the eleventh section of the same act, in which it is provided that, if any person having control, custody, or possession of any plate or plates from which any obligation or other security, or any part thereof, shall have been printed, etc., or shall have or retain in his possession, after a distinctive paper shall be adopted by the Secretary of the Treasury for obligations and other securities of the United States, any similar paper adapted to the making of any such obligations or security, etc., every person so offending shall be deemed guilty of a felony, and shall, on conviction thereof, be punished, etc. It thus appears plain that the entire intent and purpose of the last section of the act were to throw around the national currency the same guards against counterfeiting that were by law provided for obligations and other securities of the United States. Clearly no exemption in any act prior to the authority given to issue national currency can apply; and as they are not obligations of the United States in any proper sense of that expression; as they do not rest primarily on the promise of the Government to pay them as her own debt, but simply on her promise that she will amply indemnify herself in her own bonds only after the failure of the bank and foreclosure of the bonds to her, will she regard herself as finally liable? Certainly there is nothing in the letter of the law exempting this circulation from taxation; and, though we do not discuss the power of Congress to make such exemption, we are free to admit that we see nothing in the paper itself, or in the circumstances of its issue, which would authorize such a limit to be placed on the power of the State to tax.

The operations of the Treasury department for the fiscal year ending October 31, 1869, appear as follows:

Balance November 1, 1868, as per last report	$591,370 04
Receipts during fiscal year	4,197,489 21
	4,788,859 25
Warrants paid during fiscal year	4,473,129 66
Balance in Treasury November 1, 1869.	$315,729 59

The development of the mineral resources of Indiana has received much attention during the year, rich mines of iron and coal, and fine quarries of building-stone, having been discovered. The line of the Vincennes Railroad passed through some of the richest portions of the mineral region, and accurate and reliable information as to the extent and value of these discoveries has been obtained by the engineers of the road. Near Brooklyn, about twenty miles from Indianapolis, is a fine outcrop of the sandstone formation. It has been used to some extent in public buildings in Indianapolis, and is undoubtedly the best building-stone in the State. It exists in great abundance. The next point is the limestone formation, commencing at Gosport and extending twelve miles. It is of great variety, and includes the finest building-material in the world. Portions of it can be worked easily under the chisel; other portions are very soft, and can be worked by any ordinary tools; it is very durable, and equal to the celebrated Bath stone of England. This limestone formation extends as far as Spencer, where a sandstone formation commences and extends a distance of seven miles, to a point about sixty-five miles from Indianapolis, where the first coal-bed is reached. This coal is the first strata, which is known as the lower strata. These beds extend for thirty-eight miles along the line of the road, as far down as Edwards's Point, and include seven distinct veins.

The first coal-seam is about two feet in thickness; the next is about three feet thick. In a distance of seven miles there are four seams of coal, the thickest one being along the ridge of Eel River, which is developed, showing a thickness of four feet one inch. The undulations of the country allow the opening of these veins, and a natural drain for any mines that may be established for their working.

At Edwardsport there are three seams, one of them forty-three inches, one twenty-one inches, and one fifty-one inches in thickness, lying one above the other. They have been traced a distance of four miles. No place presents a better chance for mining coal than the valley of White River. Taking the level of the road at Worthington, it descends twenty-three feet in seven miles, and in twenty-seven miles the grade of the road ascends in all four hundred and seventy feet of these coal strata, so that coal can be worked without the cost of shafting, pumping, or hoisting, on nearly every mile of the road.

Iron not only exists on the line of the road, but the engineers of the road are absolutely cutting through it and using iron-ore as a protection against the rip-raps of the river. Its outcroppings are as extensive as are the best hematite iron-ore regions of Pennsylvania. The purehy drated oxide of iron and the blue iron-ores that are seen on the Terre Haute road have been found. One bed is known to be four feet in thickness, and how much more cannot be said, on account of water. Chemists say it will produce over fifty per cent. of iron.

The coal-seams have been accidentally discovered by the washings of the creeks or the digging of a well, it all being under surface. In one place coal has been found nine feet in thickness. The first seam of coal found is cannel-coal, rich with oil, and it is said that oil can be produced from it with more certainty than by means of boring in an oil region; but this is a mere conjecture. There has been no market for this coal, beyond the few smith-shops in the country, and the seams have not been worked to any great extent.

Of the 8,000 square miles of mineral wealth of the State, every square mile is accessible to railroads, which is a great advantage, as coal or iron cannot be brought to market by mules, or worked profitably a mile distant from rail or water transportation.

The Brazil mines were considered to cover an area of nine by twelve miles square; near Rockville is another small stretch of coal, and

these with the Cannelton beds have been considered, heretofore, all there were in the State, but coal has been traced all the way from Pine Creek to the Ohio River, finding it cropping out in a number of places, and the veins can be reached at any point by mining. The coal-region of the State, it is believed, covers 8,000 square miles, and a prominent geologist states that he never met the same indications of iron in the best mining districts of Pennsylvania as he can show in a number of counties in the State.

A ton of Indiana hematite-ore that will yield fifty per cent. can be reduced with one-third less coal than a ton of Lake Superior ore, as the flux will flow more easily, on account of the lime in it. The rich deposit of the iron-ore extends along the edge of the coal-fields from Lodi, Parke County, to Martin County. The surface indications in Martin are less than in Parke, Fountain, or Sullivan Counties, but indicate a very rich deposit.

Professor Cox, the geologist, reports that in Vermillion County he discovered three seams of coal, varying in thickness from four to seven feet. Between Highland and Newport, one of these seams—he was unable to discover which, not having time to trace it—is from five to seven feet in thickness, and the lower part, being from thirty to thirty-six inches thick, is pure block coal, of very fine quality. The upper part is good caking coal, and will make excellent fuel. These seams are all very accessible, and can be reached either by shafts or drifts. In the shales of the upper coal-measures are found bands of iron stone from three to fifteen inches thick. There are large deposits of this in the western part of the county, which will be found of great value when used in connection with other ores. A smelting-furnace, called the Indiana Furnace, was in operation here for a number of years, and was quite successful for a time, smelting with charcoal. Now, however, when other ores are so easily procured, this would not be rich enough to pay for working alone. In connection with the coal was also found fire-clay of fair quality.

Dr. G. M. Levette, Prof. Cox's assistant, found in Putnam County coal scattered about, but not in any great quantities. Some of the veins can be worked, however. One near Putnamville has been operated for years, and the proprietor exhibits letters, written by blacksmiths in Indianapolis, Cambridge City, and other towns, before the railroad was built, ordering his coal. Dr. Levette found any quantity of building-stone. On the farm of D. C. Donahue, two miles from Greencastle, are large deposits of sandstone, which, for the purpose of making furnace-hearths, is unequalled. It has been used at the Planet Furnace, near New Harmony, and at several places in Ohio. The stone is abundant in the county.

The claims of the State against the United States, for expenses incurred in the war, were finally disposed of by the following report:

The commissioners appointed under act of Congress, March 29, 1867, to settle the Indiana war claims, respectfully report that, pursuant to instructions from the Secretary of War, they met at Indianapolis, March 10, 1869, and published and notified the Governor of their readiness for business.

The claims were presented by General W. H. H. Terrell, Adjutant-General of the State; and, on a careful examination of the items, and the proofs and vouchers to support them, the commissioners find there is due the State of Indiana for war expenses, under the act above mentioned, $481,178.24, as follows:

Enrolling	$5,543 04
Equipping	4,884 15
Arming	18,469 23
Subsisting	18,818 23
Transporting	7,581 88
Paying	431,381 71
Total	$481,178 24

The commissioners would say that the claims, before they were presented, appear to have been carefully examined by the Adjutant-General, and no claim was presented except such as was fully sustained by vouchers and testimony.

And, considering the length of time since making the expenditures, the vouchers and proofs submitted are regarded by the commissioners as fully sustaining the allowances made.

We herewith return and file all the papers, vouchers, correspondence, evidence, and documents, relating to our proceedings, or connected with the claims, as per schedule hereto annexed, with the expression of our high appreciation of the courtesy of Governor Baker, General Terrell, and other officers of the State, in facilitating our labors. We also desire to tender our thanks to our clerks, Messrs. Pray and Hayden, and our messenger, Mr. Ottwell.

All of which is respectfully submitted.

W. R. KINNEY,
J. H. BROADHEAD,
ROBERT FLINT,
Commissioners.

On the 1st of October, during the trial of the machinery at the State Fair, a steam-boiler exploded, killing twenty and wounding more than forty others. The cause of the accident was a deficiency of water.

On June 8th a Woman's State Suffrage Convention assembled at Indianapolis, and the following resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, The possession of any God-given faculty presupposes the right to use that faculty; and

Whereas, Men and women have been endowed by the Creator with the same mental and moral powers: therefore

Resolved, That their right to use these mental and moral powers is equal, and that legal restrictions are not only unnecessary, but wrong in principle.

2. That one class in society cannot properly represent the interests of another, and that, to secure justice to all, all must have a voice in making and enforcing our laws.

3. That wherever woman has taken her place side by side with man, in the many avocations and professions, she has shown herself his equal, and has exerted a refining influence, and all have been made better.

4. That we will in all honorable ways labor to remove all legal disabilities that now trammel the efforts of women; and let capacity, inclination, and circumstances, control their sphere of action, as with men.

5. That we feel justly proud of the action of our representatives in Congress, who have taken position in favor of the sixteenth amendment, for we feel that, while our laws are being reconstructed so as to give

the elective franchise to colored men, they should not forget the women of the country, who are surely as competent to use that power judiciously as those who have so recently been in the degradation of chattel slavery.

Also the following were adopted:

Resolved, That so long as woman has no legal existence, just so long will she be compelled to labor without a fair equivalent.

Resolved, That woman's right to the elective franchise would eventually be the means of the entire overthrow of the liquor-traffic throughout the land.

Whereas, Christianity elevates woman to an equality with man in religious privileges and blessings, in that it declares that in Christ Jesus there is neither male nor female; and,

Whereas, The Declaration of American Independence declares that all men, and, by implication, all women, are born free and equal in all civil, moral, and religious rights and privileges: therefore

Resolved, That all existing laws and customs, barring woman from any of these rights which men lawfully claim, are relics of barbarism, and should be expunged from our laws and customs.

IOWA, as a State, is twenty-three years old, and possesses an area of 55,000 square miles, the Mississippi washing the entire length of its eastern boundary, while the Missouri borders it on the west. About ninety per cent. of it is prairie-land, not flat but rolling, and having a common altitude of 1,350 feet above the level of the sea. Its elevations and depressions afford complete drainage. Its soil is rich and elastic, a black loam, from two to six feet deep.

The population in 1836, was 10,000; in 1846, 97,000; in 1856, 519,000; in 1867, 920,000; and it is presumed that the census of 1870 will show from 1,100,000 to 1,200,000.

Only one-third of the land is, as yet, under cultivation; a portion of the residue can be obtained under the homestead act, while that in the possession of private hands may be obtained on easy terms, at from two and a half to ten dollars per acre.

The soil is congenial to the growth of every product of the temperate zones.

The following facts, carefully prepared, will make manifest the surprising progress which, in a few years, has been achieved in the State, and which clearly indicates the elements of prosperity and wealth:

SHIPMENTS OF CATTLE FOR THE PAST FIVE YEARS.

1864	65,942
1865	81,999
1866	78,212
1867	64,846
1868	82,841

SHIPMENTS DURING THE YEAR 1868.

Live hogs	No.	431,734
Lard	lbs.	2,645,829
Dressed hogs	"	21,051,187
Pork	"	8,009,835
Sheep	No.	48,464
Wool	lbs.	2,061,739
Wheat	bush.	19,487,853
Corn	"	2,331,430
Oats	"	931,817
Barley	"	461,208
Other cereals	"	2,601,985

It is a noticeable fact that, in 1864, the imports of sheep were ten times greater than the exports; while in 1868 the imports were 3,668, against exports 48,464. Also that the shipments of wheat in 1868 were 5,944,525 bushels more than the entire receipts at Chicago; while, of live hogs received in that city (1,688,189), Iowa furnished over one-fifth of the number.

A great scarcity of lumber, salt, and lime, prevails, as will be seen by the

IMPORTS FOR THE YEAR 1868.

Lumber and timber	feet	167,772,732
Staves and hoop-poles	cords	411
Lath		10,582,104
Shingles	M.	35,109,4624
Salt	bbls.	1,504,614
Lime and cement	"	1,727
	lbs.	836,766

The railroad development commands notice. In 1862 the State possessed only 616 miles of railroad; in 1864, 727; in 1866, 1,060; in 1868, 1,370; and now, in 1869, it has at least 1,600 miles.

The last Auditor's report shows a permanent school fund of $2,221,497.52; the value of the public school-houses is estimated at nearly $5,000,000. In 1867 the pay of school-teachers alone amounted to $1,161,653. In the same year there were 6,229 schools, with a total attendance of 251,281.

From the report of the Auditor of the State the following is presented:

The balance remaining in the State Treasury at the close of the fiscal year, November 2, 1867, was $97,740.45.

There was received into the State Treasury during the past two years, including the above balance in hand, $2,355,170.08, and the disbursements by the State Treasurer during the same period amounted to $2,051,971.23, leaving in the State Treasury, October 30, 1869, $303,198.86.

Of the Des Moines River land claim (special fund) there has been received from the Valley Railroad Company $162,796.17.

Warrants redeemed and interest allowed on same to November 1st, $158,879.43, leaving a balance in the Treasury of $3,916.74.

The resources of the State are reported as follows:

Balance of revenue in State Treasury	$296,160 13
Balance of State revenue from counties	432,971 05
Balance of Insane Hospital revenue from counties	98,699 75
Balance of Blind Asylum clothing account due from counties	514 67
Balance of Deaf and Dumb clothing account due from counties	114 41
Amount due from banks	101,361 00
Tax of 1869, based on valuation	588,064 44
Tax of 1870, estimated at two mills	600,000 00
Railroad tax, estimated for 1870 and 1871	100,000 00
Estimated balance due from United States —taxes of insurance companies	25,000 00
Total	$2,333,563 57

The bonds of 1858 have all been paid. Those of 1860 (war and defence bonds), and

due 1881, are not offered for redemption, and could not be purchased at par.

The Auditor states that, during the last two years, over $38,000,000 have been added to the material wealth of the State, which manifests an unusual degree of prosperity.

The amount of warrants issued, and other expenditures of general revenue during the two years ending November 1, 1869, is $1,574,534.03.

The estimated expenditure of the next two years, exclusive of extraordinary appropriations, until April 1, 1872, is $1,107,955.20.

The balances due from the several counties on the 30th October, 1869, are:

State revenues	$432,971 05
Insane hospitals	98,699 75
Deaf and Dumb clothing account	114 41
Blind Asylum " "	514 67
Total amount due from counties	$532,299 99
To balance due from county treasurers	43,224 56

The following is a summary of taxable property, and the State tax thereon, in each county, for the year 1869:

Acres of land	30,109,771
Reported value of land	$181,881,953 00
Reported value of town-lots	40,272,055 00
Personal property	71,971,191 00
Reported total value	294,125,199 00
Equalized total value	294,532,225 00
State tax at two mills	589,064 44

The assessment of stock, etc., is as follows:

Cattle	No.	841,925	Value	$10,406,619
Horses	"	422,275	"	18,947,868
Mules	"	26,259	"	1,618,071
Sheep	"	1,100,708	"	841,451
Swine	"	679,703	"	1,692,852
Total value				$33,506,860

A convention was held at Dubuque, on November 11, 1869, composed of the leading men of the West, including the Governors of Iowa and Wisconsin, and several members of Congress, to take into consideration the feasibility of improving the water communication between the Mississippi River and the Lakes (a distance of about 280 miles), and also the most judicious course to be pursued in order to obtain an appropriation from Congress to carry out the work. Statistics were read, showing the advantage of water over land transportation of freight.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we adopt, as the unanimous sense of this meeting, the resolutions passed by the City Council of the city of Milwaukee, on Monday last, to wit:

Resolved, That the great question of cheap transportation of products of the Northwest by means of free navigation by the Mississippi River to Eastern markets, embracing the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers improvements, and the Michigan Ship-canal, is one of the most important and grand projects of this age, and commends itself to every producer and consumer in the Northwest.

Resolved, That this subject should command the earnest and prompt attention of all Representatives of the new States in Congress, and that liberal appropriations should be made to promote the accomplishment of a work so much needed by the people, and demanded by the necessities of commerce.

This improvement of water communication, it is stated, will reduce—at 10 cents per bushel—the cost in the transshipment of wheat alone by the enormous sum of $1,500,000 annually, not taking into consideration the other cereals and products. It is strongly urged that with wheat selling in the State of Iowa at an average price of 50 cents per bushel, and on Lake Michigan at 75 cents per bushel, Congress should not hesitate to grant the needed appropriation.

From the late geological survey it appears that the extent of the coal area has been underestimated, and, when capital is inducted into this channel, it is anticipated that these vast beds underlying every portion of the State, especially along the valleys of the rivers, will become one of the chief sources of wealth.

The existence of vast quantities of peat has been clearly demonstrated, which, when the scarcity of native timber is considered, forms a highly-favorable solution to the question of a future supply of fuel.

Upon the same authority it is stated that extensive mines of lead are found underlying the whole region of Dubuque.

Stone of good and durable quality (sand and limestone) is found in various parts of the State, and in sufficient quantity to satisfy demands.

Beds of excellent quality of gypsum have been found in the northwestern part of the State near Fort George, and in a deposit so vast that, when worked, it will afford the entire West all it may need for centuries.

A large quarry of marble of a beautiful quality, and susceptible of a fine polish, is now worked in Marshall County. It has also been found in Johnson and other counties.

Potters' clay of superior quality is abundant in many sections, as likewise a superior clay for brick.

Iron-ore has been discovered, but not in richness exceeding forty per cent.

In reply to a request from the Citizens' Association of New York, a letter was addressed to its president, Mr. Peter Cooper, on November 28, 1868, presenting such statistical and other information as was deemed of value to persons seeking homes. This letter was subsequently reprinted in various languages and widely scattered over Europe, and has been instrumental in causing a great influx of respectable immigrants. A plan is now maturing, through the coöperation of railroad corporations and wealthy merchants, to furnish a constant supply of labor by granting facilities of land-purchase and transportation.

From all sections of the State the universal desire appears to be the establishment of manufactories for the various staples which the State produces—which, when the prices of provisions and moderate rentals are taken into consideration, appear to promise good profits.

The State library at present contains 10,961

volumes, besides several hundred pamphlets. It is anticipated that the number will be increased at the rate of 1,000 annually, by donations and otherwise.

The extent of the grants of public land made to the State is as follows: For educational purposes, $1,843,549.94; for railroads, internal improvements, etc., $5,433,395.70; total, $7,276,945.64.

The Democratic party met in convention, and after a spirited contest the following ticket was nominated: For Governor, Geo. Gillespie; for Lieutenant-Governor, A. P. Richardson; for Supreme Judge, W. F. Brannan; for Superintendent of Public Instruction, Edmond Jaerger. The following platform was unanimously adopted:

Whereas, Upon the eve of a political canvass, the time-honored usage of our party requires that a platform of principles be announced for the government of those who may be elected to office: therefore be it

Resolved, That the Democratic party view with alarm the election of an unscrupulous majority in Congress, in its attempts to absorb the powers of the executive and judicial departments of the Government, and to annihilate the rights and functions reserved to the State governments.

Resolved, That we favor a reform in the national banking system, looking to an ultimate abolition of that pernicious plan for the aggrandizement of the few, at the expense of the many.

Resolved, That now, as in times past, we are opposed to a high protective tariff, and that we will use every effort to prevent and defeat that system of national legislation which would enrich a small class of manufacturers at the expense of the great mass of producers and consumers, and that we are in favor of such reforms in our tariff system as shall promote commerce with every nation of the world.

Resolved, That the pretended trial, conviction, and execution of persons not belonging to the military or naval service of the United States, by military commission, is in direct conflict with the Constitution, and we denounce the same as unworthy of a free people, and disgraceful to the American Government.

Resolved, That we demand no more, and will submit to nothing less, than the settlement of the Alabama claims according to the recognized rules of international law, and that we declare it to be the duty of the Government to protect every citizen, whether naturalized or native, in every right of liberty and property throughout the world, without regard to the pretended claims of foreign nations to their allegiance.

Resolved, That we are in favor of, and insist upon, an economical administration of the national and State Governments, that the people may be as speedily as possible relieved from the load of taxation with which they are now oppressed, and that public officers should be held to strict accountability to the people for all their official acts.

Resolved, That a national debt is a national curse; and that, while we favor the payment of our present indebtedness, according to the strict letter of the contract, we would rather repudiate the same than see it made the means for the establishment of an empire upon the ruins of constitutional law and liberty.

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, the so-called Maine liquor law, which now disgraces the statute-books of the State of Iowa, ought to be repealed at the earliest possible moment.

Resolutions in reference to the fifteenth amendment, and several other matters, were laid on the table.

The Republican State Convention nominated, for Governor, Samuel Merrill; Lieutenant-Governor, Madison M. Walden; Judge of Supreme Court, John F. Dillon; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Abraham J. Kissell.

The following platform was framed and adopted:

Resolved, That we cordially indorse the Administration of Governor Merrill as wise, economical, and honest, and that it deserves, as it has received, the hearty approval of the people of Iowa.

Resolved, That we insist upon a continuance of strict and close economy in all departments of our State government, in order to the maintenance of the happy and exceptional financial condition to which our State has attained under Republican rule.

Resolved, That the means now in the State Treasury, and which may become available, ought to be used for the purpose of defraying the necessary expenditures of the State government, economically administered, and for no other purpose; and no State taxes, or only the minimum absolutely required, should be levied or collected, until such means are exhausted, to the end that the burden of taxation may be made as light as possible.

Resolved, That we rejoice in the glorious national victory of 1868, which has brought peace, and happiness, and prosperity, to our nation, and we heartily indorse the Administration of General Grant.

Resolved, That the Republican party of Iowa, being among the first since the rebellion to incorporate in a State constitution the great principle of impartial suffrage, cordially accepts the opportunity presented, by adopting the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, of making the principle national.

Resolved, That the public expenditures of the national Government should be reduced to the lowest sum which can be reached, by a system of the most rigid economy; that no money should be taken from the national Treasury for any work of internal improvement, or for the erection of any public buildings not clearly necessary to be made or erected, until the national debt is paid or greatly reduced. That all the money that can be saved from the national revenue, honestly collected, should be applied to the reduction of the national debt, to the end that the people may be relieved from the burden of taxation as rapidly as practicable.

Resolved, That we indorse and approve the policy which the present Secretary of the Treasury of the United States has pursued.

The result of the election was as follows: Merrill, Republican, 96,579; Gillespie, Democrat, 57,434. Merrill's majority, 39,145.

The Legislature contained: in the Senate, 43 Republicans and 7 Democrats; in the lower House, 86 Republicans and 14 Democrats.

ITALY,* a kingdom in Southern Europe. King, Victor Emmanuel, born March 14, 1820; succeeded his father, as King of Sardinia, on March 23, 1849; assumed the title of King of Italy on March 17, 1861. Heir-apparent to the throne, Prince Humbert, born March 14, 1844; married April 22, 1868, to Princess Marguerita of Savoy, daughter of the late Duke of Genoa, brother of King Victor Emmanuel. The area of the kingdom (since the annexation of Venetia, in 1866) is 118,356 square miles; the population, according to the census of 1862, 24,273,

* *See* the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA of 1868 for the population of the large cities, ecclesiastical and educational statistics, etc.

776. According to official calculations, the total population was in January, 1869, 25,527,915; in 1868, 25,404,723; in 1867, 24,273,776. The interest of the public debt amounted, in 1869, to 359,167,030 lire (nominal value of capital). The number of war-vessels was, in January, 1869, 96, armed with 948 guns. The number of ironclads was 22, armed with 266 guns. The official value of the special commerce in 1867 was as follows: imports, 830,800,000 lire; exports, 520,500,000 lire; transit, 77,700,000 lire. The movement of shipping, including coasting vessels, was, in 1866, as follows:

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Entered	117,828	9,506,573
Cleared	115,869	8,923,018

The merchant navy, in 1867, consisted of 17,786 vessels, having an aggregate tonnage of 815,521.

The financial question offered serious difficulties, and gave rise to great agitation, both in Parliament and through the nation. On April 21, 1869, Count Cambray-Digny, the Finance Minister, laid his budget before the Chamber of Deputies, according to which the total deficit to be provided for was 788,000,000 lire (1 lira = 1 franc). This sum included the amount necessary to pay the debt due to the National Bank, and to abolish the forced currency. He proposed financial operations by which he expected to obtain 794,000,000 lire. He further demonstrated that there had been a steady increase in the ordinary revenue and decrease in the expenditure since 1867. In future years, he anticipated that there would be a reduction of the ordinary expenditure to 360,000,000 lire, and of the extraordinary to 60,000,000 lire. The minister, moreover, anticipates a balance of the revenue and expenditure in 1875. No new taxes are proposed, but bills are to be introduced for reorganizing the system without increasing the amount of the direct taxes, and also for regulating the provision-tax. Public works will be vigorously prosecuted, without fresh burdens being imposed upon the treasury. The expense of reorganizing the army and navy will be spread over a long series of years. In 1870 the revenue from the grist-tax will reach its normal amount. The National Bank will receive 180,000,000 lire of its debt in 1870 out of the revenue of the following two years, and the forced currency will be abolished in 1873. The ecclesiastical property affords an available resource of 500,000,000, not including about 80,000,000 lire, the value of the Church property in the secularization bill now in litigation. The revenue from the customs duties of 1869 shows an increase of 2,500,000 lire over that of 1868. The lottery revenue has increased 4,000,000 lire. The estimated revenue for 1870 is 914,000,000 lire, and the expenditure 1,030,000,000 lire, showing a deficit of 116,000,000, reducible to 94,000,000 by the reception of payments belonging to 1869, but not receivable until 1870.

The grist-tax proved to be the most odious, but was considered necessary to enable the Government to make the required expenditure without new loans, so that the Chamber sanctioned the tax. But the people vetoed it in a very serious manner. Revolts of peasants raged through the central provinces; the enemies of the present *régime* helped to increase the feverish agitation. The troops, accompanied by mobilized National Guards and gendarmes, marched all over the country. An official report spoke of 257 killed, 1,099 wounded, and 3,288 arrested. Ferrari, supported by 80 deputies of the Left, moved in the Chamber that the ministry had arbitrarily violated the law and the rights of citizens guaranteed by the Constitution. Excited debates lasted five hours, but the Government remained firm and obtained a decisive victory, the Chamber tabling the motion by 207 votes against 157.

The uncertain state of affairs induced the ministers to tender their resignation to the King, on May 5th. Menabrea, president of the ministers, undertook to form a new Cabinet, but soon retired in favor of Count Cambray-Digny. On May 13th the crisis ended by the formation of the following ministry: General Menabrea, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; Signor Ferrari, Minister of the Interior; Signor A. Mordani, Minister of Public Works; Signor Bargoni, Minister of Public Instruction; Signor Minghetti, Minister of Commerce and Agriculture; the Ministries of Finance, War, and Marine, remaining unaltered. The reconstruction of the Cabinet was, however, instantly followed by a fresh ministerial crisis, the financial measures of Cambray-Digny, which had received the sanction of the Chamber before, being voted on again and lost. The crisis passed over, and the Government carried through its measures. The grist-tax was brought into operation everywhere, and did not meet with any further serious opposition. All illegal resistance having ceased, a great number of mills were reopened by the order of the Government. In November, 58,527 mills had taken out licenses and were in full working order; 14,926 paying the entire tax, 18,955 a large portion of it, while 24,626, being burdened with numerous arrears, did not yet pay any thing into the treasury. A new ministerial crisis took place in December. General Cialdini was summoned by the King to form a new ministry, but neither he nor Sella succeeded. Lanza undertook the task, on the condition that the former ministers Menabrea and Cambray-Digny should leave, and the military budget be reduced by 80,000,000 lire. The ministry, formed December 13th, consists of: Lanza, President of the Ministry and Minister of the Interior; Sella, Minister of Finance; Viscomte Venosta, Minister of Foreign Affairs; Gorone, Minister of War; Baeli, Minister of Justice; Biancheri, Minister of the Navy; Luzzati, Minister of Commerce. It is a ministry of the Right Centre. Sella's financial

plans, to be laid before the Chamber toward the end of January, 1870, are said to be: reduction of the army and navy budget, and an increase of direct taxes (including the one on real estate) by ten per cent., by the aid of which measures he expects to effect a saving of 60,000,000 lire. The agitation in regard to taxes still continued at the end of 1869. In the provinces of Verona, Cuneo, Modena, Piacenza, Arezzo, Bologna, Cremona, and Pavia, there were popular assemblages and demonstrations against the grist-tax; but the people were everywhere dispersed, and order was restored without difficulty. Riotous demonstrations were made by the peasants at Borgo San Donino. Troops arrived, several arrests were made, and order was restored. At Pelago, in the province of Florence, some armed peasants attacked the town-hall, which was defended by the National Guard. One peasant was killed and several were wounded.

The King continues personally to be popular, notwithstanding the violent agitations prevailing against his administration. He accepted the gold medal offered him by the committee charged with the distribution of rewards to those who have rendered services in the promotion of public health. On the occasion of his visit at Venice, to welcome the Empress Eugenie, in October, 1869, he was received most enthusiastically. In November he fell seriously ill, and his life even was despaired of on November 7th, so that the members of the royal family were summoned to Florence. He recovered, however, and was received with great warmth on his trip to Turin, and on his return to the capital.

According to a scheme laid before the Italian Chamber by the Minister of War, for the reorganization of the Italian army, there will be an active army and a reserve. The yearly contingent will consist of three divisions: the first to serve twelve years, four in the ranks, five on furlough, and three in the reserve; and the second and third to serve six years only. The cavalry will serve five years in the ranks. The first two divisions constitute the active army, and the third the reserve. The privilege of appointing substitutes is abolished, but exemption by payment is still to be allowed in exceptional cases. Under the new scheme the yearly contingent will consist of 88,000 men, one-half of whom will be placed in the first division, and the entire strength of the active army will be 400,000 men, of whom 270,000 could at once be sent into the field in case of war. The reserve is to consist of 198,000 men. In order not to exceed the fixed sum of 140,000,000 lire allowed for the military budget, the effective strength of the army in time of peace is to be 173,000. A reduction of the army was talked of at the end of the year.

Great progress is making with the Mont Cenis Tunnel, the works being actively carried on night and day, and there is every probability that the line will be opened in the course of next year. To celebrate this event, it has now been definitely decided that a Universal Exhibition shall be held at Turin in the spring of 1872.

A meeting of freethinkers, or radical antipapists, convened at Naples, on December 9th, proved a failure, it having been dissolved by the prefect.

J

JAHN, OTHO, a German philologist, archæologist, and critic, born in Kiel, Holstein, June 16, 1813; died at Leipsic, September 19, 1869. After passing through the university course in his native city, he went to Berlin in 1833, to complete his studies under Lachmann and Gerhard. Having received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in 1836, he spent considerable time in study and travel in France and Italy, and, returning to Kiel, commenced a course of special instruction, as *privat docent*, in archæology and philology. In 1841 he published, at Kiel, "Telephus and Troilus;" in 1842, "Pentheus and the Mœnades;" and the same year a little volume "*In Memoriam Kellermanni.*" In 1842 he was called to Greifswald, as extraordinary, and soon after made ordinary, professor of archæology and philology. In 1847 he was called to the same chair in the University of Leipsic, and was also, until 1851, director of the Museum of Archæology. In the last-named year he was deprived of both appointments, for having taken part in the popular revolutionary movement of 1848–'49, and returned to private life, devoting himself to his favorite pursuits. As an archæologist he published, besides many dissertations and essays in Gerhard's *Archæological Gazette*, the following works: "The Picture of Polygnotus at Delphi," Kiel, 1841; "Paris and Œnone," Greifswald, 1845; "Hellenic Art," Greifswald, 1846; "Peitho, the Goddess of Persuasion," Greifswald, 1847; "Archæological Dissertations," Greifswald, 1845; "Archæological Studies," Greifswald, 1847; "The Cista of Ficoroni," Leipsic, 1852; "Description of the Collection of Vases of King Louis, in the Pinakothek of Munich," with eleven plates, Munich, 1854. Among his philological labors the principal were: critical editions of *Persius* (Leipsic, 1843 and 1852); of *Censorinus* (Berlin, 1845); of *Florus* (Leipsic, 1852); of *Juvenal*, the same year, and of Cicero's *Brutus* and *De Oratore;* of the *Psyche and Cupid* of Apuleius for an edition *de luxe* of the later classics. Herr Jahn was also a profound student of musical science, and a constant contributor to the *Musical Gazette* of

Leipsic. He had published a "Study upon the *Paulus* of Mendelssohn," at Kiel, in 1842; a critical edition of Beethoven's *Fidelio* at Leipsic, in 1851; and a remarkable biographical and critical memoir of Mozart, in two volumes, at Leipsic, in 1856. He was an active member of the Academy of Sciences of Leipsic, and a frequent contributor to its Transactions. The popular work on "Biblical Archæology," which has been attributed to him, was written by Johann Jahn, a Catholic archæologist and professor at Vienna, before the birth of Otho Jahn. The Viennese professor died in 1816.

JAPAN, an empire in Eastern Asia. The area is estimated at 150,000 square miles; the population variously at from 18,000,000 to 35,000,000. The conflict between the Mikado and Tycoon, in 1867 and 1868, resulted in the resumption of the administration of the empire by the Mikado, and in the total abolition of the Tycoonate. The following foreign powers were, at the close of 1869, represented in Japan by diplomatic agents: United States of America (Robert B. Van Valkenburgh, minister), Belgium, Denmark, France, Great Britain, Italy, Netherlands, North-German Confederation, Austria, Portugal, Russia, and Switzerland.

The movement of commerce and of shipping, at the principal ports open to foreign nations, was, in 1868, as follows:

PORTS.	Imports. Val. in Dol.	Exports. Val. in Dol.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.	
			Vessels.	Tonnage	Vessels.	Tonnage
Yokohama....	18,849,318	33,918,134	373	287,531	342	274,384
Hiogo & Osaka	5,196,448	1,148,787	193	114,687	178	109,907
Hakodadi....	214,035	431,152	114	40,815	113	40,618
Nagasaki.....	5,248,966	1,775,907	294	105,213	265	95,531

In February, 1860, the Japanese admiral, Ennemato, a supporter of the Tycoon, took possession of the entire island of Yesso. He celebrated the event by firing a salute of a hundred and one guns from the fleet and batteries ashore. He notified all the consuls of the formation of a provisional government, and of the appointment of the necessary permanent officers in the principal departments. His forces were rapidly increasing. He strongly fortified his position near Volcano Bay, with the intention of fighting, unless the Mikado complied with the demands of the exiled clans, which were, to allow them to retain the island of Yesso, and to be ruled over by the Tycoon. In March the northern daimios took the important island of Sado, on the western coast of Niphon. Three of Ennemato's vessels attempted to capture the Government's steamer, Stonewall, but without success, one of his vessels being beached and burned. But the Mikado gained ground, and several of the leading daimios, in April, surrendered to him their territories and sovereign rights and privileges, with a view to centralizing and strengthening the Government for the general good. The Mikado left Kioto for Yeddo, where a great congress of the daimios of the empire was to assemble by his command. He arrived there on May 8th. On the 18th a Parliament was convoked by the following proclamation:

Since the establishment of the Mikado's authority, old prejudices and customs have been done away with (literally, washed away), and a channel of communication has been opened up through all classes in the empire, from the highest to the lowest. No impediment whatsoever exists. Several persons, who have diligently served their country and without the least hesitation (literally, dread) have assisted the Government with their advice, have been gradually selected for the discharge of official duties. Nevertheless, the Government have not been able to put all their plans into execution. It is thought that a sufficiently wide circulation has not been given to the imperial wishes, and that there are still men of sound judgment who should be selected. This has caused the imperial mind much concern, and therefore it is intended to open a People's House of Representatives in Yeddo Castle, in which men of sound judgment, no matter how low their rank may be, can at once offer what advice they think best. His Majesty will afterward communicate through their chief (or president) the imperial will concerning the views of each.

The number of deputies was 227. When they had assembled, the president rose and read the following message from the Emperor, all in the House prostrating themselves during its reading:

Whereas, we propose shortly to proceed to our eastern capital, there to assemble around us our Kuges, Daimios, and the members of the various administrative departments, in order to consult them upon the foundation of the new constitution of this country: this shall be framed so as to insure safety and peace. Let every one at the present moment remember that the constitution and laws must be the foundation of government, and, as millions of people are ruled by them, let them not be framed inconsiderately or without mature deliberation. Our officers having reported to us the completion of the rules for the establishment of a public council, we desire that it shall be opened without delay.

Let the rules of decorum be observed throughout its proceedings, and its debates be conducted with temper and discretion, in a public-spirited manner. Then may we hope that the deliberations will be productive of useful and clear decisions. Let the fundamental laws of our ancestors serve as a guide, and apply them to the character of men and the spirit of the times. Let the different subjects be successively treated according to their importance, and, finally, let the results of your debates be reported to us, when we will determine upon those that merit our approval.

After the reading of the message, the House proceeded to business.

The following scheme for the rules and regulations of the Parliament present an extraordinary example of reform in government:

The settlement of the laws of the Assembly is the most important duty. Any point not included in these laws must be left to the decision of the President; the Assembly cannot charge itself with (providing against) unforeseen and extraordinary cases.

1. The period for which the members of Parliament will serve is limited to four years. Half the members will be reëlected every two years. Retiring members may be immediately reëlected. New members will enjoy the same privileges and rank with old members. When the time arrives for the first reëlection, half the members will retire by lot.

2. Members of Parliament must have completed their twenty-fifth year.

3. Members of Parliament may not hold any other office.

4. Should any member be appointed to another office or retire, a substitute will immediately be elected.

5. Any member having a motion to propose will hand in the same in writing to the President.

6. Should any person, not being a member of Parliament, wish to introduce any motion in the House, he may intrust it in writing to the President or to any member.

7. Statements of motions must be brief and plain; they must have foundation and substance.

8. The President will receive the various motions and number them, and, having copied them in form, will cause them to be printed. The order in which motions will come before the House will be according to the pleasure of the President, and will in no way depend upon the numbers which they bear.

9. Six days in every month, the 2d, 7th, 12th, 17th, 22d, and 27th, are fixed days of assembly.

10. On the fixed days of assembly members will take their places at ten in the morning.

11. The places in the House will be numbered beforehand, and at the opening of the House members will draw lots for their places, in which they will take their seats accordingly. These numbers will be changed every month.

12. Every month six officers named Kanji [the functions of these officers are not defined; they appear, however, to be destined as a medium of communication between members of the House and the President, and to assist the latter in conferring with the officers of the Government] will be elected from among the members of Parliament.

13. At every meeting of the Assembly a printed motion will be handed to each member.

14. Members, having received a printed motion, will carry it home, and, after mature reflection, will criticise it, and at the next meeting will carry the motion with them and publicly read out their criticisms. Should any questions be asked of them as to the reasons for this opinion, they will be prepared to reply.

15. The order in which members will read out their opinions or address questions will be according to the fixed number of their places.

16. On the second occasion, when a subject comes up for debate, members are not restricted to speaking once. On other occasions they may only speak once.

17. When a subject has been debated by the members in conclave, any member returning home and again pondering over the subject, and having arrived at a conclusion as to its merits, may put his opinion in writing, and hand it to the President at the third sitting.

18. Papers thus handed to the President will, when the original motion is approved, bear the character *ka* (ay) in red ink on the right-hand corner. When the motion is disapproved, they will bear the character *hi* (no) in red ink on the left-hand corner.

19. The President having collected the whole opinions of the members, and having duly arranged them, will, should three-fifths or more of the members be in favor of the motion, declare it to be carried, and will request the Emperor's judgment.

20. Should three-fifths of the members be against the motion, the President will declare it lost, and it will be abandoned accordingly.

21. When three votes are wanting to make up three-fifths, the President has the power of deciding the question by his vote.

22. Should the "ayes" and the "noes" together not amount to three-fifths of the members of the House, the debate will be postponed, and resumed at the expiration of one year.

23. Should three-fifths of the whole House decide that the motion should be heard again in the same year, the motion must be heard again forthwith.

24. At each assembly there will be three matters to be dealt with. First, the scrutiny of the "ayes" and "noes" on the motion of which notice has been received at the previous meeting. Secondly, the debate upon the motion of which the "ayes" and "noes" have been scrutinized at the previous meeting. Thirdly, the receipt of a new motion. These constitute the orders of the day. The President will, however, be competent to introduce variations in the orders of the day.

25. Should any question before the Parliament have to be referred to the officers of the Government, the debate will be postponed until the next meeting, when the officers of the Government will be invited to attend.

26. When the officers of the Government attend at the House, the Kanji, or officers of the House, will confer with them. At such conferences the President will attend, and, taking deeply into consideration the arguments of both parties, will see that nothing improper occurs.

27. The various motions, the results of the scrutinies and the approval and disapproval of the Emperor, will be printed.

28. If, in the course of debate, the President should strike the board by his side, the House will be silent.

29. Should any member be prevented from attending, he may delegate a proxy.

30. A proxy may give his vote for the member who has delegated him.

31. No member may hold more than one proxy.

32. No scrutiny of "ayes" and "noes" can take place when less than two-fifths of the whole House are present.

33. Should any mistake occur in the course of debate, the President will correct it. Should he fail to do so, he may be called upon to exercise his authority by any member.

34. Newspapers and street reports are not to be quoted to substantiate statements.

In June the Mikado's forces commenced attacking Hakodadi, the capital of Yesso, which was occupied by the rebels under the powerful daimios Aidzu and Ennemato. The greater part of the city, with its ancient temples, was laid in ashes on June 19th. The battle raged with unabated fury from 4 A.M. till 8 P.M., after which it subsided into picket-firing, which was kept up during the night, with an occasional shell exchanged between the fleet and forts. While the Mikado's fleet was busily engaged in shelling the enemy's position, Admiral Ennemato steamed out with his remaining vessel, the Emperor, from under the fort, and with Spartan courage boldly attacked the whole fleet of wooden vessels, for the purpose of relieving his troops from their harassing fire, actually driving them from their positions and exploding the Don Juan with 250 men on board, about 50 of whom were saved. He continued to engage them, but they declined the combat, or fought at long range. After holding the fleet at bay for upward of an hour, the Stonewall drew off from her position, where she had been shelling the city fort, and slowly advanced to the attack, when the Emperor as slowly and sullenly retired, exchanging shots with her the while. Toward nightfall the vessel sank, opposite the city she had defended against the combined attack of the fleet, with flying colors, and every man at his gun. Ennemato had about 8,000 and the Mikado about 8,000 men.

In the mean while the Parliament continued its sessions at Yeddo. The most important

and interesting discussions turned upon the following questions from the "Foreign Office:"

1. On the question, if the country was to be closed or to be opened, the different parties have had many discussions since olden times. Some say that no relations ought to be entertained with the barbarians, the birds and beasts, as they call them; others that now, when our country is not yet sufficiently rich and powerful, we ought to make our own their advantages and make up our defects through them, and that when this is done we ought to drive them away. Others, again, desire that we should completely adopt the customs of foreigners, that our schools ought to be open to their sciences, and that we ought to practise the use of ships and cannons, and then proceed to a thorough expulsion of them; others say that we ought to kill the barbarians. If, now, it should be resolved upon to open the country, shall then the existing treaties forever remain as they are, or shall we follow another line of policy with regard to the treaties?

2. If the closing of the country should be demanded, shall we then proceed to a systematical expulsion, or shall the foreigners residing in our country be killed? But if the foreigners wage war against us for this, what shall we do to resist them?

3. If they attack us by land and sea without our having sufficient soldiers to oppose them, are you then content that the country and the nation, together with the imperial family, be destroyed?

4. If in case of a war it should be decided to oppose the foreigners with open force, and if some did not approve this decision, in what manner should they be brought over to your opinion?

5. If the closing of the ports were decided upon and war became imminent, where shall our imperial family find a refuge, and with what troops will you protect them? What measures will you take in that case?

6. Lately innocent foreigners have been killed in our country, bad gold and silver coins have been brought into circulation, large loans have been contracted, and if the number of such facts should augment from day to day, and all the nations together put their troops in motion to make war against our Government and demand peremptorily satisfaction for these deeds, or if they should take possession of the open ports, seize our ships, occupy our islands, how can we prevent this? What measures do you intend to employ to prevent this?

7. If we look at the present state of affairs, we find that the partisans of the opening of the ports are also in favor of the propagation of foreign (religious) sects, while their opponents are in favor of the Japanese and Chinese doctrines. If we wish to arrive at a fusion of both opinions, what steps have we to take in order to arrive at a certain and stable situation?

8. How do you think that the propagation of the (Shinto) doctrine of our gods could be brought about in the whole country for the instruction and guidance of our people?

9. If unanimity should be arrived at with regard to these questions, do you believe that the opening or closing of the ports would be more in accordance with the spirit of the age, and eventually what profits or disadvantages would we have from the execution of these measures?

10. Our treaties with the foreign countries have been concluded for commercial purposes. Now, during these last years the foreign powers have vied with each other in stationing troops and ships in our country for the protection of their countrymen: if difficulties arise, they immediately draw out their troops for the protection of the different places; English soldiers are at this moment nearly 3,000 men in our country; the next in number are the French; America and other countries have men-of-war stationed here. Our holy empire, which never since the oldest times has been despised, has provoked these humiliations, and just at this moment we feel them very much. What law shall we make to wipe away this stain?

11. According to our views the state of affairs is as follows: Except in conquered countries the law of nations does not allow that theatres should be imposed by military force; but after, in former years, several tens of merchants had been killed, the foreign countries concerned have, as soon as any one was killed, augmented the number of soldiers, so that it has arrived at the extent now existing. If new murders should take place at the present time, the number of soldiers will also be augmented in proportion thereto, until it has become large enough to guarantee sufficient safety. What are the means to put an end to this state of affairs?

12. If, in consequence of new murders of foreigners, their troops should be so much augmented that they occupied all our ports, what country will be then more despised and humiliated than our heavenly country? Even now, there are many grievances the foreigners have against us. How can we clear our old and sacred laws and religion from this stain in the eyes of foreigners? What are we to do?

13. It is because our Government can neither protect their own people nor the foreigners that the foreign countries have sent their troops to us, and they declare that they will not withdraw them until the Government has obtained the power over life and death, and to punish and reward. And this power the Government must have — enough authority to protect their own people and the foreigners. That, as is now the case, the foreign countries punish themselves crimes committed in our country, is a shame and an insult. How can we wipe it out?

14. Because under the former Benkfu Government the power over life and death and to reward and punish had passed into the hands of low people, a change of government has taken place. How can we paralyze these old hereditary evils?

15. How shall we prevent the foreign representatives going everywhere, under the protection, not of our soldiers, but of their own? Or shall we forbid it?

16. If the foreigners now ask how the kerais or regular troops of the provinces, clans and districts, shall be prevented from molesting foreigners they meet on the road, or if the Government has power to prevent such things, what shall we reply?

17. If we desire that you should decide now over peace and war, you ought to do so with zeal and prudence. Only a small mistake on one side or the other will cause us great difficulties and miseries, and the power of Government will fall necessarily into the hands of bad officers. Therefore your decision ought to be clear and to the point.

18. The debts toward foreign countries taken over by the new Government from the old one amount to about $6,000,000 (one dollar being equal to three and a half boos). The immediate payment of them has often been demanded from us, but, as the expenses for interior and foreign affairs are so very heavy at this moment, we address ourselves to you in order to learn how to satisfy these claims.

From the Simonoseki affair with Choshin, part of the indemnity to be paid to England, France, America, and Holland, $1,500,000, is still unpaid.

The Oriental Bank of Yokohama has made us a loan of $500,000. One million dollars have been lent by the English merchant Oruto to the imperial mint.

Debts from daimios to foreigners have been guaranteed by the Government to the amount of $230,000 to $240,000.

Further expenses for the factory at Nagasaki, the dock at Yokotska, light-houses, mines, and men-of-war, to be paid for to foreigners, make up the total amount before mentioned. To specify exactly the different items is not possible.

19. Bad silver and gold coins circulating in the country, a large quantity of bad silver and gold has come through trade into the hands of foreigners. The

amount thereof is perhaps equal to 30,000,000 rios of good coin. The foreigners have now addressed themselves to their representatives, and demand that either this bad money should be exchanged against good at the foreign office, or that they should be indemnified for their losses, which amount, according to their statement, to 6,000,000 rios.

What shall be done in this matter? According to the new treaty, article three, the boo is a coin of two nomme bun weight, equal to not less than 134 grains troy weight, and containing not less than nine-tenths of pure silver and one-tenth of alloy.

As this has been stipulated by the treaty, the boo, although a Japanese article, is, nevertheless, no more something exclusively Japanese, having to be regarded in the light of a medium of exchange between the foreign and Japanese commerce; as, per example, a Japanese, being in the service of a foreigner, cannot act any more according to his own free will. Although, influenced by this idea, the old Government had faithfully observed the treaties, and more than one-tenth of alloy was contained in their coins, nevertheless much bad coin has been issued during these last times, and the boos coined at Osaka are of a very bad standard, the niboos have been adulterated equally, and, as before mentioned, these bad coins have now passed into the hands of foreigners. All this has happened because the officials in the imperial mint have thought that it was indifferent with what standard and under what form the Government coined money, it being sure to pass as paper money does.

20. If the foreign representatives now ask us by whom besides by the Government such bad coin has been issued, what shall we reply to them?

There exists a rumor that by others, as well as by the Government, bad coins have been issued secretly; and if one looks at the statement that 30,000,000 rios are in the hands of foreigners, ought one not to believe that besides by the old and new governments, also by others, bad coins had been issued surreptitiously?

21. The Japanese Government, by issuing bad coins and acting contrary to the treaties, has, by deceiving their own people and foreigners, polluted their name in the sight of all the countries; how shall we clear ourselves of this stain?

As the preceding points are of the greatest importance for the country, and the above-mentioned difficulties cannot be cured by any single individual, we recommend to you an early and thorough discussion of them most urgently.

FOREIGN OFFICE.

Third Month (*12th April*, *12th May*).

The Japanese Parliament showed itself very hostile to the Christian religion. Only one member dared to defend it, while 210 voted for a resolution declaring Christianity to be opposed to the state. Another resolution, to inflict severe penalties for bringing back the apostates to one of the religions of the country, was negatived by 176 against 44 votes. The violent denunciations of the Christian religion, and of the treaties, induced the representatives of the foreign powers to address, on June 17th, a joint note to the Japanese Government, in which the latter is reminded that the Parliament has no right to modify the treaties with the foreign powers.

The representatives of the foreign powers formally announced the termination of the civil war, and withdrew their notification of neutrality. The Mikado intrusted all the important positions in the empire to Satsuma, Chosiu, Tossa, and Nadijena, ignoring altogether the claims of the other princes, many of whom are very influential. It was further ordered that within a certain period all the daimios must deliver up to the Government their war-material, receiving payment for the same in kinsats (paper).

A great deal of jealousy continued to exist among the daimios.

One of the greatest difficulties the foreign diplomatists have had to encounter in Japan has been to acquire a knowledge of those mysterious laws of Gongensama to which Japanese officials so often refer as containing the basis of their political system, and in which they profess to find precedents for any line of conduct they may choose to adopt. These laws, variously called the Legacy of Iyeyas, the Laws of Gongensama, and the Laws of Japan, were framed by Iyeyas, a celebrated Tycoon, the founder of the family of the Tycoon of our own day. Iyeyas lived in the beginning of the seventeenth century, and after his death was deified under the title of Gongensama. Many attempts to gain possession of this important code have been made, at last successfully; manuscript copies have now been obtained, and one or two have lately found their way to Europe. These laws consist of one hundred sections, and display throughout how thoroughly feudal is the Japanese system of government, how much the power of the sword is respected, how little regarded are the people. The laws begin by claiming exemption from the gaze of all but official eyes. "This manuscript * * * * may not be seen by any but the Gorojiu (Council of State at Yeddo), who, profoundly secreting it even in the precincts of the official residence, in order to conceal it from the sight of others, shall reflect upon and regard it in their hearts." After a few recommendations to the practice of self-denial in the performance of duties, the providing "for the widower, the widow, the orphan, and the lone," and the cultivation of purity of heart, they proceed to the estimate of the revenue of the empire. "The whole amount of the revenue of the empire of Japan is 28,190,000 kokus of rice (each koku equals 5.13 bushels). Of this 20,000,000 is to be divided among the daimios (nobles) and shomios, who render faithful service; and the remaining 8,190,000 kokus form the public revenue, which should provide for the protection of the Emperor, and for keeping in subjection the barbarians of the four coasts."

After an exposition of the rules of government, follow rules for the selection of magistrates of the civil criminal courts, who "are the reflectors of the mode of government. Those who are invested with this office should be chosen from a class of men who are upright and pure, distinguished for charity and benevolence. Once every month one of the Gorojiu should be sent, unexpectedly, to inquire into their mode of administration; or the Shôgun should himself go unexpectedly and investigate

and decide the case on hand." This watchful system is no dead letter; it is sharply felt by officials of every grade. The rewards of virtue which the magistrate may bestow, the punishment of vice he may inflict, are next enumerated, the latter list exhibiting strange refinements in cruelty, terminal words "and so on" giving officials the power to apply any supplementary torture they may happen to fancy. These punishments are: 1st, branding; 2d, splitting the nose; 3d, banishment; 4th, transportation; 5th, strangulation; 6th, imprisonment; 7th, decapitation, and exposure of the head; 8th, crucifixion and transfixion; 9th, burning; 10th, decapitation; "and so on." But the infliction of the severe punishments of tying a criminal's legs to two oxen and driving them in different directions, and of boiling in oil, is not within the power of the Shôgun (i.e., Tycoon), and is, therefore, we presume, a prerogative of the Emperor.

The maintenance of the standing army is made to devolve on the government of the different provinces. Each province is compelled to furnish soldiers in proportion to the quantity of rice grown within its boundaries, whether on public or private properties. "For 1,000 kokus of rice five cavalry-men may be required; for 10,000, 50 men; for 50,000, 250 men; for 100,000, 500 men; for 200,000, 1,000 men. One thousand horsemen form an army, and 3,000 form three complete armies. The commander-in-chief takes command of the whole. The second in command takes command of two armies. The third in command is the leader of one army."

The persons of members of the imperial family are considered sacred, and a death among them ranks as a public misfortune. "The departure from life of the Emperor, the imperial sire, the imperial spouse, or any of the imperial blood relations, are occasions of profound darkness, and great and ominous calamity for the whole empire."

The Japanese have already far outstripped the Chinese in progress toward Western civilization. The Government has troops uniformed and armed with the latest improved breech-loading guns. The naval vessels are well armed. A hospital has been built at Hioga, and is in charge of an American surgeon, and is open to foreigners. Light-houses are built and lighted, and a light-ship is being equipped, to be stationed off Treaty Point. The coal-mines are successfully worked, and supply foreign vessels with coal, while the Chinese refuse to allow foreigners to mine coal.

On January 6, 1869, a new era in the foreign political intercourse with Japan commenced. On that day the Mikado, or Emperor, emerged from his normal state of seclusion, and, disregarding the time-honored tradition which forbids the "barbarian" to gaze on his "sacred countenance," received in state the foreign ministers residing at Yeddo, and exhibited an earnest desire to maintain peaceful relations. The ports of Yeddo and Negata were opened to foreigners, and Yeddo made the official residence of the Mikado, and the permanent capital of the Japanese empire. The trade with foreigners has been increasing since the opening of the first ports. The following figures will give some estimate of the trade of Hioga for the year 1868:

Total number of vessels arrived, 190; tonnage, 116,917—of which number 64 were American, with an aggregate tonnage of 73,195; English, 111, with 39,186 tons; other countries, 15.

The total value of imports for the same time amounted to $4,710,214; of which $822,404 came direct from foreign ports. The total value of exports amounted to $1,561,090; of which $388,096 was direct to foreign countries, and a large proportion of the rest also went to foreign countries, but was first shipped to Yokohama. For instance, the value of the silk export alone—that is, including silkworms' eggs—amounted to $749,044, and the tea to $309,025. Altogether this is a very healthy showing, and whether Kobe supersedes Yokohama or not, we may confidently expect that her trade will foot up in a couple of years to a very considerable amount.

An Austrian naval and diplomatic expedition visited Japan in the fall. Very flattering accounts have been received of the reception it met from the imperial court and its officers, and from the foreign diplomatic agents and merchants. The points of a draft of a commercial treaty, which placed Austria on the same footing with the most favored nations, were agreed upon within less than ten days. The treaty was signed on the 18th of October, the anniversary of the departure of the expedition from Trieste. Among the most remarkable incidents of the mission was that of the ceremonial audience with the Mikado, who took this opportunity to give the admiral a letter for the Emperor of Austria, which was written with his own hand. This is the more noticeable, because it is the first instance of a Japanese ruler dispatching an autograph letter to a foreign sovereign. In Yeddo a brilliant reception was given the embassy by the Japanese minister in a place splendidly fitted up for this occasion. The uncle of the Mikado, a leader in affairs of state, was present. As this prince had never before dined with Europeans, he suffered himself to be instructed for the occasion by Herr Alexander von Siebold in the use of the knife and fork.

Besides the expensive gifts of Austrian articles of manufacture, which were brought to the Mikado by the embassy, specimen proofs of the publications of the Academy of Science of Vienna, printed on the imperial press, were given to the high schools in Yeddo, and attracted the particular attention of Japanese statesmen and scholars. At the same time an exposition of Austrian goods took place at the port of Yokohama, which was not only much

attended by the resident merchants and artisans, but produced also practical results in the shape of several direct orders. Yokohama, as is well known, is the principal emporium of Niphon, in which the greater part of the business of the import and export trade is transacted. The reports of the mission mention, with warm thankfulness, the great courtesy and alacrity with which they were assisted in their intercourse with the court officials, the statesmen, and other officers, by the British secretary of legation, Herr Alexander von Siebold. This young diplomat, who speaks the language of the country with the polish and elegance of a cultivated Japanese, is the eldest son of the celebrated naturalist who died a few years ago at Munich. Herr von Siebold was already acquainted with, and a personal friend of the chief of the statistical and scientific department of the expedition, the ministerial councillor, Dr. Karl von Scherzer. Herr von Scherzer, who, both in Japan and China, displayed a zeal for the commercial interests of the expedition worthy of recognition, and who materially furthered the objects of the embassy by his practical skill as well as by his personal influence, and winning amiability, which had great effect upon the Asiatics, separated himself temporarily from the expedition at Yokohama, in order to go to California and obtain a brief view of commercial affairs there. The expedition left Japan on the 10th of November for San José, in Guatemala, where it was expected that Dr. von Scherzer would rejoin it.

JEWS. The Board of Delegates of American Israelites is an association somewhat on the plan of the "Universal Israelitish Alliance" of Paris. It is an attempt to unite the congregations of the Jews in the United States in efforts for education, for the protection and assistance of Jews in foreign countries where disabilities are still imposed, for enlarging the privileges and liberties of the Jews, and defending them against encroachments, and in general for what may tend to the increased prosperity of the people. The movement of the Board has not been encouraged with what its executive committee consider "adequate liberality," and its enterprises have consequently been contracted by the limitation of its means. In 1868 the committee reported only 50 out of 200 Jewish congregations in the country as entered upon its rolls, and lamented the entire absence of union among the Hebrews, and the lack of means of obtaining statistics or information about congregations or societies. The Board have approved of a suggestion looking to the formation of an American Jewish Church, but that being an ecclesiastical movement, and not within their objects, it declined to take action in the matter.

The Board now hold a Palestine fund of $3,300, the interest of which is given to the schools established by the Universal Israelitish Alliance at Jerusalem and Jaffa. These schools are to be enlarged by the opening of an agricultural school at Jaffa. A further scheme for the amelioration of the condition of the Israelites in the Holy Land has been submitted for approval. It contemplates the erection of dwellings for pilgrims to Palestine, and for the aged and indigent resident there. Several such have been erected by the English and French Jews, and the coöperation of American Jews is invited.

At home the Board of Delegates are guarding against the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States recognizing Christianity as the religion of the land, and are endeavoring to secure amendments to the Sunday laws of the States, where such proviso is not already made, exempting from their operation those who keep the seventh day as the Sabbath, and conduct their business on the first day "quietly and not to the public detriment." The executive committee of the Board recommend that steps be taken for the regular authorized issue of Jewish publications, and call attention to the fact that every denomination in the United States has a publication society, while the Hebrews have none. The plan, which was offered in 1868 and renewed in 1869, proposed a committee to be intrusted with the duty of selecting books to be translated or printed in the original. The publication "should embrace reading-books for Jewish schools, works in the various departments of Hebrew literature, Jewish history, etc. Philosophical works might be reprinted or subscribed for, and authors and translators of useful books aided in publishing them. The tendency of the society should be to avoid works of pronounced party character—its aim, the propagation of Jewish knowledge and impartial science. Correspondence and coöperation with similar organizations in Europe should also be comprehended in the plan."

Maimonides College was opened at Philadelphia, in October, 1867. Its course is liberal, embracing the Hebrew language and literature and Jewish theology, the classics, *belle-lettres*, and mathematics. The sessions have been maintained since without interruption (except regular vacations), but the committee are not able to speak hopefully, rather apologetically, of its condition and prospects, and of the support it receives from the congregations. The committee continue in their report:

> The committee observe little effort on the part of American Israelites to combine their forces for the public good. The only interest which appears to prompt united action is the work of charity; and in this they do labor with unwonted energy. There are societies having extensive branches throughout the Union, which, by the establishment of asylums for the needy, the sick, the widow, the orphan, by the maintenance of a liberal system of mutual aid, and by generous benefactions in special cases, have stimulated thousands of Israelites to take more interest in their common welfare, and to consult together for purposes of benevolence and profoundly affecting all. The ultimate result of these measures may be to engage them in movements looking to the elevation of

Israel, the enlightenment of the masses. Let us hope so. But the fact remains unaltered, that at present education is regarded by most Israelites as chimerical, at least in its connection with commercial work and progress.

It is also apparent that union, for the purpose of advancing the religious and moral progress of our people in America, is regarded with disfavor by those who should be among the foremost in advocating, encouraging, and cementing such a bond. If the wisdom of the leading men among American Israelites incline toward the principle of independence in congregational affairs, this idea should not be carried to such an extent as to discountenance the combination of means and strength for the promotion of other than purely ecclesiastical interests.

A Rabbinical Conference of "Reformed Jews," those who favor religious progress, was held in Philadelphia in November. Its spirit and the character of its proceedings are best illustrated in the account of it which was given by Rabbi Wise, of Cincinnati, to his congregation after the adjournment:

The principles which the conference authoritatively declared, he said, were precisely the same which for the last twenty years were advanced, expounded, and defended by all liberal Israelites in America and Europe. That the Israelite of the nineteenth century expects not to return to Palestine, and construct a new Government under a Messiah, Prince of the house of David, as the sovereignty of freedom and the supremacy of justice are the very realization of the sublime ideals connected with the Messianic doctrine of the fathers; that the dispersion of Israel was not a punishment, divine retribution being threatened only to the third and fourth generations; it was the object of Providence that the children of Israel carry the pure word of God to all climes and generations; that it is not a people whose redemption and salvation the Lord has ordained—it is the whole human family which is to be saved and united by the instrumentality of God's chosen people; that it is not the resurrection of the human body in which our hopes centre—it is the immortality of the soul, and God's grace and justice to His image, which is our work of salvation; that, although it is our duty to maintain the Hebrew language, in which the divine treasures were intrusted to our care, nevertheless, many Israelites not being sufficiently conversant with the holy tongue, it is necessary that the vernacular be introduced in the synagogues as much as possible.

The resolutions were chiefly limited to the laws of marriage and divorce, some of which had come in conflict with the modern laws of civilized nations. These resolutions were based on the principle that it is every Israelite's religious duty to obey the laws of the land; that the synagogue therefore acknowledges no marriage lawful which has not the sanction of the law of the land; that it acknowledges the verdict of the public law in cases of divorce as final and binding, and abolishes the ancient rabbinical form of divorce; that it considers all laws, concerning the deceased brother's wife and concerning the sons of Aaron, as binding no longer. But that in all cases of marriage or divorce, in any State or Territory not having reached the height of the Biblical morals, the synagogue must adhere to the moral law of the Bible, and the rabbis, before solemnizing the marriage of a divorced party, must investigate into the causes on which the divorce was granted, and none must solemnize a marriage contrary to the provisions of the Bible. Man and woman, according to the spirit of the Scriptures, are perfectly equal before God. Therefore, in the covenant of matrimony, husband and wife have equal duties, claims, rights, and privileges, which are to be symbolically expressed by the exchange of rings, and the proper formula of marriage. Although this is in advance of the laws of many countries, nevertheless it is in the spirit of the sacred Scriptures, and binding upon all Israelites.

In regard to circumcision, it was declared as being an acknowledged law in Israel that the offspring of a Jewish mother is by virtue of its birth one of Israel, with or without circumcision. In all these matters the conference only declared authoritatively that which was acknowledged by all American Israelites, and again has the only merit of giving it authority.

The Hebrew free-school organization of the city of New York have four free schools under their charge; the design of them is to counteract the efforts of what are called "Christian Jews," who have also organized free schools, and teach doctrines which are regarded as opposed to the tenets of Judaism. The association now numbers over six hundred members, each paying an annual contribution of five dollars, out of which sum, and from donations received from various sources, the expenses of the schools are supported. The Board of Directors have it in view to abandon the instruction in the common English branches, as a good deal of opposition has been shown among the Jews of the city against it, since they claim that in the public schools, free to all, these are taught to better advantage, and that to maintain it in a distinctly Hebrew school might give rise to a charge that the Jews are opposed to the public-school system, while they are its earnest friends. Heed is to be given to this objection, and these Hebrew free schools will probably, hereafter, be continued only for free religious instruction, and for maintaining the Hebrew language among the "rising generation."

The Universal Israelitish Alliance, of Paris, has now in operation thirteen schools—six in Morocco, three in Turkey, two in Palestine, one in Syria, and one in Asia Minor, besides the normal school in Paris. The schools in Morocco are in a flourishing condition, encouraging the establishment of others in the Orient. The preparatory school in Paris is also prosperous, and is giving instruction to scholars preparing to become teachers, natives of Poland, Hungary, Turkey, Palestine, Syria, Morocco, and Abyssinia.

Monsieur Joseph Halevy, who had undertaken a mission to the Falasha Jews of Abyssinia on behalf of the Universal Israelitish Alliance, presented a report of his proceedings and the result of his investigations to the general committee of that association. It leaves no doubt as to the Judaism of the Falashas. Isolated locally, and even physically, from their coreligionists—for these Israelites dwell in a remote and little-known region—they remain faithful to the law of Sinai; and the civilized Jew, coming to them from a refined capital of the Western world, found himself in the midst of brethren. They testified their anxiety to rivet the link of brotherhood by confiding to M. Halevy a young member of their community, as an ambassador from them to the Alliance. Their complexion is more or less black, but they have not the

physical type of the negro. They retain a deep and pathetic attachment to the Holy Land. The word "Falasha" means exile. They speak two languages, belonging to different philological stocks. One is the vernacular of the district, the Amharic. But the language which they use in their families is a dialect of the Agaou, which they also employ for their prayers. Many of their names are Biblical, and consist of Hebrew words pronounced in Abyssinian manner. In the place of worship, men and women sit apart, and there is a sanctuary which is only entered by the high-priest on the day of atonement. Sacrifices are performed, but these are only commemorative, and are therefore not in accordance with the Mosaic ordinances. There are no sacrifices on Sabbaths. Almost all the manufactories of the country are in the hands of Falashas. They enjoyed civil rights until the accession of the late king. (*See* ABYSSINIA.)

At the close of the first Israelite Congress of Hungary, which took place on the 24th of February, after a session of more than two months, a deputation presented the statutes, elaborated by the Congress, to the Minister of Public Worship, requesting him to bring in a bill in the next Diet by which the Israelite confession as such should be received in the number of the legally-recognized confessions. According to the statute, the 475,000 Israelites of Hungary and Transylvania are formed into free communities, which in their turn are collected in twenty-six districts. Rules are drawn up regulating schools, endowments, the position of rabbins, and other confessional and educational matters. The future Congress is to consist of eighty-six members, and bear, as it were, the supreme authority.

The condition of the Israelites in the Danubian Principalities is improved, through the energetic interposition of the European governments in their behalf. The bitterness of the people against them is very great, however, in Rumania, where they have been exposed to violence from mobs. A better state of affairs is hoped from the accession of the new ministry. In Servia, the *régime* of liberty introduced by the new government will, it is hoped, be favorable to the Jews. Much good is looked for from the establishment of religious liberty in Spain. European and American Jews have been invited to coöperate in erecting a synagogue at Madrid. The plan of dollar subscriptions has been adopted.

The success of M. Halevy's mission to the Falashas of Abyssinia has suggested the dispatch of that gentleman to China, to inquire into the condition of the Jews there, and ascertain what can be done for them. The Universal Israelitish Alliance and the Board of Delegates of American Israelites coöperate in this action.

JOMINI, Baron HENRI, a Swiss general historian and military critic, born in Payerne, Canton de Vaud, Switzerland, March 6, 1779; died at Passy, near Paris, France, March 24, 1869. While still a boy, he served in a Swiss regiment in French pay, from 1789 to 1792. When the foreign troops were disbanded he returned to Switzerland, and studied military science with great assiduity. In 1803 he returned to France, and, upon the recommendation of Marshal Ney, secured the opportunity to pursue his commercial avocations in Paris, but in 1804 he entered the French army, obtaining the grade of *chef de bataillon*, and he was made colonel in 1805. Before this Jomini had been a laborious student of the art of war, and in 1805 had published his "Traité des grandes opérations militaires, ou histoire critique et militaire des guerres de Frédéric II. comparées à celles de la Révolution," in five volumes. He published his "Memoire sur les probabilités de la guerre de Prusse" in 1806. While serving on the staff of Marshal Ney, in the campaign of 1806 and 1807, he attracted the attention of Napoleon, who bestowed upon him the title of baron. In 1808 he accompanied Ney into Spain, but, in consequence of a misunderstanding with his superior, he remained inactive for two years. About this time he was solicited to enter the service of Russia, and was offered the rank of major-general, but he refused, and was again restored to favor and made a general of brigade in 1811. He was at the same time made historiographer of France, that office, which had been unoccupied since the time of Marmontel, being revived for his acceptance. In 1812 he was made governor of Wilna and Smolensk, and distinguished himself in the well-contested struggle at Bautzen, May 20, 1813, where the allies were worsted and the French general Duroc, was killed. Ney recommended him for promotion to the rank of general of division, but Berthier, who was his enemy, not only refused the request but struck his name from the list of promotion, and caused his arrest upon some trifling charge of routine irregularity. Jomini never forgave this treatment, and, immediately after the armistice of Pläswitz, he bade farewell to the French army and took service under Alexander, who immediately appointed him an aide-de-camp. Napoleon caused charges of desertion to be filed against Jomini, and a French court-martial found him guilty and sentenced him to death—a sentence which could scarcely be carried into execution while the culprit was in the camp of Alexander. Jomini behaved in the most honorable manner at this time, not only refusing to divulge Napoleon's plan of operations, with which he was thoroughly familiar, but declining to take part in the campaign against the French. Although his enemies accused him of having betrayed the French to the Russians, Napoleon emphatically denied the statement. In 1815, while visiting Paris with the Czar, Louis XVIII. conferred upon him the cross of the Order of St. Louis. He remained several years in Paris, superintending

the publication of some of his military works. In 1822 he returned to Russia, and was charged with the military education of the Grand-duke Nicholas. When his pupil ascended the throne, Jomini was attached to his person as an aide-de-camp. He participated in 1828 in the Russian war against Turkey, at the conclusion of which he retired to Brussels, where he resided from 1829 to 1853. The breaking out of the Crimean War again called him from his retirement, but he bore no particularly prominent part in that struggle, and at its conclusion returned to Brussels, and in 1863 was permitted by Napoleon III. to reside at Passy. Since that time he had been engaged upon various works of military history. He ranked as one of the most profound writers on the art of war, and his works are counted among the standard text-books. His chief publications were: "Principes de la stratégie" (3 vols. 8vo, Paris, 1818); "Vie politique et militaire de Napoléon, racontée par lui-même au tribunal de César, d'Alexandre et de Frédéric" (4 vols. 8vo, Paris, 1827); "Tableau analytique des principales combinaisons de la guerre et de leurs rapports avec la politique des états" (4th ed., St. Petersburg, 1836); "Précis de l'art de la guerre, ou nouveau tableau analytique des principales combinaisons de la stratégie, de la grande tactique et de la politique militaire (5th ed., Paris, 1838);) "Précis politique et militaire de la campagne de 1815" (Paris, 1839); "Appendice au précis de l'histoire de la guerre" (Paris, 1849).

JONES, ERNEST, an English radical journalist, reformer, and orator, born in Berlin, Prussia, January 22, 1819; died in London, January 26, 1869. He was of the old Norman stock; his father, a brave and gallant Englishman, was a major in the 15th Hussars of the Hanoverian contingent, and Ernest I., King of Hanover, was his godfather. He was very thoroughly educated, speaking and writing fluently all the the modern languages of Europe, and becoming versed in the politics of the European states, and graduated with distinction at the College of St. Michael, Luneburg. In 1841, with this superior education, and endowed with remarkable abilities, with an eloquence which to his dying day carried the masses as by storm, with the most indomitable energy, a zealous patriotism, a fierce hatred of class legislation, and an enthusiastic devotion to the cause of the common people, Jones came to England, was called to the bar, and commenced the practice of the law with great success. In 1844 he flung himself into the cause of the people, embarking in the Chartist movement with all that earnestness and impetuousness which always characterized him. The Chartist movement was taking form and character, and Jones was from the first its leader. He lectured, he conducted open-air meetings, in which by his fiery eloquence and his severe denunciations he brought the passions of the masses to fever-heat in their hatred of the aristocratic class and its oppressions; he established and edited *The People's Paper* for eight years; he wrote books and tracts, to rouse them to greater exertion; and all this without fee or reward, though he was very poor, and at times his refined and accomplished wife and his young children knew what it was to want bread. But he had entered upon this contest from no mercenary motive, only from his love of the people. At length, in 1848, taking advantage of some of his expressions, uttered in the heat of one of his most impassioned speeches, the Government arrested him on the charge of making a treasonable speech, and he was consigned to prison for two years. For nineteen months of that time he was deprived of pens, ink, and paper, and his family were suffered to starve, while his letters from them were kept back for three months at a time, and he was unable to learn whether the cholera, then fearfully prevalent, had or had not carried them off. His uncle, Hilton Annesley, being near death, sent to him in prison offering to settle on him an annuity of $10,000 per annum, if he would abandon his radical course, and the advocacy of the cause of the Chartists. Suffering both in his own person and in the fate of his hapless family, it was a great temptation; but he put it from him without hesitation, preferring to starve rather than forego his principles. Harder and sterner was the cruelty which, under the name of justice, was inflicted on him by his jailors, till even Parliament was compelled to investigate his treatment. During his confinement, he wrote a poem, "The Revolt of Hindostan," with his own blood upon the leaves of his prayer-book. It was said to have been the most eloquent of all his writings, and its polished invective excited the admiration of Mr. Disraeli, much as he disliked Jones's political views. He was discharged from prison, at last, to find his gifted wife dying of her privations and sufferings, and himself compelled to resume with broken health the old warfare. He was now, however, more discreet, though no less bitter. He had been a candidate for Parliament before his imprisonment, and was so again in 1853 and 1857, but was defeated each time. He still labored on for the people and with increasing chances of a partial success. He was not destined to see any of the reforms he sought for completely achieved, but he was cheered by the knowledge that they were approaching. He declared for universal suffrage, and he saw the number of voters in England more than doubled; for the vote by ballot, which the present Parliament will probably grant; for the disestablishment of the Irish Church, which is already ordered; for the extirpation of the English establishment, which is inevitable, and for the abolition of the House of Lords, which cannot be very long delayed. These measures, which, twenty years ago, seemed so horrible to the minds of the middle class in Great Britain, are all now advocated by many of the first men of the nation. Mr.

Jones devoted considerable attention to poetical composition from 1853 to 1860. His "Battle Day" appeared in 1855; "The Painter of Florence," and "The Emperor's Vigil," in 1856; "Beldagon Church," and "Corayda," in 1860. They are all fervid, and exhibit a high degree of poetic talent, but, like our own Whittier, the versification would doubtless have been more perfect and melodious had he not "run an opinion mill." Upon the extinction of Chartism, in 1858, he resumed practice as a barrister on the Northern Circuit. He had been a candidate in Manchester for the present Parliament, had received 10,746 votes, and, though his opponent had been declared elected, he would probably have received the seat, as that opponent was unseated for bribery. He would also have been elected for Drogheda, had his health permitted him to be a candidate.

JUKES, JOSEPH BEETE, M. A., F. R. S., an eminent geologist and writer on physical science, Professor of Geology, etc., born near Birmingham, October 10, 1811; died in Dublin, July 29, 1869. He was educated at the Grammar School, Wolverhampton, King Edward's School, Birmingham, and at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated B. A. in 1836, and M. A. in 1841. In 1839 he was appointed Geological Surveyor of the colony of Newfoundland, and returned to England the following year. In 1842 he was appointed, by the Admiralty, naturalist to H. M. S. Fly, which was then about to proceed on a surveying and exploring voyage to the shores of Australia and New Guinea. In September, 1846, he was assigned to a post on the Geological Survey of the United Kingdom, under the late Sir H. De la Beeche, the Director-General. In November, 1850, he was transferred to Ireland, as local director of that branch of the survey; and on the establishment of scientific lectureships in the Museum of Irish Industry, under Sir Robert Kane, M. D., in 1854, he was also elected Lecturer on Geology to that institution. He was the author of many valuable geological works, among which may be mentioned, "Sketch of the Physical Structure of Australia;" "Popular Physical Geology;" "The Student's Manual of Geology;" "Geology of the South Staffordshire Coal-field;" and numerous papers on geological subjects in the journals and periodicals of those societies. He was a fellow of several learned societies.

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KANSAS. The liabilities of the State government of Kansas, at the close of the year, consisting of 6 and 7 per cent. bonds of various classes, and 10 per cent bonds (Agricultural College), with outstanding State and Territorial warrants and taxes overpaid by sundry counties, amounted to $1,771,107.94; and the resources, in unpaid taxes levied in the years 1861 to 1868, with amount in treasury (Treasury Military), were $809,550.43. The total receipts from all sources during the year were, $1,335,341.05; the total disbursements during this period, $1,287,250.63, leaving a balance in the treasury of $48,091.62.

An increase of the district schools shows the interest taken in education: 335 have been added to the number during the year, showing a total of 1,707 schools. The number of male pupils, between the ages of 5 and 21 years, was 48,007, showing an increase of 7,761. The number of females of school ages was 44,510, being an increase of 8,606; and the whole number of persons enrolled in common schools, 58,681; increase for the year, 13,541. Number of pupils in select schools, seminaries, and colleges, 2,783; decrease, 615. The whole number in public schools and other institutions of learning, 61,465; increase, 14,256. The average daily attendance in public schools was 31,124, being an increase of 3,886; and the average length of time public schools have been taught is five months. Number of male teachers employed, 896; female teachers, 1,118; increase, 263. The average wages paid to male teachers, $37.07 per month; decrease, $2.49. The average wages paid to female teachers, $28.98; decrease, $12. The total amount paid for teachers' wages in public schools, $292,719.74. Increase for the year, $88,844.40. The amount raised for public schools, $565,311.17; increase, $136,095.59. The number of log school-houses, 338; frame, 606; brick, 35; stone, 224; and the total value of school bonds, $7,031,892. The number of students in the State University was 143; the library connected therewith has received and an increase of over 2,000 volumes. A valuable astronomical transit was recently donated, and an observatory-wing has also been added to the building. The Agricultural College contains 173 students, and rapid progress is taking place in all the departments.

The average number of patients in the Insane Asylum for the past twelve months was 31; and during the year the number treated was 55; discharged, 18; died, 1. The trustees estimated the annual expenses at $9,000.

The Blind Asylum contained 20 pupils in attendance during the year; two were discharged, and one died. The estimate, by the trustees, for the year's current expenses, was $8,600; building purposes, etc., $6,000. The Deaf and Dumb Asylum numbered 34 pupils in attendance during the year, and the expenses were estimated at $17,000, which included the payment of all salaries. A verbal inaccuracy arose in the recital of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the

United States, as incorporated in the resolution of ratification passed by the Legislature at the previous session; and the Governor recommended to the Legislature that the mistake should be rectified, forming as it did an important part of the fundamental law of the nation. The Governor, in his remarks, also proceeds to state that the present seems a fitting time for the removal of restrictions upon the privileges (political or otherwise) placed by the State upon citizens for participation in the late war. He said: "Probably these restrictions were justifiable, as long as the public safety demanded. The theory of the Government is to regard each citizen as an equal member of the State, vested with important and active rights, and nothing less than a consideration for public safety can justify the State in depriving any well-conducted citizen of such rights." He alludes also to the subject of assessments, and proceeds to remark that the propriety of making the assessed value of property approximate to its cash value ought to receive due attention. It is evident that a return of $100,000,000 of taxable property, with a levy of eight mills, would make a better margin for the State than a return of $80,000,000 with a levy of ten mills; the actual amount of property in each case being equal, the amount of revenue raised would be the same, and the taxes of each individual the same. Equitable distribution of taxation, provision for prompt collection, and rigid but wise economy in appropriations, will soon make the financial condition all that could be desired. Much has been accomplished in the construction and projection of railroads, and far exceeded the most sanguine expectations. A number of lines are now in progress, and the construction rapid, and the miles now in use must at least be nine hundred. The Governor says also that no other agency tends so much to the development of unsettled regions and the protection of distant frontiers, as the building of railroads. It is to be hoped the Government, in their land-grants to the State, for further railroad constructions through the undeveloped portions, may pursue a policy that will protect the poineer settlers, and yet enlist capital. The advantages already derived from those portions of the State partially developed are daily becoming more apparent, as they promote the discovery and availability of new sources of wealth—like quarries of building-stone of extraordinary quantity and quality; marbles of intrinsic beauty; mines of coal and mineral pigments of excellent quality, salt, gypsum, and numerous other commodities, the presence of which was before unknown, or but little regarded or cared for.

At Leavenworth City a railroad bridge over the Missouri River is rapidly progressing to completion. It is built in consonance with the richness and beauty of its surroundings, and of a sufficient capacity to equal the demands if the route should become one of the prominent highways of the continent, and Leavenworth the commercial emporium of the Missouri Valley.

The Governor calls the attention of the Legislature to the importance of a direct route from the interior to the sea, which will not tax the labor of the working-man seventy-five per cent., simply to furnish transportation for his products. He deems it eminently fit and proper that Congress should be memorialized on this question, asking that, as a national enterprise, the James River and Kanawha Canal, in Virginia, be enlarged and completed in such a manner as to connect the navigable waters of the Ohio and James Rivers, thus affording means of transit by water from the navigable streams of the interior to the Atlantic Ocean, without the necessity of transshipment, and without risk from climate, tempest, or an alien enemy, and at a cost for transportation vastly less than that of the present lines of communication.

The selection of public lands due the State, under the act of Congress, September 4, 1841, was made by commissioners appointed by the Executive of the State, and was approved by the Secretary of the Interior, to the amount of 495,552 acres.

Except the passage of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, the action of the Legislature was confined to matters of local interest.

The fifth article of the treaty of 1867 with the Indian Sac and Fox tribe states, "their land should be opened to entry and settlement, but subject to all the laws and regulations of the General Land-office." The amount of land ceded, in the treaty referred to, is 150,000 acres.

A diversity of opinion exists as to the production and planting of grapes. This branch of horticultural wealth has caused considerable discussion, forming, as it does, an important item in the products of the State. A well-known Western authority submitted that the planting should receive plenty of room, say, eight feet by eight feet, on elevated ground, and adds, "the Catawba grape can be successfully grown." A member of the State Horticultural Society, indorsed by several leading growers, advised the planting of those known to the initiated as "Ires," "Concord," "Crerelling," "Isabella Nortons," "Virginia," and, lastly, not to forget the "mottled." A warm, light soil is needful, well underlaid with limestone or shale.

Salt is abundantly found in every section of the State, and will form an important and staple article. Its analysis has been made by Dr. Kindell, and resulted as follows:

Chloride of sodium	98.86
Sulphate of lime	.76
Chloride of magnesium	.25
" of calcium	.13
	100.00

As a wheat-growing country, Kansas ranks prominently. The average yield last year was

greater than that of any other State in the Union, with the exception of little Vermont, which realized 16 bushels per acre against Kansas 15.6. The limestone soil is specially adapted to the culture of this cereal. Both spring and fall varieties seem admirably suited to the soil and climate.

Much interest has been manifested in the cultivation of timber known as the European larch. An investigation has clearly shown that this wood is applicable for domestic purposes, and is also much sought for buildings and railroad purposes. One hundred and fifty thousand acres of wood land are cut yearly to supply the demand for railroad sleepers alone.

Much fear has been awakened by the reckless disregard paid by settlers to the forests, and it has been suggested that an appeal should be made to the Legislature to protect them by some stringent enactment.

A woman's rights convention was held in September, but was not favorably viewed and no important action was taken.

KENDALL, Amos, LL. D., an American statesman, political leader, and publicist, born in Dunstable, Mass., August 16, 1789; died in Washington, D. C., November 11, 1869. His parents were poor, and he worked with his father on the farm until he was sixteen years old, enjoying few privileges of education. He then became anxious to enter college, and after little more than a year's preparation entered Dartmouth. Still poor, he was obliged to absent himself a large part of the time, in order to obtain means for support by teaching. With all these discouragements, however, he was graduated the first in his class. He then studied law with W. B. Richardson, of Groton, Mass., subsequently Chief Justice of New Hampshire, and in the spring of 1814 moved to Lexington, Ky. His practice not proving lucrative, he again resorted to teaching, acting for some time as tutor in the family of Henry Clay. Removing to Georgetown, Ky., he was there appointed postmaster, and there also commenced his editorial career by writing for a local paper. His writings attracted attention, and in 1816 he accepted a position on the staff of *The Argus of Western America*, the State journal at Frankfort. He advocated the measures of the Democratic party, taking also a special interest in the common schools, and securing the passage of an act to district the State and set apart one-half the profits of the Bank of the Commonwealth as a school fund. During the presidential contest of 1824 Mr. Kendall was a warm supporter of General Jackson, and, when he took the presidential chair, Kendall was called to Washington as Fourth Auditor of the Treasury. Here his influence was soon felt, and, augmented by his own natural secretiveness, he came ere long to be looked upon as the secret spring which moved the presidential pen, and perhaps, also, the presidential will. That he enjoyed the utmost confidence of President Jackson, and lent his pen to express the President's desires, is perfectly well known. When the President first concluded to take action against the United States Bank, Mr. M. M. Noah, surveyor of this port, received a note from Mr. Kendall, informing him of the tenor of the forthcoming message. This letter, slightly altered, appeared as an editorial in *The Courier and Enquirer* the next morning. When the Senate reached Mr. Kendall's name, on the list of appointments, it was very unwilling to confirm it, and when it was confirmed it was by the casting vote of the Vice-President. When the name of Isaac Hill was rejected, a long communication was published in *The New Hampshire Patriot*, calculated to make every Jackson man regard the rejection as a personal affront. There is little doubt of Kendall's being its author. When the quarrel between Jackson and Calhoun became public, General Duff Green, editor of *The United States Telegraph*, the organ of the Administration, sided with the Vice-President. Kendall foresaw the defection, and gave the President warning, and it was by his request that his old contributor, Francis P. Blair, came to Washington and established *The Globe*. In 1835 Mr. Kendall was placed at the head of the Post-Office Department. His administration here was very successful. He freed the department from debt, and induced Congress to adopt an organization which has continued with little change up to the present time. In 1835, while he was Postmaster-General, he issued his famous order concerning the United States mails. On the 29th of July, a report was spread in Charleston, South Carolina, that the mails from the North contained a quantity of abolition documents. A public meeting was called. This meeting resolved that the mail matter in question should be publicly burned. Accordingly a mob proceeded to the post-office, seized and rifled the mail-bags, but did not find any thing more incendiary than a few harmless Northern papers, which were destroyed. The postmaster at Charleston reported the occurrence to Postmaster-General Kendall. He replied in an official letter, sanctioning the proceedings. "I am satisfied," he wrote, "that the Postmaster General has no legal authority to exclude newspapers from the mails, nor to prohibit their carriage and delivery on account of their character or tendency, real or supposed. But I am not prepared to direct you to forward or deliver the papers of which you speak. We owe an obligation to the laws, but a higher one to the communities in which we live; and, if the former be permitted to destroy the latter, it is patriotism to disregard them." In his next annual report he urged Congress to pass a law, for which he framed a bill himself, forbidding the circulation in the mails of "any pamphlet, newspaper, handbill, or other printed paper or pictorial representation, touching the subject of slavery," etc. He left the Cabinet in 1840, and was no longer heard of in public life. President Polk offered him a foreign mis-

sion, but it was not accepted. In the political reaction which followed Mr. Van Buren's Administration, several suits at law were brought against Mr. Kendall by disappointed mail-contractors, whose monopolies he had so sternly resisted, in rescuing the Government from the pressure of debt they were imposing upon it. Declining to take any advantage of his official privilege, Mr. Kendall met these suits alone and at his own cost. In 1845 he became associated with Prof. S. F. B. Morse in the ownership of the telegraphic patents, and the management of the organization, which extended their benefits to all portions of our country, and to most of the countries of Europe. Unquestioned as are the merits and genius of Prof. Morse, it is not too much to say that, but for the executive ability and the far-reaching enterprise of Mr. Kendall, that great invention would have been long delayed in its extension and diffusion, and our communication with Europe and Asia, and even with our own Pacific coast, might not have taken place before the close of the present century. Mr. Kendall was a devout Christian in his private life, and took a very active interest in the prosperity of the Baptist Church in Washington. The Calvary Baptist Church, erected in 1864, was built almost entirely by his contributions, he having subscribed, at various times, about $100,000 toward its erection. After its destruction by fire in 1867, he again contributed largely to have it rebuilt, it being his intention to establish it as a memorial church to his wife. His total contributions to the church amounted to $115,000, and his contributions to the Deaf and Dumb Asylum to about $20,000. He was the founder of the Deaf and Dumb Asylum. He was the first president, and remained as one of the directors up to the time of his death. Besides the above gifts, Mr. Kendall, in the spring of 1869, gave $10,000 worth of bonds to endow two mission schools, and just before his death he gave $15,000 more for the purchase of lots and buildings. He was, for some years before his death, president of the Board of Trustees of the Columbian College, and had endowed several scholarships in that institution. In the autumn of 1865 he made the tour of Europe, continuing his journey to Egypt and Palestine, being absent about two years. His investigation of the questions of Biblical geography and literature connected with the Holy Land was very thorough, and his observations were as accurate and comprehensive as they could have been in his younger days, when friends and foes alike gave him the reputation of being the ablest and most incisive writer in Washington.

KENTUCKY. Quiet and order prevailed generally throughout the State during the year. In the early part of the summer, several acts of violence were committed in Lincoln and the adjoining counties, by marauding bands of outlaws, headed by one Henderson Gooch, whose depredations were a serious annoyance to the inhabitants of these counties. At the request of the judge and the Commonwealth's attorney of the circuit in which these disorders occurred, Governor Stephenson without delay called out the militia, both infantry and cavalry, to maintain the supremacy of the law; order was promptly restored, and several of those charged with violating the law were arrested and committed to jail for trial.

As the regular sessions of the General Assembly are biennial, and are limited in time to sixty days, unless extended by a two-third vote of all the members elected to each branch, it was deemed necessary by the Legislature of the preceding year to hold an extra session during this year; accordingly, this body met pursuant to adjournment, on the 5th of January, 1869. The session was short, and the acts were mostly of a local or personal nature. At this session the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was considered. The vote was taken on the 12th of March, which resulted in the rejection of the measure by 27 nays to 6 yeas in the Senate, and 80 nays to 5 yeas in the House. An important measure of this session was the provision for raising money in support of the common schools of the State. The bill provided for the levying of a tax of fifteen cents on the hundred dollars, to be devoted exclusively to school purposes, and for the submission of the question to a vote of the people of the State. Notwithstanding the proposed assessment was three times greater than any previous tax for a similar purpose ever before submitted to a popular vote in Kentucky, the measure was carried at the election by a majority of twenty-five thousand votes. A bill was also passed providing for the establishment of a House of Reform for Juvenile Delinquents. Pursuant to the provisions of this act, a location for the institution was selected in Jefferson County, and a tract of land containing two hundred and thirty acres was purchased at a cost of $20,000. The work is now under contract, and the buildings will be completed and ready for the reception of subjects by the 1st of September, 1870.

The political canvass opened with the Republican State Convention, which assembled at Lexington, on the 27th of May. Ex-Attorney-General James Speed presided over the convention. The only candidate chosen was one for the office of State Treasurer, for which Mr. E. R. Wing received the nomination. The convention adopted the following platform:

Resolved, That we regard the inaugural of President Grant as eminently wise and sound, and pledge ourselves to support him in administering the General Government upon the principles therein announced.

Resolved, That we heartily recommend the ratification of the fifteenth amendment, believing that it will eminently conduce to the peace and welfare of the country.

Resolved, That the fundamental principle of the Republican party—equal rights under the law—is ap-

proved by us, and we pledge ourselves to continue our support of this great truth.

Resolved, That we denounce the wanton extravagance of the State government, which has so embarrassed the finances of the State as to make additional taxation necessary; the unequal administration of the laws, which has made life and liberty so precarious in the State; and that we pledge the Republican party to a reform in this matter which will restore health to the finances, and give protection to all in their rights.

Resolved, That the national debt, occasioned and necessitated as it was by the rebellion, aided in the salvation of the nation, is sacred and inviolate, and its payment should never be questioned in any wise whatever.

Resolved, That we claim the admission of the black population of this State to the right of testifying in our State courts in all cases whatsoever, upon the same terms accorded by law to other classes of citizens. We claim this as an act of justice to our most helpless people, and because it is right.

At the Democratic Convention, subsequently held, Mr. J. W. Tate was chosen as the opposing candidate for the office of State Treasurer. The election was held on the first Monday in August, when 82,607 votes were cast for Mr. Tate, and 24,759 votes for Mr. Wing—Mr. Tate being elected by a majority of 57,848.

The General Assembly met at Frankfort, on the 6th of December, when H. P. Leslie was elected as President of the Senate, and J. H. Bunch as Speaker of the House. This body was composed of 36 Democrats and 12 Republicans in the Senate, and 92 Democrats and 8 Republicans in the House. In view of the fact that the term of Thomas C. McCreery, in the United States Senate, would expire in 1871, it became necessary to elect a United States Senator at this session. This matter was taken up early, when a spirited and protracted contest ensued, in which Governor John W. Stevenson and Senator McCreery, the present incumbent, were the prominent candidates. The contest resulted in the election of Governor Stevenson, who received on the last ballot 117 votes—67 being necessary to a choice.

The finances of the State are in a sound and prosperous condition. The receipts for the fiscal year ending October 10, 1869, were $678,505.70, which, with the balance of $587,199.68 in the Treasury at the beginning of the fiscal year, amounted to $1,265,705.38. The expenditures for the year were $908,921.26, which, deducted from the preceding sum, left a surplus in the Treasury on the 10th of October, 1869, of $356,783.42; which, added to $902,552.08, the amount of outstanding loans made by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund, increases the amount standing to the credit of the State to $1,259,335.50. The amount of the State debt on the 10th of October, 1869, was $3,307,177.52, including bonds dedicated to the school-fund, and not now redeemable, to the amount of $1,648,288.52, which, deducted from the preceding amount, reduces the State debt proper to $1,658,894. This indebtedness of the Commonwealth consists of—

6 per cent. bonds which have matured and are outstanding	$33,394 00
5 per cent. bonds due and outstanding	10,000 00
6 per cent. bonds maturing in 1870 and 1872	1,120,500 00
Military bonds maturing in 1895	336,000 00
5 per cent. bonds maturing between 1871 and 1878	160,000 00
Total	$1,658,894 00

The amount of the stocks held by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund was $1,287,858.46, which, with the surplus in the Treasury, together with the loans made by the commissioners, gives a balance in favor of the State over its outstanding indebtedness of $888,294.96.

Of the loans here referred to, the principal item is the amount of $840,849.55 due from the revenue department proper to the State. The annual current revenue of the State has been insufficient for years past to meet the ordinary necessities of the State government. To supply these deficiencies from time to time, the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund were empowered by various legislative enactments to make the advancements to the revenue department which were to be returned to the Sinking Fund. The first of these loans was made in the year 1861. This insufficiency of the revenue has resulted from a thoroughly defective system, the provisions of which are incongruous and inconsistent. Many subjects, which should be assessed, and which would yield a large income, have escaped taxation altogether by reason of not having been on the revenue lists; while many of the items on the lists are not taxed in proportion to the value of other property. In some portions of the Commonwealth, property is assessed by a specie, in other portions by a paper standard. The revenue has also been weakened by unequal valuations of property, and by a failure in some instances to collect taxes due. The attention of the last Legislature was called to this subject, with the view of effecting a thorough revision of the present revenue laws.

The charitable and reformatory institutions of the State are in good condition. The enlargements and improvements which have been made in several of these institutions during the year afford greatly-improved accommodations for the comfort of the unfortunate inmates.

The number of convicts in the Penitentiary, at the close of 1869, was 650; 84 more than there were at the close of the preceding year. During the year, efforts were made for the introduction of changes and improvements in the prison system. A plan was proposed for classifying and separating the convicts, and for giving the convict on his restoration to liberty a portion of his surplus earnings. The provision made by the Legislature, at its extra session in the beginning of the year, for the establishment of a House of Reform for Juvenile Delinquents, is intended to withdraw from the Penitentiary the younger class of offenders.

A committee of three was also appointed to visit the prisons of other States, and make a report upon the whole subject of prison dis-

cipline, with a view of introducing needed improvements into the prisons of Kentucky.

The question of the power of a State to tax United States bonds for State purposes came up during the year in the County Court of Jefferson County, and a decision was rendered by Judge Hoke. This was the first case testing the constitutionality of the act of the General Assembly of Kentucky, passed in March, 1867, providing for the taxation of the income derived as interest on United States bonds.

The defendants, the Louisville City National Bank, claimed that the act of the Legislature was in violation of the Constitution, that it impaired the obligation of contracts, that it was double taxation, and not uniform.

Judge Hoke, after remarking that "this case brings for the first time before the courts the constitutionality of the power of a State, through its Legislature, to tax the interest of United States bonds for State purposes," gave a full review of the law bearing upon the point at issue, showing that the act of the Legislature was constitutional.

Affirming the principle that "the taxing power is inherent in sovereignty, and must, upon the supposition that the States are sovereign, belong to them, unless it can be shown that they have surrendered it," he said: "Every species of property located in a State, except such as is owned by the United States, is subject to the sovereign power of the State, and the power of the State exists, by virtue of the authority inherent in the State itself, not subject to the control of the General Government. The right of taxation exercised by the State over all property belonging to corporations or individuals is older than the Government, and a sacred right, to be restrained only when in conflict with the carrying into effect some power belonging to the General Government. The Federal Government is the creature, and the States the creator—the Union being supreme only in such powers as have been delegated. In denying this you deny the sovereignty of the States, making them mere creatures of the Union, holding the same relation to the Government that the counties bear to the State." In the case above referred to, the court said: "If the right were conceded to the General Government to limit or control taxation in the States, it would involve the power to prohibit their collection, and the power to prohibit involves the authority to render the power to raise the revenue necessary for the support of the State Government useless, if not impossible."

Holding that national banks, although incorporated by Congress, are protected by and subject to State law, the judge, in closing, said: "I am unable to see any illegality or unfairness in the enforcing of the act of the Legislature. I find it as a law, and am not willing, because of some mere inconvenience to the national Government, to decide the act unconstitutional."

The General Assembly, having determined to test the constitutionality of the Civil Rights Bill, counsel were employed, and two cases involving the validity of the act have been carried to the Supreme Court of the United States for decision. At present there is no law in Kentucky requiring the registration of births and marriages, the statute for this purpose having been repealed about the beginning of the war. The medical societies throughout the Commonwealth having urged the enactment of a similar law, the matter was brought before the last Legislature.

During the year improvements have been effected, and others are in progress on various land and water lines, which will give greatly-increased facilities for travel and the transportation of freight. In railroad matters an important event of the year was the formal opening of the Louisville and Cincinnati Railroad, which event was celebrated at Louisville on the 28th of June. The length of the road is 106 miles, and the running time between the two cities five hours.

One of the National Commercial Conventions was held at Louisville, Ky., commencing on the 13th of October. For an account of its proceedings, *see* the article on COMMERCIAL CONVENTIONS.

Since the war, a growing need has been felt in Kentucky for labor and capital, to promote the material prosperity of the State; and the subject of immigration as the best means of accomplishing this end has been increasing in interest and importance. The attention of the last Legislature was called to this matter by the Governor, in order that some system might be adopted, either of coöperating with other Southern States, or of acting alone, for disseminating information in Europe showing the material resources and the industrial advantages of the State, and the good feeling of its citizens toward immigrants. It was suggested to the Legislature, that Kentucky might establish a conjoint agency with Virginia, West Virginia, and Tennessee, for the purpose of preparing accurate statements embodying the social, political, and industrial statistics of these States, to be translated and published in the various languages, and distributed among the different nations of Europe, in order to remove any prejudice or error in regard to the country and people of the South, that might exist in the minds of emigrants before their departure for America. The rich deposits of iron-ore and the vast coal-fields of Kentucky need but the aid of the capitalist and the laborer to make them a source of wealth and revenue to the State. Toward this end efforts have already been made, and greater will be made in the future.

KING, JONAS, D. D., an American Congregationalist clergyman, and missionary to Greece, born in Hawley, Mass., July 29, 1792; died at Athens, Greece, May 22, 1869. He was fitted for college under the instruction of Rev. Moses

Hallock, of Plainfield; graduated at Williams College in 1816, and at Andover Seminary in 1819. Receiving ordination at the close of his seminary course, he was employed some months as a missionary in South Carolina. In 1821, at the founding of Amherst College, he was named Professor of Oriental Languages and Literature; and to prepare himself for this office he repaired to Paris, his expenses being paid by private friends. While sojourning in that city he received, by letter, an urgent invitation from Rev. Pliny Fisk, of the Palestine mission, to go to his aid in establishing the mission at Jerusalem. Relinquishing his connection with the college at Amherst, Mr. King offered his services to the American Board for three years, and, through the liberality of friends, started without loss of time for Malta, and reached Jerusalem in April, 1823. Having completed his three years, he left Beirut on the 26th of September, homeward-bound, going overland to Smyrna. Remaining several months at Smyrna, he improved the time by studying the modern Greek language. After reaching Boston, early in the autumn of 1827, he was for a time employed in promoting the missionary cause in the Northern and Middle States. Meanwhile Greece had been desolated by Turkish and Egyptian armies; and the Philhellenes of this country were sending supplies to the starving inhabitants. Mr. King was invited, by a committee of ladies, to go out in one of the vessels loaded with supplies, and assist in their distribution. He did so, and arrived at Paros in July, 1828. On the 22d of July, 1829, he married, on the island of Tenos, a young Greek lady of a respectable family in Smyrna. Mr. King was reappointed a missionary of the Board in December, 1829. He had previously visited Athens, and made arrangements for residing there; and removing thither early in 1831, after the Turks had vacated the place, he became one of the earliest settlers. Soon after this, he received the degree of Doctor of Divinity from the college at Princeton, N. J. Before leaving Syria, he had addressed a "Farewell Letter" to his friends in that country, stating the reasons why he did not become a Roman Catholic. This letter, translated, with some additions by Mr. Goodell, into the Armenian language, found its way to Constantinople, where it attracted the attention and awakened the interest of influential Armenians, who at once assembled a national council, in which the abuses there exposed were discussed and severely censured, and measures were adopted for their removal. This farewell letter was circulated, in modern Greek, by Dr. King; and it became, with others of his publications, in 1852, the basis of a prosecution against him in the criminal court at Athens; where, under the pressure of great popular excitement, he was condemned, against law and justice, to confinement for fifteen days in a loathsome prison, and, after that, to expulsion from the kingdom of Greece. Owing to the vigorous protests of our Government and the efforts of American citizens when in Europe, his confinement was but for a single day, and the sentence of banishment was not carried into effect. Dr. King was a man of indomitable energy and equal to the noblest of the reformers. In a single year he distributed more than seven hundred copies of the Scriptures in Greece. Prior to 1857, he had translated into modern Greek, and printed, five volumes of the American Tract Society's publications, making a total of two thousand five hundred pages. At his private expense he also published four volumes of his own works in that language. As an Oriental scholar he was of the first rank, and as a missionary his zeal and devotion were unsurpassed.

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LABORDE, Léon Emmanuel Simon Joseph, Comte de, a distinguished French archæologist and traveller, born in Paris, June 12, 1807; died there, March 21, 1869. He was the son of Alexandre de Laborde, known for his devotion to the arts. After studying at the University of Göttingen, he visited Egypt at the age of twenty-one, and from thence undertook the exploration of Arabia Petræa in conjunction with M. Linant. Being an expert draughtsman, he filled his portfolio with sketches, and on his return to Europe, in 1830, commenced the publication of his observations, under the title of "Voyage de l'Arabie Pétrée." The success of this work induced him to embark in another enterprise, and the "Voyage en Orient" appeared in 1838–'55. The history of the fine arts next attracted his attention, and in 1839 he commenced a "Histoire de la Gravure en Manière Noire, et son Application à l'Imprimerie." Subsequently, he published "Recherches sur la découverte de l'Imprimerie," 1840; and "Le Procès de Guttenberg à Strasbourg," 1841. Upon the death of his father, in 1840, he succeeded to all his honors. In 1841 he was elected a deputy, and the following year took his place in the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles-Lettres. In 1847 he was appointed Curator of the Antiquities in the Louvre, a position which he held until the Revolution of February, 1848, when he was thrown out of office, but on the 10th of December regained it, and had placed under his care the monuments of the Renaissance and modern Sculpture. After a journey into the Netherlands, he published a catalogue of the artists of that country, and also a work intended to show the state of the arts in France and the Low Countries in the Fifteenth Century, under the Dukes of Burgundy, under the title "Les Ducs

de Bourgogne." In April, 1847, he was promoted to be an officer of the Legion of Honor; and was a member of the commission to the Great Exhibition in London in 1851. In consequence of differences with the administration, he resigned in 1854 his position as Curator of Antiquities at the Louvre, and was appointed Director-General of the Archives of the Empire, in 1856. A short time before his death he was elevated to the Senate. His latest works were: "La Renaissance des Arts à la Cour de France," which was to be completed in four volumes 8vo., but only three had appeared at his death; "L'Union des Arts et de l'Industrie," 2 vols.; and "Inventaires et Documents publiés par Ordre de l'Empereur." Besides these, M. de Laborde communicated numerous articles to the *Revue Archéologique*, the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and other periodicals.

LAMARTINE, ALPHONSE MARIE LOUIS PRAT DE, a French poet, historian, and statesman, born at Macon, October 21, 1790; died in Paris, February 28, 1869. His family name was Prat, but he adopted that by which he was best known on the death of his uncle Lamartine, who left him his name and a considerable legacy. His father had been a cavalry major under the monarchy, and had married Mlle. Alix de Roys, daughter of the Duke of Orleans's Intendent-General of Finance, and granddaughter to one of the under-governesses of the duke's family. During the Reign of Terror, both his father and mother were imprisoned at Autun, and only escaped the guillotine by the death of Robespierre. After that event they occupied a small farm-house at Milly, near Macon, and young Lamartine received his early education from his mother, of whose gentle manners and loving instruction he has preserved some pleasant reminiscences in his "Confidences." In 1805 he was sent to the college at Lyons, and soon after transferred to the Jesuits' school of the "Fathers of the Faith," at Belley, where he remained till 1809. It was at this period that he formed that attachment for his young neighbor Elvira which he has made classic in the history of Graziella, in "Les Confidences." His parents, to divert him from this attachment, sent him first to Paris and then to Italy. He remained abroad for a considerable time, and, soon after his return, in 1814, entered the army of the Bourbons, which he did not quit until the close of the "Hundred Days." He had already made some essays in the way of poetry, and several of his early dramas were regarded by Talma as full of promise. It was not, however, till 1820 that Lamartine took an acknowledged rank as a poet of the first order. In that year appeared his "Méditations Poétiques," including numerous pieces which at once gave him national fame, from the evidence they displayed of commanding genius and the force with which they struck some of the most sensitive chords in the breasts of his countrymen. The volume had an immense sale, no fewer than forty-five thousand copies having been bought by the public in the space of four years. But it did more for its author than merely give him literary reputation. It opened to him a diplomatic career, and he was appointed *attaché* to the French embassy at Naples. On his way thither he spent some time in Geneva, and renewed his acquaintance with Miss Birch, a young English lady of brilliant talents, a superior artistic education, and considerable wealth, whom he had met the previous year in Savoy, and who was strongly attached to him. The acquaintance ended in a mutual affection and in his marriage, and Madame de Lamartine made him one of the best of wives. After his marriage he became successively secretary of the embassy at Naples and at London, and afterward *chargé d'affaires* in Tuscany. During all this time Lamartine was enabled to live in splendid style, his wife having brought him a considerable fortune, to which were added the profits arising from the sale of his works; but he did not neglect to cultivate the muse, although several of the productions he published at this period were not considered equal to his earlier poetic efforts. Like all poets who have seen her sunny skies, and felt the inspiration of her grand monuments of the past, he loved to sing of Italy; and in one of his poems, deploring the decadence that had overtaken the country, he employed certain expressions descriptive of the Italians, which led to a duel between him and Colonel Pépe, in which he was dangerously wounded. Toward the close of his stay in Italy appeared his "Harmonies Poétiques et Religieuses," in which he stood forth as the brilliant and ardent defender of the religion and government, and which had the effect of adding immensely to his already great renown. This was in 1829, in which year he returned to France, and was elected a member of the French Academy. On the outbreak of the Revolution of 1830, advances were made to him by the new government; but these he declined, his self-respect, as he said, forbidding that he should take office under the monarchy which had supplanted that he had all along been serving. He became a candidate, however, for a seat in the Chamber of Deputies, but failed to obtain it, the result of which was that, dismissing politics for a time from his mind, he resolved to gratify a wish he had long felt, of visiting the East. The book in which Lamartine relates his travels in the East has obtained a world-wide fame, despite its extravagances, occasional inelegancies, and frequent geographical errors, and it well deserves its great reputation, for never before had poet travelled under such conditions, and never before had traveller described, with such poetic power, the varying scenes and incidents of journeyings by sea and land. Lamartine went to the East in his own vessel, equipped and armed by himself. He took his wife and his daughter with him; he had a splendid

library on board; and he furnished himself with a number of elegant presents for the chiefs he intended visiting. He travelled through Asia Minor in princely style, and passed through a number of striking adventures, all of which are given in his book. Unfortunately, he lost his daughter, who died at Beirût, which sad event hastened his return to France, where, during his absence, he had been elected to a seat in the Chamber of Deputies. In this new sphere he very soon distinguished himself, taking a prominent part in the debates in that body, his speeches being all characterized by the spirit they breathed of a love of liberty, justice, and tolerance, as well as by the eloquence that marked their style and delivery. The subjects upon which he most frequently and forcibly dwelt were such as the abolition of capital punishment, the Eastern question, defence of literary studies, projects of law relative to social assistance, etc.; and in discussing them he aimed perpetually, as the great end of his pleadings and efforts, at infusing the spirit of Christianity into the legislation of his country. Meanwhile he still vigorously pursued his literary studies, and in 1835 published the well-known account, already alluded to, of his Eastern travels. About the year 1837 Lamartine began in the Chambers to form a party, which was for several years known as the Social party, the main object of which was to promote the progress of the country by improving, through the employment of moral agencies and the wise development of its natural resources, the condition of the whole body of the people of France. The seeds sown by that small party have certainly borne some good fruit. His influence in the Legislature being considerable, he was, in 1844, offered a portfolio by Louis Philippe, but this he declined, and gradually drew nearer and nearer to the party opposed to the policy of M. Guizot, until, at length, he became completely identified with the movements which led eventually to the overthrow of the citizen king, a result to which his famous work, the "History of the Girondins," is believed to have materially contributed. This great work, which at first appeared as a serial in one of the Parisian journals, and was published in eight volumes, 8vo, in 1847, does credit alike to the genius and republicanism of its author. The part played by Lamartine during the period that succeeded the flight of Louis Philippe furnishes one of the most striking pages in the exciting history of revolutionary France. Never, perhaps, has eloquence so successfully vindicated the magical power attributed to it, as it did in the case of Lamartine during the Paris troubles of 1848, when he not only swayed the Senate by his powerful oratory, but tamed and held under control the fiery spirits of the mob. That was the grandest moment of his life, when the infuriated mob which surrounded the Hôtel de Ville, recognizing in the poet-statesman its master, yet unwilling to be controlled, clamored, with its ten thousand voices, for the adoption of the red flag as the future standard of revolutionized France. No man in France knew better than the historian of the Girondins the terrible significancy of that cry; for the red flag had been the symbol of the Reign of Terror. Stepping forward, boldly but calmly, upon the balcony of the Hôtel de Ville, and looking with the utmost self-possession upon the ruffianly and brutal masses below, some of whom were at that moment aiming their rifles at him, he said, in a voice so distinct that every one of the surging crowd understood each word: "No! for myself, I will never adopt it. The tri-colored flag has made the circuit of the world with the republic and the empire, with your liberties, and your glories: the red flag has only made the circuit of the *Champ de Mars*, trailing in pools of human gore. *Vive la tri-color!*" Touched by his enthusiasm, and lifted by it, for the moment, out of their brutality, the mob took up his cry, and shouted, "*Vive la tri-color!*" till they were hoarse. He was in reality the founder of the provisional government, which was the first step toward the Republic which he desired should succeed the fallen monarchy; but his moderation and conservatism did not long content the restless masses, who desired anarchy and the reënactment of the scenes of 1793. Yet, for a time, he was the most popular man in France. He accepted the post of Minister of Foreign Affairs in the provisional government, and by his brilliant and carefully-worded manifesto to foreign powers contributed greatly to win their confidence in the new republic, which their vivid recollection of the terrors of 1793 had led them to regard with hostility and fear. Such was his popularity at this moment that, although he had not expressed a wish to be a candidate for the Constituent Assembly, he was returned by eleven different departments, among them that of his birthplace. Through all the trying scenes of those days, however, he remained steadfast in his defence of the cause of law and order, stoutly resisting those excesses to which the people, in their temporary madness, were only too inclined to run. It was singular, nevertheless, that the cause of his downfall should have been the suspicion that he was conspiring, with Ledru Rollin, to give the ascendency to the Red Republicans, whose influence he had thus far been seeking to thwart. He opposed and personally fought against the insurgents of the June insurrection, but his power over them was gone, and he resigned his own executive office and favored the dictatorship of General Cavaignac. At the election for President in the autumn of 1848, he received only 19,900 votes, though ably supported by Pelletan and La Guéronnière. At the election of 1849, not one of the eleven departments, which a year before had so eagerly voted for him, chose him to the Legislative Assembly, and he only obtained a seat in the Chamber in a subsequent partial election.

from an obscure district where he was personally unknown. His influence in the Chamber was but slight, and even his eloquence produced little effect. At the time of the *coup d'état* (December 2, 1851) he withdrew finally from public life. He was at this time poor, although nominally the possessor of large tracts of territory in Turkey, and the recipient of a considerable income from his works. He had lived extravagantly, and was deeply in debt. A large subscription was raised for him both at home and abroad by his friends; but it was not sufficient to lift the burdens which oppressed him, and he checked it, and went resolutely to work to endeavor to raise the amount by his literary labor. But he was already past sixty years of age, and, though he wrote voluminously, his writings were mostly of ephemeral character, and lacked the freshness, the grace, and the brilliancy of his earlier compositions. He prepared a collected edition of his works, and appealed to the public to purchase them to relieve him from embarrassment; he put his estates into repeated lotteries, in which he urged all his friends to participate, and his later years were spent largely in querulous complaints against the public for their ingratitude to their benefactor. About a year before his death, the Emperor offered to discharge his debts, amounting to about one hundred and twenty thousand dollars, without exacting any conditions from him, but the old republicanism of the poet led him to refuse this offer, which seemed really to have been kindly intended. The death of his wife, in 1863, rendered him more unhappy than before, and he indulged in strange vagaries, forgetful, at times, of his own grand and noble career. His works, besides those already named, were his beautiful poem, "Jocelyn," 1835; "The Fall of an Angel," 1838; "Poetical Miscellanies," 1839; "Three Months of Power," 1848; "History of the Revolution of 1848," two volumes, 1849; "Les Confidences," 1869; "Toussaint l'Ouverture," a dramatic poem, 1850; "The New Confidences," 1851; "Genevieve, the Memoirs of a Savant," 1851; "The Tailor of St. Point," 1851; "Graziella," 1852; "History of the Restoration," six volumes, 8vo, 1851–'63; "New Voyage in the Orient," 1853; "Visions," 1852; "History of Turkey," six volumes, 8vo, 1854; "History of Russia," two volumes, 1855; "The Counsellor of the People," 1849–'50; "The Civilizer," 1851; "Familiar Course of Literature," 1856–'63. His complete works, collected by himself, published 1860–'69, number about thirty uniform volumes.

LIBRI-CARUCCI DELLA SOMMAIA, Guglielmo Brutus Icilius Timoleon, Count de, an Italian mathematician, professor, author, and bibliophile, born in Florence, January 2, 1803; died at Fiesole, near Florence, September 28, 1869. He was the son of the Count Libri-Bagnano, who several years later, after some not very creditable adventures, escaped from the prison at Lyons, and became from 1825 to 1830 the secret agent of the King of the Netherlands in Belgium. The son was well educated at Florence and Pisa, and early developed a remarkable talent for mathematical studies. In 1820, at the age of seventeen, he published an extraordinary memoir on the "Theory of Numbers;" in 1823 another on some points in Analytic Geometry; in 1826 one on the General Resolutions of Undetermined Equations of the First Degree; and in 1826 a volume on "Physical Questions." He had been appointed a professor in the University of Pisa in 1822. In 1830 his political views, which he enunciated with great freedom, and his participation in the unsuccessful insurrection of that year, made him obnoxious to the Austrian Government, and, through its influence, he was compelled to seek safety from arrest by flight to France, where, through the friendship of Arago, he was introduced into the circle of science. In 1833 he was naturalized as a citizen of France, and was elected the successor of Legendre in the French Academy. He secured the friendship of Guizot and many other eminent men, though his first friend, Arago, turned against him. Honors were bestowed upon him in abundance; he was made a professor at the Sorbonne, a professor at the College of France, and, after he had given in his adhesion to the *doctrinaire* party, he was appointed to the chair of Analysis in the Faculty of Sciences in Paris, and charged with the functions of Inspector General of Public Instruction, of newspapers, and of the public libraries of France. He received the decoration of the Legion of Honor, and became editor of the *Journal des Savants*. Possessing remarkable capacity for intellectual labor, and great industry, Libri accomplished in the fifteen years that followed a vast amount of work. His "History of the Mathematical Sciences in Italy from the Renaissance up to the end of the Seventeenth Century," four volumes, 1838–'41, is a work of great erudition and ability, and will always be the standard history of those sciences for that period; but it excited the displeasure of Arago and some of the French mathematicians because it demonstrated that what they had claimed as original with them had been known two centuries before in Italy. He also published during this period four very remarkable treatises on the higher mathematics. Turning his attention also to matters connected with his official position, he published "Letters on the Clergy and the Liberty of Instruction," and "Recollections of the Youth of Napoleon." He was also at this time editor, not only of the *Journal des Savants*, but of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and a constant contributor to the *Journal des Débats*, and wrote largely on bibliographic subjects. His patrimony and his official positions had made him wealthy, but this and his somewhat sarcastic and haughty temper had also gained him many bitter enemies; and, when he proposed through M. Guizot to give

his magnificent library, very rich in Italian books, especially of history and science, to the French nation, on condition of its being preserved together as the Libri Collection, his enemies began to circulate the report that he had availed himself of his position of Inspector of Public Libraries, to steal the most valuable of the books which he now proposed to give to the nation. Meantime the revolution of 1848 was drawing near, and, just on the eve of it, a report, bearing the signature of M. Boucly, *procureur du Roi*, was drawn up, bearing date February 4, 1848, and sent to M. Guizot, charging him specifically with the theft of numerous valuable works from certain libraries of Paris and other cities, and demanding his trial on those charges. M. Guizot, during the two or three stormy weeks of insurrection which followed (the overthrow of Louis Philippe occurred, it will be remembered, February 22–24, 1848), had no leisure to take any action in regard to this report, and the document was found on file with his other papers at the sacking of the Foreign Office. Libri, meantime, as a strong adherent of Louis Philippe, was threatened with political vengeance, and, like the King, was compelled to take refuge in England. Then followed his trial in his absence, the seizing of his library and effects, his condemnation, in default, to ten years' imprisonment and to be forever incapacitated from holding office. Knowing the bitterness of his foes, Libri did not trust himself in France, but he protested against the injustice of this judgment, and demonstrated that the most valuable books he was charged with stealing were either still in the libraries from which they were alleged to have been taken, or had been taken from them and sold to the British Museum or other collections before he came to France. He also twice or three times sold collections of books at auction in London containing most of those books, and appended to their titles in his catalogue sworn copies of the receipted bills of the second-hand dealers of whom he had bought them. But he was never able to obtain any redress from the French Government, and those who advocated his cause were punished. In England, he was generally believed innocent. The cloud under which he rested broke down his spirits, and deprived the world of the labors of one of the finest and clearest intellects of modern times. He had commenced years ago the Life of Galileo, but could not bring himself to complete it.

LINCOLN, HEMAN, an eminent citizen and philanthropist of Boston, Mass., born in Hingham, Mass., January 7, 1779; died at Boston August 11, 1869. He was favored with a careful early training under pious and judicious parents, and in 1793 removed to Boston and was apprenticed to a carpenter, whom he served till his majority. When about twenty years of age he was converted and became connected with the Second Baptist Church, of which he was subsequently for a time one of the deacons. With no desire or taste for political life, he was urged by his fellow-citizens to accept of positions of honor and responsibility in the State government. He served at different times in both Houses of the Legislature, and in 1820 was a member of the convention for the revision of the State constitution. In 1827 he joined a colony from the Second Church in the formation of what is now the Clarendon Street Church, Boston, of which he was immediately constituted a deacon, holding that office until his death. After years devoted to mechanical pursuits, he entered into a prosperous mercantile connection, under the firm name of Jackson & Lincoln, widely known for its fair and honorable reputation. For several years Mr. Lincoln was president of the American Baptist Home Missionary Society, and, as early as the commencement of the mission to Burmah, entered with his whole soul into the cause of foreign missions, of which he was ever after a liberal supporter. In 1824 Mr. Lincoln was elected Treasurer of the Baptist General Convention, an office which he held twenty-two years, rendering invaluable gratuitous service. In 1833 he visited, by appointment from the Board and at his own expense, the Cherokee Mission, then in North Carolina, and became warmly interested in the evangelization of that tribe. He was one of the founders of the Newton Theological Seminary in 1825, and was for many years a trustee of that institution as well as of Brown University. From 1846 to 1848 he was chairman of the Executive Committee of the American Baptist Missionary Union. In all these positions of responsibility, as well as in his every-day life, he was held in the highest estimation for his strict integrity of character and thorough devotion to the cause of truth and justice.

LITERATURE AND LITERARY PROGRESS IN 1869. Whether we regard the number or the quality of the books published in the United States during the last year, we can speak of progress only in a somewhat equivocal sense. The production of books has been less active and less profitable than it was during the year preceding, and the number of them that take high rank in the scale of literary appreciation is proportionately less.

The causes of this depression are doubtless the same that affect other departments of business. Special reasons are to be found in the effect of the tariff as it now stands to favor the foreign book-manufacture at the expense of the American trade, and the increased prominence of newspapers and periodicals as sources of literary nutriment to the mass of readers. As these publications have gained in strength and in solid literary and scientific value, they more completely satisfy the mental cravings of their readers, and in the same proportion diminish the disposition to purchase books. This form of competition with the

book-trade is not without its compensations, for it cannot be but that the appetite for books is stimulated in many cases by the same means that dulls it in others. The increasing tendency on the part of book-publishers to have each one or more periodical organs of communication with the public seems to imply on their part no dread of injury by one branch of their business to another.

The diminished product of books may be due in part also to the draft made on the mental energies of the American people by the important public and social questions demanding attention. It is a very common complaint that many of our best men are apathetic on our most pressing public interests. Yet it must be that a large amount of study and thought is given to matters of this sort. To the pressing political problems bequeathed by the civil war, which are nearly concluded, have succeeded those of revenue and taxation, of protection and free trade, of woman's suffrage and other assumed rights of the sex, and the semi-political, semi-ecclesiastical issue respecting common-schools. The difficulty is not that important matters are neglected, but that the best thought of the community is brought only so indirectly into relation with its governing forces. What thinking is done on this class of subjects finds expression for the most part in periodical publications or on the platform, and leaves less indices in our record of authorship than it is entitled to by its intrinsic weight.

The absence of an international copyright, besides its effect on the higher order of literary productiveness, introduces an element of uncertainty into the publishing-business. The defect of the law has been partially remedied by the courtesy of the trade, according to which priority of announcement by any house secured to that house an exclusive right to republish the book announced. This right was strengthened by an agreement with the foreign author for a share of profits. It is true that this principle was never quite strong enough to prevent competition for the profits of any book sure of a very large sale. Some pretext could always be found, as, for example (to refer to a well-known incident), virtuous indignation at liberties taken with Lord Macaulay's spelling, a wrong which was expiated by an edition of his History that deviated from Macaulay's system of orthography as often as that system differed from the standard of *Worcester's Dictionary*. During the past year there have been several instances of misunderstanding between leading publishing-houses on their respective rights in the works of popular English authors. The result has been to multiply editions, to reduce prices, and to stimulate sales of their works, thus giving additional effect to a mistaken copyright policy, in subjecting American authors to an unequal competition. The effect of such rivalries on the interests and morals of the trade, it would scarcely be in place here to discuss.

Our first and chief attention in this review will be given, for obvious reasons, to the consideration of works that are the product of American authors. Other books published here, however valuable and improving to their readers, are no part of American literature, to the progress of which they contribute only indirectly. And, beginning with a department of writing in which our country early gained an honorable distinction—

I. Historical Works.—We find the field still cultivated with success. In the class of works on the colonial and earlier history of America, a prominent place is due to Mr. Francis Parkman's "Discovery of the Great West." The part played by France in American discovery and colonization was a happily-chosen theme, which Mr. Parkman has treated with admirable diligence, against discouragements and with much well-deserved applause. "The New England Tragedies in Prose," by R. H. Allen, apologetically reviews the relation of the government of Massachusetts to the early Quakers and to the witchcraft delusion. These and other related matters are ably treated in "Lectures on the Early History of Massachusetts, delivered before the Lowell Institute." "The Spanish Conquest of New Mexico," by W. W. H. Davis, comes within this division of the subject, as does also the first volume of "The Documentary History of Maine," containing "History of the Discovery of Maine," by J. G. Kohl; as also some reprints of old works, for example, "A Plain History of the Pequot War, by John Mason, with Introduction and Notes, by Thomas Prince," "The Sailing Directions of Henry Hudson," and "Laws and Ordinances of New Netherlands," by E. B. O'Callaghan. Among the records of our Revolutionary history, the "Memoirs of the War in the Southern Department of the United States," by General Henry Lee, has deservedly held a high place, but of late years has been out of print. A new edition, edited, with a Life of the Author, by his son—*that* General Lee whose abilities made the victory of the Union cause in our late struggle to be dearly purchased—restores to circulation a book that we "would not willingly let die." Lossing's "Pictoral Field Book of the War of 1812" has the unique combination of history, topography, etc., which gave such deserved popularity to his previous books. The third volume of "The Life and Times of James Madison," by William C. Rives, completed a biography which is equally a history, the interest of which includes the period of the Revolution, the forming of the Constitution, and twenty-five years of the Government of the United States. "Mexico and the United States," by G. D. Abbott, contributes to more recent history. Materials for the history of our civil war continue to accumulate, as they must continue doing for some time before the history that posterity will accept can be written. Of this class, Mr. Benson J. Lossing's third volume

completes his "Pictorial History." Another valuable work is the "History of the Seventh Regiment National Guards, State of New York, during the War of the Rebellion," by William Swinton; and, if the author just named will pardon the collocation, we may mention Mr. Raphael Semmes's "Memoirs of Service Afloat;" the chivalrous nature of his service, his warfare on unarmed vessels, is but too well remembered. Here belong the records of those benevolent societies by which the hardships of the soldiers' lot were mitigated, such as "Incidents of the United States Christian Commission," by the Rev. E. P. Smith, a volume supplementary to the more complete "Annals of the Christian Commission," by the Rev. Lemuel Moss, published in 1868; and, an "Historical Sketch of the Soldiers' Aid Society of Northern Ohio." Recollections of our Antislavery Conflict," by the Rev. S. J. May, aids in recalling the prologue to the great tragedy. Several able pens are understood to be engaged on the same theme, whose works may be expected to have place in a future record of progress.

Passing to Old World history and to that of a higher antiquity, we notice "Prehistoric Nations," by the Hon. J. D. Baldwin, a work of historical speculation, to which the praise of originality cannot be denied, but which rather opens than concludes the questions it offers to investigate; "Ancient States and Empires," by John Lord, LL. D., an outline for schools and for popular reading; "Manual of General History," by John J. Anderson; "Carthage and Tunis, Past and Present," by A. Perry; "The Queen of the Adriatic, or Venice, Past and Present," by W. H. D. Adams. "The Great Empress," by M. Schele de Vere, a portrait of the Empress Agrippina, hovers on the boundaries between history and historical fiction.

Of what may be termed special histories several have appeared during the year, of much merit. Such are the admirable "Studies in Church History," by H. C. Lea; the "History of American Socialisms," by J. H. Noyes, a complete view of a curious subject; Rev. J. F. Hurst's readable translation of Hagenbach's "History of the Church in the Eighteenth and Nineteenth Centuries," with additions; Dr. R. Anderson's masterly work on "Foreign Missions," ripe fruit of nearly thirty years' service as a Secretary of the American Board; and Judge Amos Dean's "History of Civilization," volumes 1–6. To these may be added "Pictures from Prison Life, an Historical Sketch of the Massachusetts State Prison," by G. Haynes; "Baptist History," by J. M. Cramp —not an American author, but, though he is of the Dominion of Canada, his work was originally published here, and thus fairly enters into American literature—in which the subject is treated in a way that is generally acceptable to the denomination concerned; "A Half Century with Juvenile Delinquents," by B. K. Peirce, an important contribution to reformatory literature; a revised and enlarged edition of the "Early History of the Catholic Church on the Island of New York," by J. R. Bayley; and perhaps its relation to the history of improvements in the arts would place here the "Biographical History of Clermont, or Livingston Manor before and during the War of Independence, with Sketches of the first Steam Navigation of Fulton and Livingston." Including local histories, among which the "History of Vermont," by Hiland Hall, deserves particular mention; works auxiliary to history, like the "Modern Historical Atlas," by W. L. Gage, the plan of which is excellent, the execution less so; reprints of antique tracts, school compilations, etc., about forty titles come under the head of history and materials of history.

II. Biography.—We have given two or three biographies a place among historical works. Perhaps there was as much reason to place in the same category "The Military Services and Public Life of General Sullivan," by T. C. Amory; the "Reminiscences of James A. Hamilton," and "The Life of Jefferson Davis, with the Secret History of the Southern Confederacy," by E. A. Pollard; though the latter has some title to a place among works of the imagination. The first volume of the promised "Life of Daniel Webster," by George Ticknor Curtis, appeared, and fully met the public expectation. "The Life of J. J. Audubon, the Naturalist," edited by his widow, is a delightful record of a unique career. But among the most valuable contributions to this department of writing in 1869 were clerical biographies. Rev. Dr. Sprague has given us another volume of his "Annals of the American Pulpit," including the ministry of the Lutheran, United Presbyterian, and (Dutch) Reformed Churches. "The Life of the Rev. Samuel Miller, D. D.," by Samuel Miller, and that of the Rev. Joseph Addison Alexander, D. D., by H. C. Alexander, somewhat tardily commemorate two eminent professors in the Princeton Theological Seminary. Both works, the latter especially, have the disadvantages inseparable from the composition of biographies by the near kindred of the subjects. "The Life of the Rt. Rev. George Burgess, D. D.," first Bishop of the Diocese of Maine, records a life of such choice culture and unobtrusive goodness as makes the biographer's task especially difficult. The "Memoir of Jared Sparks," by George E. Ellis, D. D., is also a record of a quiet scholar's life, though its beginning was in the atmosphere of theological polemics. "The Life and Letters of Fitz-Greene Halleck," by James Grant Wilson, revives a half-forgotten literary career with something of the old enthusiasm. Also "The Life and Letters of Mrs. Elizabeth Seton," by her grandson, Rev. Dr. Seton. "The Life of Gerard Hallock" is of interest, from the place long occupied by the subject in connection with

the newspaper press of New York. Including autobiographies (as of John Neal and P. T. Barnum) and contemporary biography (as of Father Hyacinthe), and excluding juveniles, about thirty works find a place under this head.

III. POETRY.—Of new poetry there was little of a high order produced on this side the Atlantic. "The Blameless Prince and other Poems," by E. C. Stedman, and "Poems Lyric and Idyllic," and "Alice of Monmouth," etc., by the same author, sustain the reputation won by former publications. "The Cathedral," by James Russell Lowell, though written for publication in 1870, got into circulation within the period under review. It was received with a unanimity of applause which will hardly represent the maturer critical judgment of the world, though it must be confessed to be the crowning gift of the Muses to us for 1869. A collected edition of Mr. Lowell's poems and of Mr. Whittier's appeared, as also a holiday edition of Whittier's "Ballads of New England," and of Mr. Longfellow's "Building of the Ship." Complete editions of Longfellow's Poems, and of Edgar Allan Poe's, were issued. The Poems of C. G. Halpine, edited by R. B. Roosevelt, have an interest as the memorial of a stirring time and a man of versatile genius, but will doubtless fail to claim permanently the attention of the public. "Vagabonds, and other Poems," by J. T. Trowbridge, brings together pieces that have gained popularity as they appeared in the pages of periodicals. They show a lively fancy, fine feeling, and grace of expression; they please, and, if they do not testify for the author "the vision" and the artist-power, they come very near it. "The Woman who Dared," by Epes Sargent, has passages of poetry in it, but it is mainly a novel in somewhat careless verse, with a polemic intention. Mr. C. G. Leland continues to give us Breitmann Ballads in the Pennsylvania Dutch dialect, and, as long as the public do not tire of reading, why should he of writing? Mention should also be made of the Poems of Mrs. Embury; "Titania's Banquet," etc., by George Hill; "A Chaplet of Leaves, by Jeanie G.," a promising beginning of authorship; "Western Windows," etc., by J. J. Piatt, a volume which gave the author a very favorable introduction to the reading public; and "Beautiful Snow, and other Poems," by J. W. Watson. In all, we count nearly fifty volumes of verse, a few of them new editions, or collections of original and selected poems.

IV. PHILOSOPHY.—Mental Philosophy has so prominent a place in the courses of liberal study in this country that it is pretty certain to be represented in literature. At the same time, the circumstance that the chief cultivators of the study are persons engaged as teachers in our colleges determines the form and direction of the philosophy. A reader of the periodical press finds traces of the modern materialistic scheme which tends to identify psychological and physiological activity in man. But our seats of learning offer little hospitality to such ideas. During the past year several works have appeared in the department of speculative philosophy. "The Science of Thought," by Professor Charles Carroll Everett, is a brilliant exposition of the Hegelian logic. For a metaphysical treatise the style is remarkably vivid. Professor Thomas C. Upham has prepared and published a carefully-revised edition of his "Mental Philosophy." The "Principles of Psychology," by Professor John Bascom, is the contribution of a forcible and independent thinker to the science. His style runs too readily into the pictorial and figurative cast of expression, making his statements less determinate and apprehensible than if the light were drier. "Studies in Philosophy and Theology," by Professor Joseph Haven, is a volume divided nearly equally between the two branches of science named in the title. The philosophical articles are more critical than speculative, but they are the criticisms of a strong and patient thinker. "Two Letters on Causation and Freedom in Willing, with an Appendix on the Existence of Matter and our Notions of Space," by Rowland G. Hazard, add to our stock of original speculation much in weight though comparatively little in bulk.

In books in the department of Ethical Philosophy an important contribution was made in "The Law of Love, and Love as a Law, or Moral Science Theoretical and Practical," by President Mark Hopkins. He has been claimed (or disclaimed) as an advocate of utilitarianism. But his real position is that of a reconciler of systems. In his view it is impossible "to construct a complete system of morals that is either wholly intuitional or wholly teleological." "Moral Philosophy, or the Science of Obligation," by President J. H. Fairchild, nearly coincides in its theory with that of President Hopkins. Fichte's "Science of Right," translated by Kroeger, is of course "intuitional."

V. SOCIAL SCIENCE AND REFORM.—Prominent among the topics covered by this general title is the emancipation (as it is called) of woman, including her enfranchisement. The advocates of this social revolution among us seem very generally to have decided that the burden of proof is on their opponents, and that their own function is merely to criticise the arguments proposed against them, which is most effectively done on the platform or through the newspaper press. The books that treat or touch upon the question are nearly all on one side. "Woman's Suffrage, the Reform against Nature," by the Rev. Horace Bushnell, though not very effective upon the reformers he argues against, commands the respectful attention of the non-combatant majority who will finally decide the matter. "The True Woman," by the Rev. J. D. Fulton, advocates

the same side of the question, with more warmth and less cogency. "The Feminine Soul," by Elizabeth Strutt, and "Man and Woman, Equal but Unlike," by J. Reed, and "Woman: Her Rights, Wrongs, Privileges, and Opportunities," by L. P. Brockett, deal with the subject, if not with the dispute. On topics more or less directly implicated in this question, important books are, "Essay on Divorce and Divorce Legislation," by President T. D. Woolsey, a careful record of facts, exposition of great principles, and a testing of our laws by means of them, and "Moral Reforms suggested in a Pastoral Letter," by the Rt. Rev. A. C. Coxe. "History and Philosophy of Marriage, or Polygamy and Monogamy Compared, by a Christan Philanthropist," seriously argues for Polygamy on both religious and humane grounds. The temperance reform has called out a reprint, for general circulation, of Mr. Parton's articles inquiring, "Will the Coming Man drink Wine?" and "Does it pay to Smoke?," both which questions Mr. John Fiske has answered affirmatively, and cleverly argued for that conclusion in his "Tobacco and Alcohol." The movement for the abolition of capital punishment is represented by "Christ and the Gallows, or, Reasons for the Abolition of Capital Punishment," by M. H. Bovee. A contribution of importance to the intelligent study of our financial problems is the Hon. E. G. Spaulding's "History of the Legal-Tender Paper Money issued during the War of the Rebellion." Bastiat's "Essays on Political Economy," translated, is a contribution to the rising discussion of the protective system. Questions now essentially settled—let us hope—are presented in diverse points of view, in Rev. Gilbert Haven's "Sermons, Speeches, and Letters on Slavery and its War," in the inexhaustibly witty "Tribune Essays," by Charles T. Congdon, and in "Conservative Views; the Government of the United States, What is it?" A kindred topic is treated in "The Chinese in California," by D. Cleveland. "A Chapter of Erie," by C. F. Adams, Jr., has an interest reaching beyond the immediate subject to the larger concerns of legislative and judicial purity. "Popular Amusements," by the Rev. J. T. Crane, and "The Dance of Modern Society," discuss the subject of amusement and recreation as related to culture and the moral welfare of society—the latter with exceptional vigor of argument and serious and witty invective. "Public Education in the City of New York; its History, Condition, and Statistics," by Thomas Boese, directs attention to an interest now increasingly prominent in the consideration of the public. And finally, the "Journal of Social Science," containing the transactions of the American Association for the Advancement of Social Science, a society which is doing the country good service, is a repository of papers, thus far, of the highest practical value.

VI. Travels.—Books of Travel, Adventure, and Exploration, have been, if less numerous, not less important and valuable in character than in 1868. The opening of the Pacific Railroad drew visitors across the continent, and gave an impulse to the record and publication of what was seen. Mr. Samuel Bowles gave us "The Switzerland of America, or, A Vacation in Colorado," besides embodying the substance of former books in "Our New West." "The New West, or, California in 1867," by C. L. Brace, though in some of its statements obsolete since the opening of the railroad, has a value as history, photographing a state of society some features of which are in a way to be "improved off." "The Sunset Land," by Rev. J. Todd, D. D., and "The Yosemite Guide-Book," by J. D. Whitney, also deserve mention. "A Winter in Florida," by Ledyard Bill, and "A Guide-Book of Florida and the South," by D. G. Brinton, M. D., have an interest for invalids and intending emigrants. "Adventures and Explorations in Old and New Mexico," is a guide out of the beaten track. "Across America and Asia," by Professor Raphael Pumpelly, has gone rapidly to a third edition, an evidence of public appreciation well deserved. "Travels in the East-Indian Archipelago," by Prof. A. S. Bickmore, combines the interest of scientific research with that of stirring personal adventure and of exploration in an unfamiliar region. "Our New Way Round the World," by C. C. Coffin, has the dash of an enterprising newspaper correspondent, and narrates in unfailing good-humor, if not always in the best taste, the victories of a Yankee over time and space. "Notes in England and Italy," by Mrs. Hawthorne, does not need that its independent merits should be reënforced by associations with the memory of our peerless romancer. Mr. Bayard Taylor's "By-Ways of Europe" attracts by its unworn topics, though the views have less of the transparent and achromatic character belonging to the author's earlier works. "Our Admiral's Flag Abroad," by J. E. Montgomery, commemorates the remarkable cruise of Admiral Farragut in 1867-'68. The Hon. G. M. Dallas's "Letters from London," though not without interest, fell below expectation. "The Letters of a Sentimental Idler, from Greece, Turkey, Egypt, and the Holy Land," by Harry Harewood Leech, not only describe, but reproduce, the spirit of Oriental life. There were less than the usual number of books made out of the stereotyped "grand tour" and the Guide-Books, but, though less than thirty in all represent the activity in this popular class of books, it will be seen that the quality is highly respectable.

VII. Physical Sciences.—In this department the number of original works, exclusive of school text-books, is not large. Prof. J. P. Cooke's "Principles of Chemical Philosophy," and the "Manual of Organic Chemistry," by C. W. Eliot and F. H. Storer; "Our Own Birds; a Familiar Natural History of the Birds

of the United States," by W. L. Bailey, edited and revised by E. D. Cope; "Prize Essays on the Physical Indications of Longevity," by J. V. C. Smith and J. H. Griscom; Dr. B. A. Gould's "Military and Anthropological Statistics of American Soldiers," and "The Physiology of Man," by Austin Flint, Jr.; "The Annual of Scientific Discovery"—a publication which annually improves (as there was need) in the selectness and sterling value of its contents—are the principal. To these we may add, "One Great Force the Cause of Gravitation, Planetary Motion, Heat, Light" (etc.), by Crisfield Johnson; "Physical Media in Spiritual Manifestations," G. W. Samson, D. D.; "Planchette, or the Despair of Science," by Epes Sargent, and "Wonders of the Deep," by M. Schele de Vere, a popularizing of science with a mixture of the poetical and the fabulous. The popular interest in descriptive science is mainly gratified, it will be seen, by the reproduction of European books.

VIII. Theology and Religion. — A complete list of publications embraced under this comprehensive title, especially if those intended for juvenile readers were included, would be remarkable for the variety of literary merit exhibited, and as an indication of the mental attitude of a large part of the community. It has been justly observed that the wide circulation of some religious books, impossible to be accounted for by their scanty literary merit, is evidence that they are prized for their religious character alone, a fact of some significance to those who imagine that religious faith is dying out.

Beginning with books of Biblical Exposition and Criticism, we notice the completion (vols. 2 and 3) of Rev. A. Barnes's "Notes on the Psalms;" Dr. Henry Cowles's commentary on Jeremiah; "The Gospel in Enoch," by H. H. Tucker; Lange's commentary on Romans, and the volume on Proverbs, Ecclesiastes, and the Song of Solomon; Dr. Noyes's excellent Translation of the New Testament; Lillie's learned Lectures on First and Second Peter; Dr. A. Nevin's "Popular Commentary on Luke;" "Closing Scenes in the Life of Christ" (Harmony), by D. D. Buck; "Moses, a Course of Lectures," by R. A. Hallam; Rénan's "St. Paul," translated (not in the best manner) by J. Lockwood; L. R. Paige's commentary on the New Testament, vol. 6—Ephesians to Jude; "Old Testament Shadows of New Testament Truths," by the Rev. L. Abbott; "The Overture of Angels," by H. W. Beecher; "The Wise Men; who they were and why they came to Jerusalem," by F. W. Upham, a thoroughly-studied monograph; "Companion to the Bible," by E. P. Barrows, D. D.; "The Primeval World of Hebrew Tradition," by Dr. F. H. Hedge; Winer's "Grammar of the New Testament Diction," edited by Lünemann, a revised translation by Professor J. H. Thayer; Smith's "Dictionary of the Bible," edited by Professor Hackett and Mr. Ezra Abbot, vols. 2 and 3; "Studies in Bible Lands," by W. L. Gage.

Of works in the department of Didactic and Polemic Theology we mention the Sermons of Rev. F. C. Ewer on the "Failure of Protestantism," which are more memorable for the controversy they excited than for their intrinsic claims to attention, though they show considerable literary skill; the effective discourses of the Rev. G. B. Bacon on "The Sabbath Question;" the new, revised edition of "The Apostolical and Primitive Church," by the Rev. Lyman Coleman, a polemic under severely didactic forms; "Living Questions of the Age," by the author of "The Philosophy of the Plan of Salvation," and "The Doctrine of the Holy Spirit, a Philosophy of the Divine Operation in the Redemption of Man," by the same author — treatises which show something of the power indicated in the book by which the author first became known, but "following it afar off;" "The Divine Human in the Incarnate and the Written Word, and Some Thoughts on the Atonement older than the Creeds," by "a Member of the New York Bar," marked by vigor of style, but more adapted to popular impression than to aid in the critical investigation of its topics; "The Oneness of the Christian Church," by Rev. Dorus Clarke; "A Doctrinal and Ritualistic View of the Holy Eucharist," by the Hon. George S. Lacey; "The Church Catechism Verified by Holy Scripture," by Rev. William Schouler, Jr.; "The Inspiration of Scripture," by F. L. Patton; "Congregational Church Polity," by A. Fleming; "Christ and the Bible, not the Bible and Christ," by Rev. W. A. Muhlenburg; "Bible Handbook Theologically arranged," by Rev. F. C. Holliday; "The Secret of Swedenborg," by Henry James—nearly as close a secret as before—with the mystery of Mr. James added; "Spirit Mysteries Revealed," by Andrew Jackson Davis, and "The Question Settled: a Comparison between Biblical and Modern Spiritualism," by Rev. M. Hull. To this head may be reduced volumes of sermons, including two volumes by Rev. H. W. Beecher; a volume by Rev. Charles Wadsworth; "Sermons in Grace Church," by the late Rector, Rev. T. H. Taylor, D. D.; Sermons of Bishop S. Elliot, of Georgia, with Memoir; — of Bishop L. L. Hamline, with Memoir by F. G. Hibbard; "Every-day Subjects in Sunday Sermons," by Rev. R. L. Collier; "The Marriage of the King's Son, and the Guilt of Unbelief," by W. James, with Memoir.

Some important Apologetic works have appeared: "Evidences of Christianity," by Pres. Dodge; "Studies in the Evidences," etc., by S. G. Bulfinch; Bishop Clark's "Primary Truths of Religion;" Fénelon's "Conversations on the Truth of Religion," with "Letters on the Immortality of the Soul and the Freedom of the Will," translated by A. E. Silliman; "Credo: The Supernatural in the Bible,"

anonymous, but ascribed to Prof. Townsend, of the Boston Theological Seminary; "Evidences of Natural and Revealed Theology," by Charles E. Lord; "Man in Genesis and Geology," by Rev. J. P. Thompson.

Of Devotional and Practical Works, we notice, a compilation of "Devotional Thoughts of Eminent Divines," by D. A. Harsha; "Mizpah, or Friends at Prayer," by L. C. Loomis; "A Garden of Spices," selections from Rutherford's Letters, with an Essay by A. C. George; "Jesus on the Holy Mount," by J. Sanderson, D. D.; "The Christian Worker, a Call to the Laity," by Rev. C. F. Beach; "The Christian Pastor," an excellent treatise on Homiletics and Pastoral Theology, by Prof. J. M. Hoppin; "Sermons on the Lord's Prayer," by H. A. Worcester; "The Holy Communion," by Dr. Morgan Dix; "He that Overcometh," by W. E. Boardman; "The Perfect Man, or, Jesus an Example of Godly Life," by Rev. H. Jones; "God's Thoughts Fit Bread for Children," by Dr. Horace Bushnell.

IX. MEDICINE.—Under this head we note fewer publications than were recorded last year, though the discrepancy may be more in our enumeration than in the number actually published. Among the principal may be mentioned, "A Treatise on Diseases of the Eye," by J. Soelberg; "Sleep and its Derangements," by W. A. Hammond; Maxson's "Practice of Medicine;" Paine's "Practice;" "Diseases of Children," by A. Vogel (translation); "Structural Lesions of the Skin," by H. F. Damon; "Compend of Materia Medica and Therapeutics," by J. C. Riley; "On Intraocular Tumors," by H. Knapp; "Percussion and Auscultation as Diagnostical Aids," by C. Hoppe (translated); "Pathology of Bright's Disease," by W. B. Lewis; T. G. Stewart on the same subject; "On the Wasting Diseases of Infants and Children," by E. Smith; "Causes of Infant Mortality," by J. W. Thrailkill; "Lectures on the Study of Fever," by A. Hudson; "Electricity in its Relations to Practical Medicine," by Meyer, translated, with additions by W. A. Hammond; "Family Adviser," by H. Hartshorn; "How to Bathe," etc., by E. P. Miller.

X. LAW.—Besides reports of judicial decisions, some important treatises appeared during the year. "Law of Carriers, of Telegraph Companies, of Innkeepers, and of Bailments," by Isaac F. Redfield; Sherman and Redfield "On the Law of Negligence;" Parsons "On the Law of Shipping and the Law and Practice in Admiralty;" D. Roberts "On Admiralty and Prize;" Hilliard's "Law of Real Property" and "of Injunctions;" Abbott's "Digest of the Laws of Corporations;" "The Bankrupt Law of the United States, with Rules, Forms," etc., by E. C. Brightly; Parsons's "Laws of Business for all the States of the Union, with Forms and Directions;" G. T. Curtis's "Equity Precedents;" an enlarged edition of Redfield's "Law of Railways;" treatise on "The Laws of Set-off, Recoupment, and Counter-Claims," by T. W. Waterman; "Manual of Practice in the Circuit Courts of the U. S.," by A. A. Boyce; "Court Rules of the U. S. Supreme, Circuit, and District Courts," by J. H. Bissell; Abbott's "U. S. Practice;" "Law and Practice in Bankruptcy," by E. Bump; "American Commercial Law," by F. Chamberlin; "Manual of the Laws of Massachusetts on Manufacturing Corporations," by S. Bachelder, Jr.; "Lectures in Harvard Law School and Dartmouth College," by Joel Parker; "Treatise on Proceedings in the U. S. Courts," by J. A. Murray; Angell's "Law of Water-Courses," edited by J. C. Perkins; "Official Opinions of the Attorneys-General of the United States;" "Everybody's Lawyer," by Frank Crosby. Besides these and Digests of Precedents, there were books of local interest on the duties of justices, supervisors, etc.

XI. ART AND THE ARTS.—Art proper is scantily represented. "Art Thoughts," by J. J. Jarves; "Sacred and Constructive Art, its Origin and Progress," by C. N. Otis; "Civil Architecture," by E. Shaw, with "Treatise on Gothic Architecture," by T. W. Silloway; "The Identification of the Artisan and Artist, the Proper Object of American Education," by Elizabeth P. Peabody, are the principal. The Arts may, for the purpose of this review, include the useful and ornamental, and, speaking generally, the practical arts of life. Books of technical instruction on a large variety of topics, from farming to chess-playing, will find place.

Leroux on the "Manufacture of Worsted and Corded Yarns," translated by H. Paine and A. A. Fesquet, and "Chemistry applied to Dyeing, with Fesquet's Chemistry of Coal Tar Colors;" "Manual of the Hand Lathe," by E. P. Watson; "Painter and Gilder and Varnisher's Companion;" Loring and Jenny's "Principles and Practice of Architecture;" "Practical Treatise on Portland Cement;" "The National Architect," by Woodward and Thompson; Clarke's "New Method for Reed Organs;" Strübe's "Drum and Fife Instructor;" Prof. Welch's "Physical, Intellectual, and Moral Culture" (Gymnastics, etc.); "Naval Architecture and Ship Building," by Commander Meade, U. S. N.; "The Metallurgy of Iron and Steel, Theoretical and Practical," by H. L. Osborne, LL. D.; Prof. G. C. Caldwell's "Agricultural Qualitative and Quantitative Chemical Analysis;" "Long and Short Span Railway Bridges," by J. A. Roebling; "Iron Truss Bridges: Method of calculating Strain," etc., by Brevet-Colonel W. E. Merrill, U. S. A.: "Manual of the Mechanics of Engineering, vol. I. Theoretical Mechanics," by Julius Weisbach, Ph. D., translated by E. B. Coxe; Wallen's "Service Manual for newly-commissioned Officers and the Rank and File;" Arnold's "Notes on Horses for Cavalry Service;" "Earth Closets —How to make and use Them;" by E. Waring, Jr.; "The Carpenter and Joiner;" "On Seats and Saddles, Bits and Bitting," by F.

Dwyer; "Elements of Tachygraphy," by D. N. Lindsley, a new system of short-hand; "American Chestnuts;" "How to Treat the Sick without Medicine," by J. C. Jackson; "The Greenhouse as a Winter Garden," by F. E. Field, with a preface by W. C. Bryant; "Pictures of Edgewood," by Mitchell, with Photographic Views; "On the Wing, a Book for Sportsmen;" "Hunter's Guide and Trapper's Companion;" "Mental Photographs," an Album, edited by R. Saxton; "Ten Working Designs for Catholic Churches;" "Specimens of Fancy Turning executed with the Hand and Foot Lathe, by an Amateur;" Scott's "Fishing in American Waters;" "Velocipedes, and how to use Them;" "Base-Ball Guide;" "Gun, Rod, and Saddle, by Ubique;" a "Treatise on the Teeth of Wheels," translated from the French; Ludden's "Thorough Bass;" "Farm Implements and Machinery," by J. J. Thomas; Courtney's "Farmer's and Mechanic's Manual;" "The Philatelist's Album;" "Manual of the Railroads of the U. S.," by H. V. Poor; M. de Chateller's "Railway Economy," translated by L. D. B. Gordon; "The Carpenter's and Builder's Guide," by P. W. Plumer; "How to become a Successful Engineer," by B. Stuart; "Formulas for the Strength of the Iron Parts of Steam Machinery," by J. D. Van Buren, Jr.; Quinn's "Pear Culture for Profit;" an enlarged edition of Downing's "Fruits and Fruit-Trees of America;" "Dictionary of Manufactures, Mining, Machinery, and the Industrial Arts." We have given these titles barely and somewhat indiscriminately, because most of the books are known to us only by the titles.

XII. Classical and other Text-Books.—Of Latin classics we have the "Æneid of Virgil," edited by N. C. Brooks; the first Six Books, edited by Prof. Searing, with a Vocabulary, and the same Books by Chase and Stuart; an Epitome of Latin Grammar, and J. T. White's Latin-English and English-Latin Dictionary. In Greek, Boise's Homer's Iliad, the first Six Books, and Grammars, one by W. H. Waddell, the other a compilation from Hadley's Grammar by an anonymous author. To the study of German, Prof. Whitney has contributed a Grammar and a Reader. Worman's "German Echo," Evans's "German Reader," Preu's "First Steps in German," and Grauert's "German Manual," claim mention. In French, Gasc's "Pocket Dictionary," a translator of English into French. Other text-books are Loomis's "Elements of Astronomy," Drew's "Manual of Astronomy," and White's (C. J.) "Elements of Theoretical and Descriptive Astronomy;" Roscoe's "Lessons in Elementary Chemistry;" "A New Arithmetic on the Unit System," by C. P. Buckingham; Lossing's "Grammar-school History of the United States;" Walker's "First Book of English Grammar;" Wiley's "Elocution and Oratory;" "The Model Speaker," by Prof. Philip Lawrence; Griffith's "Drill-Book of Elocution and Oratory;" "A Treatise on Logic," by A. Schuyler; "A Two Hours' Course in Standard Phonography."

XIII. Novels.—The year gave us a novel by an author new to this field of letters, "Malbone, an Oldport Romance," by Colonel Higginson, and a new novel by a veteran who had been supposed to be reposing on her laurels, "Oldtown Folks," by Mrs. Stowe. "Fair Harvard," a college novel, has attempted to do for our most ancient university what Mr. Hughes has done for Rugby and Oxford. Among novels of a secondary order of merit, a high place must be assigned to "Hitherto, a Story of Yesterdays," by Mrs. A. D. T. Whitney. But, in general, for satisfaction in this sort of reading, we fall back on the standard British novelists, and, after Dickens, upon the two or three late writers for whose stories our publishers emulously compete. Some French and German novels have been translated, and met with a hearty welcome. Those of Erkmann and Chatrian, from the French, of which two, "The Conscript," and "Waterloo," appeared within the year, and those of Spielhagen, from the German, by Prof. Schele de Vere, deserve particular mention—the former, for their simple truth to nature and history and their pure moral tone; the latter, for vehement, sometimes lurid passion, and the evident mental power they indicate. Less powerful but more pleasing and immediately popular are the novels of Auerbach, of one of which, "The Country House on the Rhine," there have been rival translations and editions. Rev. Edward Everett Hale has collected "The Ingham Papers," a volume of those short stories for which he has shown a peculiar talent. Whether the concentration of his inventive powers on the fuller development of a plot would secure for him success as a novelist equal to that he has earned as a story-teller can only be determined by experiment.

Miscellaneous.—It remains to speak of some books not reducible under any of the heads of our review. "The Dodge Club," a very humorous travesty of the Grand Tour, mingling racy wit with riotous fun and burlesque; "The Innocents Abroad," by Mark Twain, to the same purpose; "Five Weeks in a Balloon," translated from the French, an equally amusing take-off of African discovery and adventure; "Men, Women, and Ghosts," by E. Stuart Phelps, author of "The Gates Ajar," the popularity of which was probably relied on to float a volume made up of previously published sketches; "Five Acres too Much," by R. B. Roosevelt, turning the laugh on amateur farmers and believers in the dogma that "ten acres are enough;" Colonel Higginson's "Army Life in a Black Regiment," and Miss Alcott's "Hospital Sketches," each excellent in its kind and both valuable pictures of less-known features in the late war; "Sybaris and other Homes," by E. E. Hale, a unique combination of fact and fancy for a good purpose; "Adventures in the Wilderness, or Camp Life in the Adirondacks," by

W. H. H. Murray, a volume full enough of "life," but accused of resorting to the long-bow at times. "The Brawnville Papers," by Moses Coit Tyler, a lively and sensible plea for physical culture; J. Esten Cooke's "Hilt to Hilt, or Days and Nights in the Shenandoah," the story of a Confederate; "Evenings with the Sacred Poets," by Frederick Saunders, a work deeply interesting to all lovers of sacred song; "Home Pictures from the English Poets," a meritorious compilation for the young; "The Comic History of the United States," by J. D. Sherwood, amusing, though the jest is on a large scale; Mrs. Ellet's "Court Circles of the Republic," a sort of book always popular, when skilfully done; "Essay on Professional Ethics," by George Sharswood, a book for lawyers, from one of high rank in the profession. An edition of the prose writings of R. W. Emerson is a noteworthy event. Mr. R. H. Dana, Jr., has revived a long-remembered pleasure by a new edition, with additions, of his "Two Years before the Mast." "The Literature of the Age of Elizabeth," by E. P. Whipple, and "Lectures and Essays," by Henry Giles, are works of standard merit. A fourth volume of the Orations and Speeches of Edward Everett will be received with a pensive satisfaction by the admirers of his eloquence.

Here also should be mentioned some works of general reference: "The American Year-Book and Annual Register," edited by D. N. Camp, a work meant to occupy a place similar to that formerly maintained by the "American Almanac," and which is certainly a creditable beginning; McPherson's (standard) "Political Manual," a revised and Americanized edition of Haydn's "Dictionary of Dates," a very useful book, with room for still more revision and adaptation to American wants; "Zell's Popular Cyclopædia," in course of publication, a comprehensive work, containing much information in a highly condensed form—in fact, attempting so much as to make some deficiency and error almost unavoidable. Just begun, near the close of the year, a work of admirable promise, Lippincott's (Thomas's) "Biographical Dictionary." For extent, accuracy, and serviceableness for reference, it bids fair to excel all similar works that have preceded it.

"The Mississippi Valley," by J. W. Foster, LL. D., is rich in information, and there is considerable ingenious theory and speculation furnished by the way. "The New World compared with the Old," by George Alfred Townsend, is a good plan inadequately executed. The increasing summer resort to watering-places and rural retreats, from the cities, makes the guide-book an American necessity. Harper's "Guide-Book to Europe and the East" and Appletons' "Short-Trip Guide-Book" lead the list. Taintor's Guide-Books are twenty in number. "The Summer Tourist's Pocket Guide-Book to American Watering-Places," etc., by E. B. Hall, compacts much information within very small compass. "The Yosemite Guide-Book," and "Historical Sketch and Resources of Montana, with a Business Directory of the Metropolis," offer information relative to the new West. The last approaches more the character of the statistical almanac, of which an Oregon press furnishes a specimen in "McCormick's Almanac for 1870," with full statistics of Oregon, Washington, Idaho, and Montana. This class of publications increases in number and value from year to year. Each religious denomination has its annual publication; almanacs of political information and statistics issue from several leading newspaper offices, as the "Tribune Almanac," and "The World Almanac," and the Albany "Evening Journal Almanac." Prof. Schem's "Eclesiastical and Educational Almanac" contains an amount of valuable information such as merits a more attractive form.

In illustrated Gift-Books there has been for a year or two a declining interest. This cannot be the result of a growing dissatisfaction with their quality, for that has noticeably improved. It is probably in part a mere matter of fashion, in part due to improvement in the style of book-making generally, and to the greatly-increased use of pictorial illustration in popular works. Some of the most successful, in fact, of the holiday issues are equally suitable for gift or purchase at all seasons, and are noticed in other connections—such, for example, as "The Universe," by Pouchet; "The Ocean World;" Mr. Beecher's "Overture of Angels;" Rev. L. Abbott's "Old Testament Shadows;" and Mr. Mitchell's "Pictures of Edgewood." Besides these there are several that deserve particular mention: "The Goethe Gallery," by F. Pecht; Shakespeare's "Midsummer Night's Dream," with silhouette illustrations; Miss Alcott's "Concord Sketches;" "The Bryant Homestead Book," by Julia Hatfield, and illustrated editions of Mrs. Browning's "Lady Geraldine's Courtship," and of Miss Phelps's "Gates Ajar."

The number of Juvenile Publications increases from year to year. The union and denominational publishing houses give more attention to this branch of their business, new publishing firms give it their exclusive or principal attention, and long-established houses find it profitable to compete for youthful patronage. It were well if it could be said that our writers for the young are reaching a higher average of merit. It is to be feared that the pressure of demand leads to a hurried supply. And yet it is undoubtedly true that there is an improvement on the whole in the character of juvenile books, due to the fact that the quality of books republished and imported serves to make good the defects of native productions. Such a book as Napier's "Tommy Try, and what he did in Science," or the volumes in the Illustrated Library of Wonders, translated from the French, or the translation of Saintine's "Dame Nature," or the beautiful fictions of

Hans Christian Andersen (his fairy stories especially) and Björnsen, of which good versions are published, go far to redress the balance against us. At the same time, not to do injustice to our own authors, it may with truth be said that *the best* of our home-grown children's books are equal to any that come from abroad. The brothers Abbott, J. T. Trowbridge, T. Bailey Aldrich, W. T. Adams (Oliver Optic), Miss E. S. Phelps, and others that might be named, have a well-earned popularity with young readers.

Reprints and republications of English books, and of English translations from foreign languages, we have thus far intentionally excluded from consideration, though they form not only an important element in the book-trade, but a scarcely less considerable portion of our literary aliment. They are not properly a part of American literature. Yet, as they cannot but have a very appreciable influence in the intellectual development of the people, we are interested to notice the nature of that influence. It is safe to say that in no previous year have the republished books included so large a proportion of works of a high character. There has been a special activity in the reproduction of standard literature. Popular editions of the works of Scott, Dickens, Thackeray, Reade, Mrs. Lewes (George Eliot), and of the British Poets—Chaucer, Milton, Dryden, Herbert, Pope, Cowper, Beattie, Thomson, Goldsmith, Burns, Scott, Wordsworth, Moore, Campbell, Mrs. Hemans, Keble—of some of them competing editions—if purchased with any thing like the zest shown in publishing them, must be taken to indicate a wholesome taste. Of the works of contemporary English writers, besides those just named, we have editions of Tennyson's new Idyls, and rival editions of his complete works, William Barnes's Rural Poems, Browning's "The Ring and the Book" concluded, and an edition of his collected poems, Lord Lytton's version of the Odes and Epodes of Horace, and Merivale's translation of the Iliad, Sir J. Coleridge's "Life of Keble," Mr. John Forster's unique "Life of Walter Savage Landor," Mr. Gladstone's "Juventus Mundi," Ruskin's "Queen of the Air," Max Müller's "Chips from a German Workshop," a translation of Guizot's "St. Louis and Calvin," Lightfoot's "St. Clement of Rome," Dean Alford's Essays and Addresses, Liddon's University Sermons, the Sermons of the Rev. Stepford A. Brooke, an abridged edition (for which there was need) of the Memoirs of Baron Bunsen, Taine's "Italy," and Dr. Wm. Smith's "Old Testament History." Especial note should be made of some historical works—Mommsen's "History of Rome," Lecky's "History of European Morals," popular editions of Froude's "History of England," of Stanley's "Eastern Church" and "Jewish Church," a new edition of Milman's "History of Christianity," and of his "Latin Christianity," uniform with the History of the Jews before published, and forming with that a complete set of his historical works; and a new improved popular edition of Grote's "History of Greece." Popular editions have also been issued of the Rev. F. W. Robertson's Sermons and Life, and of Archbishop Trench's "Studies in the Gospels." Some current works of a severer cast, scientific and philosophic, have been promptly reproduced here: Herbert Spencer's Psychology, Mackay's "Popular Delusions," Dr. Forbes Winslow's "Force and Nature," Bain's "Moral Science," "The Mind and Brain," by Laycock, S. Baring-Gould's "Curious Myths of the Middle Ages," and his "Origin and Development of Religious Belief," "A Physician's Problems," by Dr. Chas. Elam, and Huxley's "Physical Basis of Life." Nor should we omit to mention "The Universe," translated from the French of Pouchet, profusely and superbly illustrated—a comprehensive popular view of physical science; Wallace's "Malay Archipelago," admirable for its freshness, its scientific character, and the pictorial accompaniments and auxiliaries of his graphic descriptions; Wood's "Bible Animals," with figures drawn from nature and finely engraved, combining with the pleasure it affords no little material for the illustration of Scripture; Hartvig's "Polar World," much enlarged and with numerous pictorial accessories, and Greenwood's "Wild Sports of the World," as entertaining as if the author had had personal experience of the adventures he describes. Even among the lighter republications, there is a satisfaction in seeing the Waverley novels retailing at *ten cents* each—a marked improvement in the quality of "dime novels."

De Quincey defines literature as the antithesis of books of knowledge, excluding from it "all books in which the matter to be communicated is paramount to the manner or form of its communication." The only alternative to this definition which he admits is that which makes literature include every thing that is printed. But the philosophical justice of the more restricted definition may be admitted, while the liberty is taken, for the purpose of this review, of including comprehensively the results of the intellectual activity of the nation so far as it was embodied in permanent forms. Without attempting to catalogue all that has been printed, this is what we have endeavored fairly to do.

And the conclusion to which we think an impartial survey directs the mind is on the whole auspicious. If in pure literature our product is small, it includes works of so high merit as to justify the belief that there is good upward progress making, that time is in our favor, that our material successes and engrossing practical aims are not on the whole hindering better things, but are laying a solid foundation on which art will build, and to which genius and culture will bring their best works.

LOUISIANA. The work of reconstruction in the State of Louisiana was completed before the close of the year 1868, and there has been little in the year which followed worthy of historical notice. The affairs of the State have passed from the field of national politics into the hands of its own citizens, and, as the constitution provided that the officers first elected thereunder should hold their positions for a full term of two years from November, 1868, no political canvass has occupied the attention of the people, or turned them from the duty of building up their ruined industries and organizing the administration of local affairs. The Governor, in his message to the Legislature, at the beginning of the year, after recounting the events of the last few years of turbulence and disorder, uttered the following exhortation:

Fellow-citizens, may we not hope that the storms of the past have died away forever, and that returning reason will remount its throne? The issues of the past eight years have been settled, we hope, forever. Slavery has been swept away, and along with it all the train of evils growing out of its wickedness, and has left us—master and slave, white and black—with the same rights under the law, the same chance to succeed in life, and with equally unrestricted aspirations and hopes. On an intelligent people, armed with a free press and free speech, and supported by the ballot, may we not confidently rely for such modifications of laws and customs in society as the sound judgment of the people may approve. Let us forget the passions of the great past, forgive those who have done us evil, and offer to all the same protection and encouragement claimed for ourselves. In this spirit, I recommend the abrogation of the 99th article of our constitution, and believe, if an amendment should be submitted to the people at the next general election, it would receive their almost unanimous approval. I regretted its insertion in the constitution, favored the proposition made to abrogate it at the last session, and now officially recommend it.

I am hopeful of the future. Our Heavenly Father has rewarded us with a bountiful crop, kept sealed the pestilence with which we have been in past times visited, and blessed the lovers of liberty and justice with the greatest political triumph ever accorded to them in this country. In the wise, economical, moderate, and firm administration of the government of the nation and the State, I believe are healings of all animosities and the prosperity and glory of the people.

The 99th section of the constitution here referred to is that which disfranchises a large number of citizens for participation in the cause of the Southern Confederacy in the recent civil war.

The Legislature, which assembled on the 4th of January, continued in session upward of two months, and a large number of bills were passed, most of which had a local importance only. Some of the unfinished legislation of the last session was completed, including the passage of the "Social Equality Bill," the public school law, and the act authorizing a loan of $5,000,000 by the city of New-Orleans. (*See* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.) The object of the city loan bill is indicated in its title, which is as follows: "An act to authorize and require the Mayor, Comptroller, and Treasurer, of the city of New Orleans to issue bonds for the redemption of the city notes, and for the liquidation of other indebtedness, to enable the city to resume payment of interest upon its funded debt; providing for the destruction of the city notes and other evidences of indebtedness, and the plates upon which they have been printed, prohibiting further issuing and receipt for taxes of city notes, and other evidences of indebtedness, and providing a fund for defraying the temporary expenses of the city government."

Under the new school-law the Board of Education consists of the State Superintendent of Schools and six other members, appointed by the Governor. This Board has the general supervision of the educational interests of the State, and appoints boards of directors for the different cities and country districts. The board of directors of New Orleans consists of nine members, and has power to appoint subordinate boards in the different wards. These directors are authorized to obtain sites for new school-houses, erect the necessary buildings, and, in general, carry into practical effect the provisions of the law. All children of the State, between the ages of six and twenty-one years, are to be admitted to the public schools and other institutions of learning established and sustained by the State, "without distinction of race, color, or previous condition." The law requires that in every school "there shall be taught orthography, reading, English grammar, geography, arithmetic, the history of the United States, vocal music, and loyalty to the national Government." A fund for the support of the public schools is to be raised by a poll-tax of one dollar on each male adult citizen, and a tax of two mills upon every dollar of taxable property in the State. An attempt was made to organize a system of schools under this law, but not with entire success. The Governor, in his message to the Legislature of 1870, speaks of the "impracticable character of the present law." "The machinery," he says, "is cumbrous and expensive, so much so, that it has proved a failure." He then suggests that "the plan be simplified, the districts enlarged, and the powers and discretion of the State board increased."

A measure which occupied a large share of the attention of the Legislature throughout the session, and was finally postponed without any decisive action, was a new charter for the city of New Orleans. A change in the character of this corporation was recommended by the Governor in his message at the beginning of the session. The government, he said, was "cumbrous, expensive, and irresponsible. Evils have grown up in it of a most dangerous character, which should be interdicted by law. It has issued a currency without authority of law, and has forced it upon the people in such amounts as to break down its value and destroy it as a circulating medium. It has failed to

pay the interest on its obligations, and is at double if not treble the necessary expense, owing to its inability to meet its current obligations. The charter should contain definite powers, less offices, and attach more responsibility to the officials." The subject was taken up by the members at an early day, and a joint committee on the city charter was appointed to receive propositions on the subject and to prepare a bill to effect the necessary reforms in the municipal government. A plan was introduced into the Senate by Mr. Bacon, embracing the leading features of a scheme submitted by the "Property Holders' Association" of the city. This provides that the powers of government be vested in a mayor and six administrators, two of the latter to be taken from the first district of the city, two from the second, and one each from the third and fourth districts, while the mayor is to be chosen from the city at large. The six administrators are to form a council, presided over by the mayor, and also to constitute the heads of the six executive departments of Finance, Commerce, Improvement, Assessments, Police, and Public Accounts. They are not chosen to preside over designated departments, but are assigned by the mayor after their election. The administrators must have been five years resident in the State, and three years in the city, must be thirty years of age, and qualified electors, and must have taken the oath of office prescribed in section 100 of the constitution. (*See* ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.) Each is to receive a salary of $6,000 a year, and is required to give bonds in the sum of $100,000 for the faithful performance of the duties of his office. The mayor is to have a general superintendence and control over all the departments, and receive a salary of $5,000. The scope of the various departments is indicated in general by the title, but the charge of public education is placed under the department of assessments. The administrators are prohibited from having any interest, direct or indirect, in the works or contracts of the city, and from receiving any bribe for their official action. The principal objection brought against this measure was that it placed the government of the city in the hands of too small a number of persons. Among the amendments proposed was one brought forward by Mr. Ray, a country member of the Senate, for giving the Governor of the State the power to appoint the first mayor and council for the city, their term of office to expire in 1872, after which the government should be elective and the officials hold their places for two years. The discussion on this and other proposed alterations continued at intervals until near the close of the session, when the whole subject was postponed, and will come before the Legislature of 1870.

An act was passed, over the veto of the Governor, incorporating the Ship Island Canal Company and giving into its possession all the funds and assets of the old Drainage Commission of the Metropolitan District, which includes the parishes of Orleans and Jefferson, to the amount of nearly $2,000,000. The object of this company was the construction of a canal from the Mississippi River at Carrollton to the bayous some five or ten miles distant, and it received the drainage funds on the ground that the drainage of the entire district would be effected through this channel. This fund had been raised by assessment on the property to be benefited, for the special purposes of drainage, and it was claimed that it could not be diverted for the construction of a canal, which might or might not prove practicable for those purposes. The Drainage Commissioners under the old law refused at first to give way to the new system, but an injunction was obtained against them by the Canal Company, and, when the whole subject came before the courts, the constitutionality of the new law was sustained. The work of constructing the new canal went on slowly through the year, and in the mean time, by an amicable agreement, the drainage of the city went on in charge of the commissioners under the old law.

The act of the Legislature incorporating the Ship Island Canal Company, and placing at its disposal the drainage funds, was characterized, by the political opponents of the majority in that body, as a corrupt scheme, detrimental to the real interests of the cities concerned. Another measure, against which similar complaints were brought, was the act "to protect the health of the city of New Orleans, to locate the stock-landings and slaughter-houses, and to incorporate the Crescent City Live Stock Landing and Slaughter-house Company." This law gives to the company which it incorporates the sole right "to land, keep, or slaughter any cattle, beeves, sheep, swine, or other animals," at any place "within the city of New Orleans, or at any point or place on the east bank of the Mississippi River, within the corporate limits of the city of New Orleans, or at any point on the west bank of the Mississippi River, above the present depot of the New Orleans, Opelousas, and Great Western Railroad Company." The privilege here mentioned is granted to the proposed company, and forbidden to all other persons, under severe penalties. This was characterized as a gigantic monopoly, and it was claimed, with great emphasis, that it was carried through the Legislature by bribery and corruption. After the 1st of June, when this act went into effect, loud cries were made against its provisions by the butchers of the city and a large proportion of the citizens. Finally an action was brought against the company, and an injunction obtained on the ground that the law was unconstitutional. This view of the case was sustained by the court, and the injunction made perpetual. The ground on which the act of the Legislature was pronounced unconstitutional was, that it was inconsistent with the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, and the first

and second sections of the Louisiana Bill of Rights, which are as follows:

No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the liberties or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person the equal protection of the laws. (*Fourteenth Cons. Am., Art.* 1.)

All men are created free and equal, and have certain inalienable rights; among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. To secure these rights, governments are instituted among men, deriving their just powers from the will of the governed. (*Bill of Rights, Art.* 1.) * * * They, the citizens, shall enjoy the same civil, political, and public rights and privileges, and be subject to the same pains and penalties. (*Bill of Rights, Art.* 2.)

It was also declared to be in conflict with the provision of the Constitution of the United States, which gives to Congress exclusive power to regulate commerce, and the act of Congress admitting Louisiana into the Union in 1812, which provides "that the river Mississippi and the navigable waters leading into the same and into the Gulf of Mexico shall be common highways and forever free, as well to the inhabitants of the said State as to the inhabitants of the other States, and the territories of the United States, without any tax, duty, impost, or toll therefor imposed by the said States."

"Now," said Judge Collens, "this law (1) prevents any freedom whatever; (2) walls up many miles of the shores of the river on both sides against an important branch of commerce; (3) vests as it were a private company with an ownership in one of the greatest ports of entry of the United States; (4) gives this company alone the authority to 'establish wharves' for vessels bringing live-stock into the port of New Orleans; (5) yields it the exclusive right of having one or more stock-landings, with the 'exclusive' privilege of having landed at its wharves and landing-places all animals intended for sale or slaughter in the parishes of Orleans and Jefferson; (6) authorizes it to determine at what points or places wharves, stock-landings, etc., may be erected; (7) grants it the power of levying wharfage, not simply on the vessels, according to tonnage and time, but a round sum on the vessels and a duty of ten cents per head on large, and five cents per head on small beasts landed in this port, and (8) all this is made effective by penal clauses, imposing fines, etc. I think it clear this is not only a police regulation of the great trade in live-stock coming to this market, but (going far beyond such mere police ordinances as are necessary to prevent collision and disorder in the port, or to secure an equal and convenient use of the public banks to all) it amounts altogether to a bold and well-contrived regulation of commerce, compelling the coveted trade to flow into the channel, and leave the tribute in the coffers, of this private monopoly. It closes all the port except the wharf, slaughter-house, and stables of the company, to that trade. To my understanding its restrictions and preferences appear plainly as a violation of the act of Congress guaranteeing the freedom of the river to commerce."

There were several other measures of some importance passed, including an act to incorporate the Louisiana Transit Company, and aid it with the credit of the State to establish railroad and telegraphic communication between New Orleans and the Pacific coast. A new vagrant law was also enacted. A revenue bill, passed just before the adjournment of the Legislature, contained the following section, which was regarded by some as oppressive:

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted, etc.*, That no physician, surgeon, midwife, lawyer, or other professional person, except teachers, shall practise in this State, unless he or she has first taken out a license in accordance with this law. No physician, surgeon, midwife, lawyer, or other professional person, teachers excepted, shall be allowed to collect a claim for professional services, unless he or she can exhibit a license in accordance with this law; a failure to exhibit such license, when called for, shall entitle the defendant to a non-suit. Each lawyer, before practising in any court of this State, shall have his license, under this law, recorded in a minute-book, kept by the clerk of such court for that purpose; and no judge, justice of the peace, or recorder, shall allow any lawyer to practise in his court until this law is complied with. Any judge, justice, or recorder, violating this act, shall be liable to a fine of five hundred dollars, to be recovered before a district court, to be sued for by the district attorney or attorney-general—one-half to go to the informer, and the prosecuting attorney to receive a fee of fifty dollars on conviction, in each case.

The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which provides that the right of citizens to vote shall not be abridged on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude, was submitted to the Legislature by Governor Warmouth, on the 27th of February, with a recommendation that it be ratified at once. It was ratified in the Senate on the same day by a vote of 18 to 3, and two days later received the approval of the House of Representatives, by a vote of 55 to 9; while 36 members, all Republicans, refrained altogether from voting.

On the accession of General Grant to the Executive chair of the Federal Government, the following joint resolution was adopted:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Louisiana, in General Assembly convened, That we, the first representatives of the whole people of Louisiana, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition, hail with unutterable satisfaction and pride the declaration of principles and public policy embraced in the inaugural of the President of the United States, who has by their enunciation ranged himself as the foremost statesman, as he had before as the most illustrious general, of the Republic.

Be it therefore resolved, That we pledge ourselves to sustain to the utmost the President in carrying out his policy of economy in public expenditure, the strict accountability of all public officers, the enforcement of the reconstruction laws, the extension of universal suffrage by the constitutional amendment, the strict enforcement of law and order, the honest payment of the national debt, the speedy return to specie payment, and the early restoration of peace and harmony between all classes and sections of our beloved country.

The Legislature adjourned early in March, leaving several bills unsigned in the hands of the Governor, some of which, appropriating money to aid private enterprises, failed altogether to become laws.

Some difficulty occurred with regard to the authority of the Governor to fill offices by appointment when vacancies happened, which was probably not finally set at rest at the close of the year, although several judicial decisions had been rendered on the subject. The constitution provides that "the General Assembly may determine the mode of filling vacancies in all offices for which provision is not made" in that instrument itself. Accordingly, the Legislature of 1868 passed an act to determine the mode of filling such vacancies, the first section of which is as follows:

SEC. 1. *Be it enacted, etc.*, That whenever a vacancy occurs in any office, State, parish, or municipal, in this State, or which may hereafter be created, from death, resignation, or from any other cause whatever, the mode of filling which is not provided for in the constitution, all such vacancies shall be filled, if they be State or parish officers, by appointment by the Governor, with the advice and consent of the Senate, which appointment shall be for the entire unexpired term of such vacant office. If the Senate be not in session at the time the appointment is made, the vacancy shall be filled by appointment by the Governor, which appointment shall expire on the third Monday after the next session of the General Assembly thereafter, unless the time for which the vacancy exists expire sooner; and if the time of such vacancy has not then expired, it shall then be the duty of the Governor to fill such unexpired vacancy by appointment, by and with the consent of the Senate; and, if it be a municipal office, the vacancy must be filled by appointment by the Governor for the unexpired term of the person whose office is so vacated.

This the Governor construed as giving him the power of appointment even when vacancies occurred by the expiration of the term of office. A new charter for Jefferson City had been enacted in 1868, under which the Governor was authorized to appoint a mayor and council to act until an election should take place, which was ordered to be held in January, 1869. The Governor neither made the appointment, nor caused the election to be held, and the old mayor and common council continued in office. In the month of May, however, Governor Warmouth, assuming that the municipal offices of Jefferson City were vacant, appointed Felix J. Leche mayor, at the same time naming a full board of councilmen. The old officials refused to give up their positions, and the new board was installed by force on the 19th of May, by the aid of the metropolitan police, which also existed by appointment of the Governor. This act was accompanied by some violent demonstrations on the part of the citizens and the police, but resulted in no serious disturbance, it being agreed to leave the whole matter to the decision of the courts. An action was accordingly brought in the name of the State, against John J. Kreider, the mayor of the city, and the council associated with him. In the mean time, by an order of the District Court, the old board of officials was restored, and the metropolitan police enjoined from interfering with their action. The decision of the Supreme Court was rendered on the 30th of July, when it was declared that the Governor had no power of appointment in the premises, there being no vacancy in the offices of the city government.

A similar question came up in the city of New Orleans. The term of office of one half of the Common Council, known as the short-term members, having expired, a special election was held on the 19th of May to fill the vacancies. The Governor, on the other hand, held that under the law above quoted he had the right to fill these vacancies by appointment, which he accordingly proceeded to do. The old Board claimed that there were no vacancies at all, as according to law they were to hold their offices until their successors were duly elected and qualified, and that could not be until the next regular election. In this three-sided form the case went before the District Court. First, an injunction was granted by Judge Collens against the old Board, and the "newly-elected" members were admitted to seats in the Council. Subsequently an injunction was granted by Judge Leaumont, restraining the "newly-elected" members from acting, and placing the "Governor's appointees" in possession; and, finally, the Governor's appointees were enjoined by Judge Cooley, and the elected members restored. This last injunction, however, was dissolved on the 25th of December, and at the close of the year the power of the Governor to fill such vacancies as had occurred in the City Council of New Orleans appeared to be sustained. Whether the matter would be allowed to rest here, or not, remains to be seen.

A bitter warfare was carried on throughout the year between Governor Warmouth and G. M. Wickliffe, the Auditor of the State. The Governor accused the latter official of extortion and of corruption in the administration of the office of Auditor, and had him arrested on several specific charges. No less than fourteen indictments were found against Wickliffe by the grand jury. Pending the trial of these indictments, the Governor suspended Wickliffe from the exercise of his functions as Auditor, and appointed L. T. Delassise in his place, using the power of the metropolitan police to take possession of the office, and installed his appointee. An injunction was sued out in the Seventh District Court, prohibiting Delassise from performing the duties of Auditor, on the ground that the Governor had no power to make the appointment, that officer being elected by the people for a certain term not yet expired. A counter-injunction was granted by Judge Leaumont, of the Fifth Judicial District, restraining Wickliffe from acting as Auditor, and ordering Delassise to proceed with the duties of that office. This involved a conflict of jurisdiction, which was carried before the Supreme Court, but, before any decision was

rendered, two of the criminal cases came on for trial. In both these the Auditor was acquitted, but in one of them the verdict was regarded by the judge as so palpably in defiance of the facts, that he dismissed the jury with a reprimand. The remainder of the cases were dismissed by the Attorney-General on the ground that a constitutional officer could not be tried by a jury until after impeachment. Thereupon the Governor withdrew his opposition to the possession of the Auditor's office by Mr. Wickliffe, and gave the key into his hands. The matter did not, however, stop here. On the assembling of the Legislature, on January 4, 1870, the Governor submitted a special message to that body, in which he said:

> It becomes my duty to communicate to your honorable body grave charges against George M. Wickliffe, Auditor of Public Accounts. His offences against the constitution and the laws of the State have seriously embarrassed the government, and rendered it difficult to pay the interest on the State bonds. He has been guilty of numerous acts, involving extortion against individuals, and against the charitable institutions of the State; also involving fraud against the Commonwealth, and collusion with evil-disposed persons to defraud the same. He has extorted sums of money from the creditors of the State as a condition precedent to the issuance to them of the certificates of indebtedness or warrants to which they were entitled by law.

He then proceeded to give numerous instances in detail to support these charges. After giving an account of his attempt to bring the Auditor to punishment through the criminal courts, he closes with these words:

> Love for your State and fidelity to the people whom you represent demand rigid scrutiny into the conduct of the officer herein complained of, and prompt punishment should follow if it is ascertained that guilt exists. Permit me to say that the mortification I feel as the Executive of the State, in view of the criminal conduct of this officer, is increased and aggravated by the fact that the offender is a member of the party to which I belong. No party is worthy the confidence of the people, or can retain the same, who will permit such conduct to pass uncensured and unpunished. I submit this matter, gentlemen, to your grave, candid, and immediate consideration, and request that such action be taken as the ends of justice and the public interest require.

The subject was referred by the Legislature to a special committee for investigation, whose action forms a part of the history for 1870.

The commercial progress of Louisiana and of the port of New Orleans throughout the year can hardly be regarded as satisfactory. There are two works of public improvement intimately connected with the commercial prosperity of the State, which have been much discussed but about which little has been done. These are the construction of an adequate series of levees on the banks of the Mississippi River, and the removal of obstructions to navigation at the mouth of that stream. These are both works which will require a large outlay of money and be a decided benefit to the commerce of the entire West. They are indeed regarded as national works, and assistance is expected from the General Government for their accomplishment. A State loan was provided for in 1868 to raise funds for the rebuilding of the levees, but the bonds have not been so readily disposed of as was anticipated; and, although contracts were made for a large amount of work in this important department, it was not carried out for want of the necessary means. Important soundings and surveys have been made in the passes at the mouth of the Mississippi, and preparations made for deepening and widening the channels, provided appropriations for the purpose can be obtained.

The credit of Louisiana has been somewhat injured by the financial embarrassments of her treasury, and the feud existing between the Governor and Auditor. Although the bonded indebtedness of the State at the beginning of the year was less than $7,000,000, no adequate means was provided by the last Legislature for the payment of interest, and the State bonds have materially depreciated in value.

The State charitable institutions are numerous, and have in the past held a high rank. There is need, however, at present for renewed attention and care from the Legislature in order to maintain their high character. The following is a list of institutions in or near the city of New Orleans, including a few which are supported wholly by private benevolence: The Insane Asylum, 175 inmates; the Charity Hospital, 650; Poydras Asylum for Girls, 125; St. Mary's Male Orphan Asylum, 380; St. Vincent's Home for Boys, 65; St. Elizabeth's Female Orphan Asylum, 170; the Orphans' Home, 125; St. Vincent's Infant Asylum, 150; St. Joseph's Orphan Asylum, 215; German Orphan Asylum, 16; St. Anna's Asylum, 76; Southern Hospital Association, 50; Childrens' Home, 75; Louisiana Retreat, 45; the Widows' Home, 100; Asylum for Destitute Orphan Boys, 75; St. Croix Asylum, 80; Home for the Aged and Infirm, 50; Marine Hospital, 360; New Orleans Orphan Asylum, 220; Orphans' Home Society, 103; Jewish Widows' and Orphans' Association, 90; House of Refuge for Boys, 106; House of Refuge for Girls, 32.

The lessees of the State Penitentiary have within the last year placed 200 looms in that institution for the manufacture of cotton and woollen goods. The schools of the State have not yet reached a high degree of prosperity under the new system, and it is probable that a substitute will be adopted, or at least some important modifications made in the present law.

LUTHERANS. The *Lutheran Church Almanac*, for 1870 (published at Baltimore), gives the following statistical view of the Lutheran Church, in North America, in the year 1869:

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Communicants.
I. *Synods connected with the "General Synod" of the United States.*			
1. Synod of New York	19	10	1,445
2. Hartwick Synod (N. Y.)	28	31	3,994
3. Franckean Synod (N. Y.)	21	26	1,782
4. Synod of New Jersey	9	13	1,021
5. Synod of East Pennsylvania	58	90	9,828
6. Susquehanna Synod (Penn.)	35	48	4,661
7. Synod of West Pennsylvania	49	97	13,961
8. Synod of Central Pennsylvania	35	90	7,456
9. Alleghany Synod (Penn.)	44	112	7,893
10. Pittsburg Synod (Penn.)	17	50	2,800
11. Synod of Maryland	48	77	13,950
12. East Ohio Synod	43	65	4,333
13. Wittenberg Synod (Ohio)	36	44	4,214
14. Miami Synod (Ohio)	30	39	3,068
15. Synod of Northern Indiana	31	76	3,210
16. Olive Branch Synod (Ind.)	17	30	1,556
17. Synod of Northern Illinois	30	48	2,105
18. Synod of Southern Illinois	21	20	1,302
19. Synod of Central Illinois	21	27	1,578
20. Synod of Iowa	11	17	731
21. Synod of Kansas	10	12	500
	598	1,022	90,928
II. *Synods of the "General Council."*			
1. New York Ministerium	50	50	13,000
2. Synod of Pennsylvania	141	205	51,800
3. Pittsburg Synod (Penn.)	58	108	8,605
4. English District Synod of Ohio	38	90	10,000
5. English Synod of Ohio	12	26	2,280
6. Synod of Illinois	35	48	4,746
7. Synod of Michigan	15	27	3,300
8. Synod of Iowa	60	105	8,000
9. Synod of Minnesota	26	60	3,742
10. Scandinavian Augustana Synod	48	96	12,208
11. Synod of Texas	20	28	2,220
12. Synod of Canada	24	60	7,220
	527	998	129,516
III. *Synods connected with the (Southern) General Synod of North America.*			
1. Synod of Virginia	30	61	3,200
2. Synod of Southwest Virginia	21	40	2,179
3. Synod of North Carolina	18	34	3,716
4. Synod of South Carolina	33	44	4,817
5. Synod of Georgia	5	10	750
6. Holston Synod (Tenn.)	14	25	2,000
	121	214	16,662
IV. *Synods not connected with any General Synod or General Council.*			
1. Joint Synod of Ohio	142	295	35,500
2. Joint Synod of Missouri	335	362	50,000
3. Synod of Wisconsin	52	106	15,200
4. Norwegian Synod (Wis., etc.)	50	220	31,480
5. Tennessee Synod	30	82	7,000
6. Ellson's Synod	9	25	2,000
7. Union Synod (Ind.)	17	17	2,110
8. Buffalo Synod (N. Y.)	15	22	1,850
9. German Synod of New York	10	11	1,800
10. Concordia Synod of Virginia	9	15	1,000
11. Synod of Mississippi	7	11	2,000
12. Missionary Synod of the West	11	20	700
	687	1,183	150,640
Grand total	1,933*	3,417	387,746

Under the patronage of the Lutheran Church in the above divisions taken together were 14 theological institutions, 16 colleges, 9 female seminaries, 16 academies, 14 orphan homes, and other eleemosynary institutions. Twenty-eight Lutheran periodicals are published, namely: 9 English, 15 German, 2 Swedish, and 2 Norwegian.

The *General Council* of the Lutheran Church met in Chicago, in November. A response was received from the Missouri Synod, in answer to an invitation of the previous General Council for that synod to send delegates to the General Council; it said in reply that it would not deal with the General Council, as such, but that, if a free conference could be held, at which all who, without reservation, confessed the unaltered Augsburg Confession may be admitted, "we, on our part, would, without doubt, largely attend the same, not as representatives, but as individuals."

The Council, in reply to this action, passed resolutions regretting that the Missouri Synod could not see its way clear to the official correspondence invited; and expressing a readiness to receive and entertain any proposals in accord with its basis, either from the venerable Synod of Missouri, or any others.

The committee appointed to frame a reply to the letter of the Pope, addressed to "all Protestants and non-Catholics," reported, and the Synod adopted the following resolutions:

1. The Pope's letter repudiates, in its only address, all recognition of any part of the Protestant world as having an organic existence as a Church—even *de facto*. It is addressed to individuals, as such, and may be properly replied to by individuals at their personal discretion. The idea, for some time current, that Protestants are to have any rights, or are invited to any privileges, in the "Œcumenical Council," is entirely groundless. Whatever may be the suavity of the manner, the Pope is as inflexible in the thing as if he were in the middle ages. He simply invites individuals—of whom he affirms that they "do not profess the true faith of Christ," and for whom collectively he has no better name than that of "societies" and "sects"—to abandon their convictions and make their submission to the particular communion of which he is head.

2. The individuals thus addressed are not of a class to which the members of the Lutheran Church belong. Though the Lutheran Church is a Protestant Church, and, in the strict, original, historic limitation of the word, the only Protestant Church, yet, as the Pope addresses Protestants who are "non-Catholics," he uses the term in a sense in which it does not embrace the members of our church. They are not non-Catholic Protestants, but are Protestants against Rome only, because Rome herself is non-Catholic. Our church believes in the Holy Catholic Church, the Universal Christian Church, the Communion of Saints, whose faith she confesses, and of which she is a pure part, and her true people living members. The very address of the letter makes a fictitious assumption, and to acknowledge that it is meant for us would be to grant an untruth and to fix a stigma upon ourselves. If there be those called Protestants who concede that they are non-Catholics, they, and they only, can properly consider the Pope's letter as addressed to themselves.

3. The Pope raises no pretensions in this letter which have not been officially rejected by our Church, again and again, and offers no arguments which have not been repeatedly confuted in our Confession, and by our great divines.

4. The record of the Lutheran Church against the

*The statistics given by the *Lutheran Church Almanac* for 1870, published at Allentown, by the Rev. S. K. Brobst, somewhat differ, as, according to it, the preachers number 2,016, the congregations 3,330, and the communicants 376,567.

errors of Romanism, written, not only in her own literature and life, but in the history of the whole civilized world for more than three centuries, is so clear, before heaven, earth, and hell, that any new official protest against those errors, on so slight an occasion as the letter of the Pope, is more than needless, and might almost excite the suspicion, or prompt the insinuation, that the body which made it was hazarding its dignity by seeming to catch at an opportunity for cheap declamation, to swell the sensation of the hour, or to court popular applause.

5. What is here true of all genuinely Lutheran bodies is preëminently true of this General Council. We have so recently and unreservedly accepted those great Confessions of our Church, in the principles of which alone Romanism can be successfully resisted, and which have proved for ages the mightiest bulwark against it, that any official act on our part would seem specially an act of supererogation. In view of these and other weighty reasons your Committee made no reply, and would recommend that none be made, to the Pope's letter.

A question, which was sent up from the Minnesota Synod, concerning the declaration of the General Council on "the Four Points,"* whether it is the right interpretation of them that heretics and "fundamental errorists" cannot be admitted to Lutheran altars as communicants, nor into the pulpit as teachers of the congregation, and whether the principles enunciated in them are intended to apply to all who differ upon the distinctive doctrines of the Lutheran Church, was made the subject of a report, which declared that there could be no question with regard to the universal adherence of the Council to the full and entire faith of the Evangelical Lutheran Church, and that the Council means to make a distinction between "fundamental errorists" and "heretics," as between the greater and the less. All "heretics" are fundamental errorists, but not *vice versa*. "By heretics we mean those who reject our common Catholic Christianity; by fundamental errorists we mean those who reject any part of the pure Gospel, as set forth in our Confessions." The report goes over another year, for consideration.

The Council decided to undertake the building of a theological seminary, and a committee was appointed to select a location. The domestic missionary work of the Council, particularly in the Northwest and West, and with the immigrants arriving at New York, was reported as prosecuted with as great energy as the means of the society and the available missionary force would permit. An Executive Committee of Foreign Missions was instituted, and instructed to correspond with the missions of Leipsic and Hermansburg, with the view to secure their active coöperation, and with the Finnish Lutheran Missionary Society, in reference to the establishment of a mission among the Indians in Alaska, and to take the question of the Chinese population in the United States into consideration.

The twenty-fourth Annual Convention of the *General Synod* of the Evangelical Lutheran Church met in Washington, D. C., on the 13th of May. A new synod, that of Kansas, applied for admission, and was received. The new constitution was reported as adopted by all the District Synods, and the General Synod declared to be acting under it. During the session an address was delivered by the Rev. Dr. Pohlman on "The History of the Lutheran Church in the State of Maine," which detailed the efforts of German immigrants in the last century to found a church on the Broad Bay, in New England, the establishment of a church at Waldoborough, its history, and its final extinction, which was ascribed principally to the tenacious adherence of the German immigrants to their own language, preventing the propagation of their faith and their assimilation with the English-speaking residents. A series of resolutions on the reunion of the Lutheran churches and a proposition to appoint a delegate to the General Council were laid on the table, on the representation that the latter body had closed its doors against the reception of delegates from any bodies not in full harmony with itself on all theological points. A committee was appointed, however, to correspond with the Southern synods, who have become separated from the General Synod by political events, and not upon doctrinal points, in behalf of the restoration of the former relations. The following resolution was also adopted:

Whereas, Our principles not merely allow, but actually demand, fraternal relations with all Evangelical Christians, and especially with other Lutheran bodies in this country: therefore,

Resolved, That we cherish the spirit of Christian fellowship, especially toward the brethren of Lutheran Synods, not now in connection with us, and will cheerfully enter into an interchange of delegates with them, as soon as we have evidence that this can be done in accordance with the wishes of these Synods.

The Synod recommended a more strict regard for the Sabbath, and approved of all movements to arrest the ravages of intemperance, including judicious legislation. Amendments to the liturgy were agreed upon, to be recommended, not commended, to the churches. Delegates were appointed to corresponding bodies. The Synod paid a visit to the President, and also to Mount Vernon. The next meeting was appointed for 1871, two years from the present one, and is to be held in Dayton, Ohio.

The body which was formerly known as the *Missouri Synod* has now assumed the official name of the "*General German Lutheran Synod of the United States and Canada.*" The organization embraces four particular synods. At its recent convention, at Fort Wayne, Ind., a series of resolutions was adopted, of which the following is the most important:

The sum of the matter is this: love to our neighbor requires the Christian (1) to give to the poor; (2) to lend money to those who find themselves under the pressure of temporary need; (3) also to make no contract with those who have means, with a view to get interest on loans; (4) either to work with his own money, or to join himself in partnership with others, by which profits and losses shall be justly divided;

* *See* the text of the "Four Points" in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, p. 443.

(5) and, before entering into any loan-contract in the improper sense, to see that every thing unjust and oppressive is unequivocally removed.

The Synod of Wisconsin, which was one of the first synods originally to unite with the General Council, resolved, at its last meeting, to leave that body, and unite with the Missouri Synod. They also voted at once to discontinue their theological seminary at Watertown, and send their professor with all his theological students to St. Louis, to the seminary of the Missourians. But the college at Watertown, Wis., will be continued, and the Missouri Synod will send two professors to the college.

Before the New York Ministerium was divided at Albany, a number of ministers, under the lead of the Rev. Mr. Steimle, of strong symbolical tendencies, seceded and formed a separate synod. Their views having been found to accord in many respects with those of one branch of the Buffalo Synod, the latter, under the leadership of Rev. Mr. Von Rohr, appointed delegates to attend their next General Convention for the purpose of establishing a closer union between the two bodies, and thus forming another Lutheran General Synod. The ecclesiastical strength of the two bodies are as follows: Steimle Synod, 10 ministers, 11 congregations, and 1,800 communicants. Von Rohr Synod, estimated at one-half of the fragment left of the Buffalo Synod, 7 ministers, 11 congregations, and 925 members.

The General Synod of the Church, in Wurtemberg, had a very harmonious session. The question of preventing the growing secession to Methodists and other dissenters, without intrenching on religious liberty, was discussed. It was agreed that it was only possible by satisfying all the religious wants of the people in their own Church. The question of intercommunion between Lutherans and Reformed is beginning to be agitated in Wurtemberg. The exclusive Lutheran theory has heretofore not been practically carried out, but its advocates are now beginning to insist upon it.

Reports from the Lutheran churches in Norway represent a decided religious awakening of "more real earnest spirituality" as taking place. The people are seeking more freedom and independence of governmental restraint in the inner organization of their individual congregations; great activity is evinced in the Missionary, Bible, Tract, and other religious societies, whose agents and colporteurs are at work.

M

MAINE. The Legislature of Maine met on the first Wednesday of January, and continued in session for sixty-six days, during which period 350 acts and 99 resolves were passed. Many important measures occupied the attention of this body at this session, among which were the bill to repeal the death penalty, the dissection bill, the bill to abolish the six per cent. usury law, and the bill for the establishment of a State police. The dissection bill as passed provides that no hinderance shall be put in the way of physicians obtaining the bodies of those who, before their death, consented to have their bodies used for the purpose of dissection. The principal change made in the capital-punishment law was that requiring the Governor, at the expiration of a year after sentence, to execute the sentence of death, commute, or pardon the criminal. The consideration of the constabulary bill was referred to the next Legislature. At this session of the Legislature, the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified. In the Senate there were 25 votes for and 1 against its ratification. In the House there were 141 votes for its ratification. Hannibal Hamlin was chosen to represent the State in the United States Senate for the full term from the 4th of March, 1869.

The advocates of the cause of temperance, whose proceedings heretofore have attracted such general attention, were unusually active during the present year endeavoring to secure a rigid execution of the prohibitory law. On the 26th of January, the Maine State Temperance Convention assembled at Augusta. The meeting was large and enthusiastic, and the principles of the cause were expressed in the following resolutions which were adopted:

Resolved, That with devout and heartfelt thanksgiving to Almighty God for the guidance and success by Him accorded to our cause in the past, the friends of temperance in Maine, in mass convention assembled, reaffirm the principles so often heretofore enunciatod, and by experience established, that all hope of progress in the temperance reform rests in total abstinence from intoxicating liquors by the individual, and the prohibition of the liquor traffic by the State.

Resolved, That in the early history of the temperance reformation its success was due more to the Christian Church than to any other agency, and we do now most sincerely and earnestly invoke the renewed activity of ministers and church-members in a cause so calculated to remove the greatest obstacle to the diffusion of the Gospel of Jesus Christ and the promotion of the temporal and spiritual welfare of our fellow-men.

Resolved, That while we place our main reliance on the constant and faithful moral efforts which by the intelligent and good are exerted for the elevation of the standard of public sentiment in relation to the danger and the immorality of the use of intoxicating liquors, and the criminality of their sale, yet the impressive logic of facts and experience has demonstrated that the legal prohibition of the traffic in alcoholic drinks, coming in as an aid to moral effort, by protecting the inexperienced and the weak against temptation to vice, is essential to secure any permanent progress in the cause of temperance.

Resolved, That inasmuch as the value of a law prohibiting drinking-houses and tippling-shops depends upon the faithfulness with which it is executed, we view with alarm the open, organized, and defiant

manner in which prohibition is set at naught in many parts of the State, in consequence of the unfaithfulness of legal officers, by combinations of liquor-dealers and their sympathizers, and, in too many cases, influenced to this dereliction of duty by wealth and social power; such defiance of law not only secures license under the name of prohibition, and opens the flood-gates of intemperance, but also tends to undermine all law, and to destroy the foundation of good government, by encouraging the lawless to believe that the authority which makes laws does not possess the power to execute them.

Resolved, That while it is the duty of every good citizen to assist those in authority in executing the laws, yet we regard it as much the duty of the State to see that the laws for the protection of its citizens are enforced as it is to enact them, and that the State government which should look on and see its laws openly defied, through the power of criminals or the inefficiency of local officers, would be faithless to the trust reposed in it, and unworthy the confidence of the people. We can, therefore, but regard it as not only the right but the duty of the power that makes criminal laws to provide some means for their enforcement in cases where it is not secured by local officers, and we most respectfully pray the Legislature of the State to provide such a system of State police as shall secure the faithful, impartial, and constant enforcement of all the criminal laws of the State, and particularly those against which are the cupidity and the immense influence of panderers to vice, and the depraved appetites of the vicious.

Resolved, That while it is our earnest desire that the necessity for the existence and enforcement of laws prohibiting the liquor-traffic should be so generally recognized by all parties that there may be no necessity for friends of temperance to organize politically in defence of cherished principles, and much as we should deplore the arraying of any political organization against those cherished principles, whether through platforms or nominees for office, yet, should this be done, it would be our solemn duty to meet such an attempt to overthrow or disarm prohibition with counter-organizations, and counter political efforts. We trust, however, that all political organizations will recognize the vital necessity of advancing the principles underlying the temperance reform, by supporting and encouraging the execution of the laws against the liquor-traffic, and by nominating for office such men as not only sympathize with those principles, but also give to them the important support of example.

Resolved, That the sincere thanks of every friend of temperance are due to General U. S. Grant, President-elect, and the Hon. S. Colfax, Vice-President-elect, for giving the weight of their powerful example against the use of wine, and other intoxicating liquors, on social and public occasions. We hail such an example as the indication of a new and vital step in the temperance reformation, whereby the virtue of strict total abstinence shall be added to the other qualifications regarded as desirable, and we trust as indispensable, to commend a candidate for office to the suffrages of the people.

It does not seem to have been the intention of the convention assembled at Augusta to organize a separate political party in order to secure the success of their principles. But subsequently the expediency of organizing a third political party was discussed at the annual session of the "Grand Lodge of Good Templars," which opened at Richmond, on the 14th of April. This meeting was reported to be one of the largest and most enthusiastic temperance gatherings ever held in the State. The reports of committees were to the effect that there was much intemperance in all parts of the State, except in a few counties; that there was almost an entire neglect to execute the law against "tippling-shops;" that a large majority of the political leaders of both parties were using their influence, either directly or indirectly, to discourage the execution of the law; and that, unless the State should provide a police to execute the prohibitory law, most of the communities would soon be overrun with liquor-saloons. It being necessary, in the judgment of the convention, to take some action looking to a remedy for these evils, the following resolutions were adopted:

Resolved, That the exigencies of the cause of temperance at this time require that its friends should make organized resistance at the ballot-box, to all candidates for public office, of whatever political party, who are not practical supporters of the cause, or who in the discharge of their official duties would ignore the temperance sentiment of their constituents.

Resolved, That the Grand Lodge respectfully request the general State Temperance Executive Committee to immediately call a State Convention of the friends of temperance for the purpose of consulting with reference to the present condition of the cause, and of deciding upon such measures as may be deemed necessary to advance the interests of a movement more important in its financial, social, and moral bearings, than any other question before the public.

The action of this convention caused much comment on the part of the press of the State, and many journals, which were not hostile to the cause of temperance, opposed the formation of a new party, on the basis of temperance alone. The sentiments of many who favored the cause of temperance were expressed in the words of one of the local papers: "Whatever the object of the temperance men may be, their wisest and best policy is to seek it through the Republican organization, and by educating the people up to their ideas. Let them work through the caucuses and conventions in a legitimate way to secure representative men, and, when they have convinced the mass of the people that a State police or any other measure proposed in the interest of temperance will be salutary, they will have no difficulty in getting such measures enacted by the Legislature."

As both the temperance advocates and the Democratic party were waiting to see what action the Republicans would take in their coming convention, great interest centred upon this event. On the 24th of June the Republican State Convention assembled at Bangor, and was attended by 1,172 delegates—nearly every town in the State having a full representation. Lot M. Morrill was chosen as president of the convention. There were two candidates for the nomination of Governor. Joshua L. Chamberlain received 694 votes and Sidney Perham received 375. Mr. Chamberlain, therefore, was the choice of the party as candidate for Governor. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

1. That we hail with joy the restoration of peace, and the supremacy of the Constitution.

2. That with the restored Union the thanks of the nation are first due to the noble men who mindless of life braved the dangers of the field and the ocean for its preservation, and it is a source of gratification to patriotic citizens that an army of more than a million of soldiers have returned to their homes and their industrial pursuits without disturbance, and are now mingling with their fellow-citizens in the ordinary associations of life, without distinguishing marks save the glory of their wounds.

3. That we have entire confidence in the national Administration. It is entitled to the confidence of the country. Its patriotism and integrity and pure motives commend it to all good men. Its wise statesmanship has already been shown and its ability will continue to be illustrated, and we rejoice that there has been placed at its head, and by so general a suffrage, the great chieftain upon whom a grateful republic has thus hastened to confer its highest honors, and to whom, by general acclaim, it concedes its greatest indebtedness.

4. Maine has great natural resources, and a climate giving vigor to her people. Her soil is the best, and her forests the largest, in New England. Her frontier upon the ocean invites to commerce, and no State has greater advantages for shipbuilding or equal facilities for successfully competing for the carrying-trade of the country. Her ample water-power waits only to be used, to supply the world with fabrics and manufactures; and, when her railroads are completed that are now in progress, she will have a new vantage-ground in the race for growth and prosperity, by her nearer proximity to commercial centres and her easier access to the markets of the East and West.

Resolved, therefore, That the policy of the State government should be marked and distinct in favor of the development of her material interests; and,

Resolved, further, That the Republican party of Maine has no more pressing mission intrusted to its care, as the dominant power of the State, than to make the most it can of these great resources for the aggrandizement of its citizens and the enhancement of their welfare.

Resolved, That, in legislative appropriations, an enlightened forecast will bear in mind always our present indebtedness, and that in municipal expenditures and official disbursements the strictest personal accountability should be exacted.

Resolved, That, we emphatically renew our adhesion to the principles of prohibition and a vigorous enforcement of the laws to that end.

Resolved, That Joshua L. Chamberlain, the nominee of this convention for Governor of Maine, is one of our most eminent citizens, distinguished for his scholarship, his patriotism, and his undying military record. We commend him, with confidence in his integrity and ability, and pride in his record, to the suffrages of the people, and with an assurance of his triumphant election.

Prior, however, to the assembling of the Republican Convention, the State Executive Committee had issued a call for a State Temperance Convention to assemble at Portland, on the 29th of June; to which "all temperance men, without regard to past party associations, who regard the vigorous and impartial enforcement of the legal prohibition of the liquor-traffic as the paramount issue in the approaching gubernatorial campaign, and who, in the absence this year of other political issues of greater importance than the perfection of the schemes of aspiring politicians for future aggrandizement and position, are prepared, in the event of unsatisfactory nominations for Governor being made in the State Convention by both political parties, to present and support an independent temperance candidate for that position, are invited * * * to decide upon such measures as the exigencies of the cause may demand, and to prepare, if necessary, for systematic, independent action at the polls."

In pursuance of this call, the convention assembled at Portland, on the 29th of June, and organized with Henry Tallman as president. About 200 delegates were present, among whom there was a difference of opinion as to the policy of forming an independent ticket. Some of the leading temperance delegates were satisfied with the prohibition resolution in the Republican platform, and were of opinion that the temperance cause could be best promoted through the agency of the Republican party. These were, however, in the minority; and N. G. Hitchborn, of Stockton, was nominated by the convention as candidate for Governor. The resolutions adopted were as follows:

Recognizing the responsibility we take in placing a candidate before the people for their suffrages, in opposition to the two great parties now existing in the State, we deem it proper to make the following statement of principles:

We are in favor of equal rights, and even and exact justice to all. We are in favor of sustaining the public credit, and to this end will use our endeavors to have the national debt and interest paid as fast as the resources of the country will warrant. We are in favor of State legislation to develop the resources of the State, and to aid and encourage its productions and manufactures.

And, believing that temperance will best promote all these causes, and aid in all these endeavors, we are in favor of the total prohibition of the liquor-traffic, except so far as recognized by the laws, and of a State police as an efficient auxiliary toward that object; therefore,

Resolved, That we view with pleasure the peace and prosperity of our country, and acknowledge with gratitude our obligations to those patriotic men and wise statesmen who have been instrumental in producing it.

Resolved, That we will aid by our influence and votes in sustaining the public credit by meeting all its obligations honestly and fully.

Resolved, That we are in favor of developing by State legislation, so far as consistent with true economy, all the vast resources of our State.

Resolved, That we believe that temperance will best conserve the true interests of our State and our country; and that we believe in the total prohibition of the liquor-traffic, and in a State police as an effective auxiliary to this end.

Resolved, That we confidently offer to the suffrages of our fellow-citizens Hon. N. G. Hitchborn as a man who is fully identified with our industrial interests, one, also, who has always been faithful to his trust wherever placed, a friend of the working-man, an encourager of manufacturing, and a man every way worthy the public confidence and support.

It was also voted that the State Committee be authorized to call County Conventions for the purpose of nominating county officers.

On the same day, the 29th of June, the Democratic Convention was held at Bangor, and was attended by 616 delegates. Charles P. Kimball was chosen as president of the convention, and was subsequently nominated as candidate for Governor, which nomination was declined by him. Franklin Smith then received the nomination as candidate for Governor.

The principles of the party were expressed in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of Maine are unalterably opposed to the present protective tariff system, so destructive to the commercial, shipbuilding and general business interests and prosperity of the country; and we reaffirm our adherence to the doctrine of free trade; the maintenance of the rights of the States unimpaired; equality in taxation, including United States bonds; a uniform currency; opposition to the centralization of power in the General Government; and in favor of an economical and just administration of the public affairs, in accordance with the principles of the Constitution of the United States; and we believe that the history and record of the Democratic party furnish a sure guarantee that in the event of their ascendency they will settle all questions which agitate the public mind in such a manner as to conduce to the welfare of the people.

Resolved, That our gallant soldiers and sailors who fought the battles of the Union from patriotic motives are entitled to the gratitude and support of the people.

Resolved, That we take pride in presenting to the people of this State General Franklin Smith as our candidate for the high office of Governor.

After a vigorous campaign, the election was held on the 13th of September, and resulted in a Republican success. The whole number of votes cast was 95,275, of which 20 were scattering.

There were cast for Chamberlain, 51,439; Smith, 39,033; Hitchborn, 4,783.

Chamberlain therefore received 12,406 votes more than Smith, and 7,628 more than Smith and Hitchborn.

In 1868 the whole number of votes cast for Governor was 131,266, of which Chamberlain received 75,835, and Pillsbury, the Democratic candidate, received 55,431. Chamberlain's majority in 1868 was 20,404.

The political complexion of the Legislature for the year 1870 is:

	Senate.	House.
Republicans	28	121
Democrats	3	30
Republican majority	25	91

There has been a marked improvement for the past year in the success of the common schools, which have been in a most flourishing condition. A bill was passed by the Legislature in January, providing for the appointment in each county of a supervisor to visit the schools of the county and exercise a general superintendence over them; also that the State Superintendent and the County Supervisors should constitute a State Board of Education, which should hold at least one session a year, to mature plans for the operations of the schools. Provision was also made for holding annually, in each county, a Teachers' Institute, to remain in session for ten days, for the purpose of affording instruction to teachers by means of lectures and addresses, with a view to prepare them for a more successful discharge of their duties.

During the year, $1,100,000 have been expended for school purposes, of which the sum of $800,000 was raised by direct taxation. The number of scholars in attendance upon the public schools, for the year 1869, was 226,143, being an increase of 943 over the attendance of 1868. The average attendance in 1869 was 50 per cent. of the whole, while in 1868 it was 42 per cent., showing a gain of 8 per cent. in the attendance of last year. There were 121 new school-houses built during this year, at an aggregate cost of $175,094; in the year 1868 there were 93 built, at a cost of $272,744.

The sanitary and reformatory institutions of the State are reported to be under efficient management. The hospital accommodations for the insane are not adequate to the number of applicants. It is estimated that there are from 1,200 to 1,500 insane persons in the State, who need the care and comfort of an asylum, while the accommodations are sufficient for only about one-third of that number. The construction of another hospital is recommended, to be devoted exclusively to one sex. The Maine Insane Hospital has been full during the year. In this institution there were remaining at the close of the fiscal year—30th November, 1868—339 patients, 156 males and 183 females. Since then, there have been 150 admitted—78 males and 72 females, making the whole number under treatment 489—234 males and 255 females. 152 have been discharged, 75 males and 77 females, leaving in the hospital on the 30th November, 1869, 337—158 males and 179 females.

The following appeared to be the condition of those discharged: recovered, 68—32 males and 36 females; improved, 28—14 males and 14 females; unimproved, 14—7 males and 7 females; 23 males and 19 females have died.

The assigned causes of insanity of those admitted during the year were as follows: Ill-health, 24; intemperance, 15; epilepsy, 10; domestic affliction, 11; over-exertion, 8; disappointed affection, 6; injury of head, 5; critical period of life, 5; puerperal, 5; decay of old age, 4; religious excitement, 4; masturbation, 3; pecuniary embarrassment, 3; paralysis, 3; fright, 1; sunstroke, 1; suppressed eruption, 1; unknown, 37.

There has been an increase of crime for the year 1869. The report of the Warden and Inspectors of the State Prison shows that at the close of the year ending November 30, 1869, there were 174 convicts in that institution, the largest number ever confined there, and an increase of 11 per cent. over the number incarcerated the previous year. Of the number confined, 116 are natives of Maine, 26 of other States, and 32 of foreign countries. The counties of Penobscot and Cumberland furnish the largest number, 24 and 32 respectively. Seven per cent. of the committals the past year have been recommitments of those who were only in for a term averaging little over a year, which leads the Warden to be adverse to short sentences, or less than three years. The earnings of the prison have been increased, which

is a direct result of a more extensive and profitable employment of the inmates.

The finances of the State are in a prosperous condition:

Receipts for the year 1869	$939,814 50
Cash in the Treasury, January 1, 1869	215,725 93
Total	$1,155,540 43
Expenditures for the year 1869	919,609 80
Cash balance in the Treasury December 31, 1869	$235,930 63

The whole public debt on the 1st of January, 1870, including the civil and war debt and the municipal reimbursement loan, amounted to $8,100,900. The amount of the civil debt was $384,000; and that of the war debt, $4,632,500. Of the war debt $800,000 falls due in 1871. The sinking fund arising from the tax of three-fourths of a mill on the dollar now amounts to $972,530, which will be more than sufficient to pay the funded debt falling due in 1871.

The number of savings-banks in Maine is thirty-seven. The deposits in these, for the year 1869, amounted to $10,839,955, and were made by about 40,000 depositors, making an average of a little over $250 for each depositor. The Executive of the State does not approve of taxing these savings-banks.

The consideration of the bill for establishment of a State police, to secure a more rigid execution of the prohibitory law, having been postponed from the last Legislature, Governor Chamberlain took occasion, in his annual message to the Legislature, to speak of the inexpediency of such a measure. "It is proper," he says, "that I should inform you that there seems to be a general falling off in respect for our liquor laws. The enforcement of these laws comes in no manner within the power of the Executive. It very properly devolves upon municipal officers, and the degree of their zeal and efficiency is measured by the prevaling local sentiment. It is not an unreasonable theory that the State should secure the even and impartial execution of her laws throughout her jurisdiction. So far probably all good citizens would agree; but the erection of a special police for the purpose mainly of enforcing the liquor law beyond, certainly, if not against, the wishes of the municipalities, has been urged by some as a proper measure and proclaimed by a few as a test of allegiance, to the cause of temperance. But, in a government like ours, one of the most delicate things which a State could be called upon to do is, to invade the ancient rights and dignities of towns, which the historian and statesman know are at the foundation of our liberties. It is still more difficult when the issue is upon a contested question of social ethics, or public morals, on which even good men might be divided, and bad men find pretext for giving the most dangerous passions way. The antagonism to excessive measures is likely to react against a virtue which all good citizens hold high. Unfortunately we have made the experiment our own; and the salutary lesson to be learned from it may warrant me in taking public notice of it here."

MARCH, ALDEN, M. D., LL. D., an eminent surgeon and medical professor, born in Sutton, Worcester County, Mass., in 1795; died at Albany, N. Y., June 17, 1869. His early life was passed on a farm, and the rudiments of his education acquired in public schools, in which, for a short time, he was a teacher. Having studied medicine with an elder brother who was a surgeon in the U. S. Army, he attended medical lectures in Boston, and subsequently graduated at Brown University, Providence, which, at that time, had a Department of Medicine. While a student, he was distinguished for his zeal and industry in the study of anatomy, and thus laid the foundation of his future surgical renown. In 1820 he went to Albany, and entered upon the practice of his profession, in which he continued actively engaged up to the period of his death. No improvement in his profession escaped his attention and investigation. His bold and independent habits of thought and action were always conspicuous, and he originated many new and important improvements in surgical science. As a bold, dexterous, and skilful operator, Dr. March had no superior in this or any country. Few persons ever combined so many of the elements of a great and successful surgeon. He had a frame of wonderful power and endurance, a mind of electric quickness and ceaseless activity, with skill in discrimination and tact and dexterity in execution, which carried him successfully through the most difficult and trying ordeal of surgical practice. He was never dismayed by the magnitude or danger of a surgical operation, upon which, perhaps, the safety or life of his patient depended. Having prepared himself for every emergency, he would commence an operation with calmness and self-possession, which inspired hope and confidence in his patients, and excited admiration and astonishment among his assistants and associates. Dr. March was the father and one of the founders of the Albany Medical College, at the head of which institution he continued for thirty years, having previously labored eighteen years to prepare the way for its establishment. He was also identified with the foundation of the Albany City Hospital, and among the last acts of his life donated to each of these institutions the sum of $1,000, and to the college he bequeathed his pathological museum, the most valuable in this country. He received his degree of LL. D. from Williams College, and was an honorary member of most of the leading medical societies in the United States.

MARYLAND. The sessions of the Legislature of the State of Maryland are biennial, and occur only on the even years; there was, therefore, no meeting in 1869.

The Comptroller's annual report shows that the total receipts into the treasury for the fis-

cal year ending 30th September, 1869, were $3,002,090.58, which, added to the balance in the treasury 30th September, 1868, $482,551.01, makes the aggregate for the fiscal year $3,484,641.59. The total disbursements of the same year were $3,039,301.18, leaving a remainder in the treasury September 30, 1869, of $445,340.41. The aggregate debts of the State, for which interest has to be provided, were, on the 30th September, 1869, $12,692,938.96.

As an offset to this debt, and to liquidate which, if it is deemed advisable to dispose of any part of them, the State holds bonds and stocks, on which the interests and dividends are promptly paid, to the amount of $7,228,413.18, leaving a balance of debt, due by the State, of $5,464,525.74, against which, however, she holds present unproductive stocks and bonds in the different works of internal improvements, amounting (including an insignificant sum of bank, bridge, and penitentiary indebtedness) to $19,676,632.08. But there is also due to the State from incorporated institutions, collectors of taxes, sheriffs, inspectors, registrars of wills, clerks of courts, and such other State officers, $1,562,151.89. Of this large sum it may be estimated that one million dollars will be returned into the treasury, leaving the debt of the State over its productive assets less than four and a half million dollars. It will thus be seen that the total actual debt of the State, after deducting the sinking fund and her reliable assets, is considerably less than one-fourth of her temporarily unproductive assets.

Of the funded debts contracted by the State, $988,622 matured in 1865, to cancel which no arrangements have yet been made; $1,403,146.86 will mature in 1870; $100,000 of "Southern Relief Bonds" become due in 1873; and all other loans of the State have from ten to twenty years to run. During the years 1866, 1867, and 1868, the increase of crime was so rapid in Maryland that the necessity of a new penitentiary was deemed immediate, but the records of 1869 show that there was no increase during that year; the average number constantly in the prison was the same as 1868, while the total number committed (317) was 26 less than the average of the three preceding years.

The gross cost for maintaining the prison for the fiscal year ending with the 30th of November, 1869, was.....	$72,716 12
The sum received during the same period for hire of convict labor, etc., was.....	38,953 45
Expense to the State.....	$33,762 67

The statistics constituting a part of the report of the Directors exhibit the fact that, on the 30th of November, 1869, there were four hundred and fifty-seven colored and but two hundred and twenty-three white prisoners.

The General Assembly, at its session in 1867, passed an act to establish and incorporate an asylum for the deaf and dumb of the State of Maryland. By the provision of this act, "the armory-grounds at Frederick City, with the buildings thereon, are set apart for the occupation and sole use of the said institute, with full power and authority to erect thereon such additional buildings as may be needed," etc., "the sum of twenty-five thousand dollars, to be used in the construction of the buildings hereinafter provided for, is appropriated," and a further annual appropriation, of so much of five thousand dollars as is necessary for the support and maintenance of the society, is made. The institution is now in successful operation, and has been for more than a year. By the terms of the act creating it, it is required to "receive and educate all deaf and dumb persons sent to said institution, free of charge, who present a certificate of the Orphans' Court or County Commissioners, that they, their parents or guardians, are unable to educate or support them, and in all other cases they are permitted to charge a sum not exceeding two hundred and fifty dollars per annum."

The question of railroads and canals was one of engrossing interest throughout the State, and entered largely into the political history of the year, the position of each candidate in reference to the building of new avenues of communication being made a test question at the polls. The influence of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad was brought to bear against all lines likely to interfere with their monopoly; but the complexion of the Assembly is of a liberal character, while the Governor is avowedly in favor of all public works calculated to further the prosperity of the State. He defines his position in the following language:

> It is no hostility to any railroad which has led me to favor the construction of all roads and canals which can be built in Maryland, and to favor their independent operation after they are built. It is because I would extend the same railroad facilities to the people of Southern Maryland, for which they have been so grievously taxed to afford them to all other sections of the State, that I have alike urged the building of the Baltimore and Potomac road, to which the Baltimore and Ohio is so hostile; the Metropolitan, which is one of its own branches, and the Southern Maryland and Drum Point roads, which the Baltimore and Ohio has the opportunity of building, as it had that of the Baltimore and Potomac offered it, and which it contemptuously rejected. It is because I would aid the prosperity of the city of Baltimore by giving it cheap coal for its purposes of fuel, of manufactures, and of steamship uses, and, by pouring into its markets the agricultural and mineral wealth of the counties of Baltimore, Carroll, Frederick, Washington, and Alleghany; because I would increase the prosperity of the people of these counties by giving them increased facilities, and thus enhance the value of their lands and decrease proportionately the taxes of other parts of the State; and because I would open up, in every practical way, to the markets of the world, the immense coal-fields of Alleghany.

By the act of incorporation of the Baltimore and Washington road, a branch of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, it is required that

the company "shall pay to the Treasurer of Maryland, on the first Monday of January and July, in each and every year, for the use of the State, one-fifth of the whole amount which may be received for the transportation of passengers on said railroad, by said company, during six months last preceding." It is further required that "the president shall exhibit, on oath, to the General Assembly, on the first day of January, or as soon thereafter as the said Assembly shall convene, in each and every year, an account showing the gross amount received by said company for the transportation of passengers on said road, and the State's proportion thereof." This amount has been withheld from the State since the middle of 1868, and it is stated that the directors of the Baltimore and Ohio road, at a meeting held in December, resolved to refuse compliance with the terms of the charter, for the following reasons:

1. The Baltimore and Ohio Company had, by its charter, the right to build lateral roads, and therefore the Washington branch, without the condition subsequently enacted by the State in granting the charter of the Washington road.

2. The large returns made to the State had compensated the State for the risk she took by her aid.

3. That the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, in the case of Crandall *vs.* the State of Nevada, would exempt the company from an enforced payment.

4. The building of the Baltimore and Potomac road, which would be a competing road for travel between Baltimore and Washington.

If the company succeeds in maintaining the position its officers have taken, it will cut off one important source of revenue to the State, and compel the Legislature to provide for the deficiency by increased general taxation.

Among the public works of the State yet in course of construction is the Western Maryland Railroad. Its importance to the western portion of the State, and to the city of Baltimore, can scarcely be exaggerated. It will, when completed, develop one of the most productive, yet hitherto one of the most inaccessible, parts of the State; will regain a valuable trade which legitimately appertains to the city of Baltimore, but which has been wrested from it by the superior energy of its Pennsylvania neighbors, and will contribute very largely to increase the facilities for moving coal and other minerals, especially iron ore, which abounds in great quantities on and near the line of this road. The grading of the road to Hagerstown is, to a great extent, finished, and but comparatively little remains to be done to complete the work and lay the rails, and the Chesapeake and Ohio Canal can be reached at Williamsport by a short route, with easy grades. The unprecedented high prices of materials and labor, however, and other unforeseen causes, have brought upon the company serious embarrassments, and it can look only to the mayor and City Council of Baltimore for extrication. That city has already become a subscriber to $2,000,000 of the stock of the company, and has indorsed its bonds to the extent of $500,000 more. The mayor and City Council, appreciating the importance of prompt assistance in the unfinished and exposed condition of the road, and desirous of avoiding the necessity of waiting for the session of the General Assembly, in June, passed an ordinance providing that the sum of $1,000,000 should be raised by the hypothecation of a sufficient amount of the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad stock belonging to the city, and invested in bonds to be issued by the company. The constitutional validity of the ordinance was tested by certain taxpayers of the city, because it was believed by them to create a debt within the sense of the constitution, without the previous requisites of an act of Assembly and vote of the people, and the Court of Appeals, without expressing any views adverse to the sound policy of the measure, arrived at the conclusion that the ordinance was in that form unconstitutional. The mayor and City Council, appreciating the renewed importance of immediate action, again moved in the matter, and an ordinance was reported in the Councils by which the aid can be given in accordance with the views expressed by the Court.

The Legislature which was to meet January 5, 1870, will probably perfect the necessary legislation for its submission to a popular vote.

The Baltimore and Potomac Railroad is rapidly progressing. Forty miles of it were graded during the last year; the rest of the grading is already under contract or will be immediately. Much heavy bridging has been constructed; many cross-ties have been purchased and delivered along the line; and the completion of the whole road from Baltimore to the Potomac River, in Charles County, within two years, is confidently predicted. The importance of this road to the State, opening, as it does, another communication between the capital of the country and the great commercial metropolis of the State, and establishing direct railway, and the shortest connection between Baltimore and the South and Southwest, cannot be overestimated.

The Metropolitan Road has been commenced. The Southern Maryland Railroad has been surveyed, its Board of Directors organized, and it is said the road will soon be placed under contract; the Drum Point road has also been surveyed and favorably reported on; and the Maryland Central road is in active and interested hands. The work on the Frederick and Pennsylvania Line Railroad is progressing finely, and according to the terms of the contracts must be finished by May 1, 1870. The work on the Parkton and Manchester Railroad was commenced about the middle of October,

and it is expected that the grading will be completed by August, 1870.

The Kent County Railroad, from Massey's Cross-roads, in Kent County, toward Deep Landing on the Chesapeake Bay, was finished to within nine miles of Massey's in December, and it is proposed, if aid can be secured in Baltimore, to extend it to the Chesapeake. The proposed road would cross or connect with all the branch roads which are now tributary to the Delaware Railroad from the Eastern Shore counties, by diverting the trade and travel of the Eastern Shore (which is going to Philadelphia) to the city of Baltimore.

The people of Middletown Valley are agitating the building of a railroad from the Point of Rocks on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad to Middletown, and thence by way of Smithsburg to Waynesboro' and Chambersburg, Pa. This road would traverse a rich and populous country, and it is said could be easily and cheaply constructed.

The annual report of the Superintendent of Public Schools shows that there are 1,347 schools in the State, and 75,402 pupils enrolled. The total expenditure for school purposes during the year was $751,310, or $239,504 more than in 1867. The school system is growing in favor with the people. The schools have been open for a longer time; a greater number of scholars have been in attendance; a larger sum has been raised by local taxation; higher salaries have been paid to teachers, and more money has been spent in building, repairing, and furnishing school-houses.

There are 123 colored schools in the State, numbering 5,448 scholars, of which 65 of the schools, numbering 2,489 scholars, are under the care of the Baltimore Association. There is also a flourishing Normal School in Baltimore, for colored people, with an average attendance of 210 scholars.

The oyster-trade of Maryland is one of its great sources of wealth. The extent of the oyster-beds is about 373 square miles, 92 of which are closely covered and the remainder scattering. This field could be made to give profitable employment to 20,000 laborors in a few years from this, under the administration of proper laws. Last season there were 563 vessels licensed to dredge for oysters, averaging 23 tons each, carrying about 800 bushels at a load, and making two loads a month to market for say seven months of the year, summing up 6,305,600 bushels taken by the dredgers. During the same period there were 1,907 canoes licensed, each taking about five bushels per day for twenty-six days of the month, and seven months of the year, making 1,735,370 bushels taken by the tongmen, for sale, which, with say 2,000,000 bushels taking during the season for "private use," will give an aggregate of about 10,000,000 bushels taken from the beds of Maryland annually. These oysters will average not less than thirty-five cents per bushel, which gives, in round numbers, $3,500,000 as the annual value of the oyster product, from which the State derives an income of $40,000 above expenses. The 563 dredging-vessels employed 2,107 white men, and 1,453 negroes. The canoes employed about 3,325 in all, with the same proportion of white and negro labor; making a total of 6,885 men, independently of the labor employed in the carrying-trade, which would probably swell the number to between 9,000 and 10,000 hands employed *afloat* in the oyster business.

The great coal-fields of Maryland are almost inexhaustible. What is known as the "Big Vein" has, it is calculated, 200,000,000 of tons still untouched. During the year, 2,000,000 tons were mined, at which rate, the vein will last one hundred years. The four and six feet veins are estimated to contain about twice as much as the "Big Vein."

The coal produced during the year 1868 was 1,330,000 tons, while the amount actually removed from the mining district was as follows:

	Tons.
By Cumberland and Pennsylvania Railroad	1,575,000
By Cumberland Coal and Iron Company's Railroad	200,000
By Hampshire (Tram) Railroad	125,000
Total	1,900,000

The harbor of Baltimore has been greatly improved by the opening of a new channel, which has been named the Craighill Channel. By this channel, which is at the mouth of the Patapsco River, vessels drawing nineteen or twenty feet at average low water will save from three and a half to five miles of distance, and avoid much if not all of the danger usually experienced from the accumulation of ice in the lower part of the Brewerton Channel during the winter. This new channel deflects from the Brewerton Channel at a point three-fourths of a mile to the eastward of the Seven-foot Knoll Light (this light bearing southwest three-quarters west), and runs from said point in the Brewerton Channel south, one-quarter west, directly toward the end of Sandy Point, a distance of about five miles, to the deep water of the bay. The channel has been opened at the present time to a least depth of 21 feet at mean low water, and a least width of 200 feet, though it is in contemplation to widen it to a width of between 300 and 400 feet.

On the 1st of June, a State Convention of Colored Republicans, representing nearly every county in the State, was held in the city of Baltimore, in view of the anticipated extension of the right of suffrage to them. The convention was marked by great confusion, and much dissatisfaction was expressed by large numbers of the persons supposed to be represented.

The following were some of the resolutions adopted as the platform of the party:

Whereas, There do exist throughout these United States certain monopolies known as trades-unions and other organizations of mechanics, whose known opposition to the introduction of colored apprentices

into all the mechanical branches of business does exist even as one of the fundamental principles of their organization; and

Whereas, We claim that the colored American in his relationship to national industry is identical with that of the white American, this idea is in harmony with the great declaration of principles made by the fathers that all men were created equal, free, and endowed by their Creator with certain inalienable rights; that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness: therefore

Resolved, That we hold these truths to be self-evident, that any exclusion in the admission of apprentices in the workshops of the country, on account of race or color, is unjust in its interest and anti-republican in its form.

And further resolved, We pledge ourselves to make this question of the exclusion of colored apprentices from the workshops of the country our political watchword, and that we will support no man and no party that supports these exclusive principles.

Resolved, That this convention return a vote of thanks to President Grant for his hearty indorsement of the fifteenth amendment to the United States Constitution on colored suffrage.

Resolved, That we regard it as an innovation on the rights of our people in excluding them from our city public schools as teachers for the great crime of being black.

Resolved, That ladies and gentlemen have the right to enjoy what they pay for, regardless of color.

Resolved, That the colored Republican citizens of the State of Maryland in State Convention assembled this 1st day of June, 1869, return our sincere and united thanks to that Supreme Being who ruleth the destinies of the universe, her people and nations, for having permitted us to see this, the long-hoped-for time, when we can assemble beneath the protecting folds of our country's starry emblem of protection and grandeur, and there openly and boldly assert that we are free American citizens, and that the flag floats over none other than freemen on American soil.

Resolved, That we return our sincere thanks to the Federal officers throughout the country for their appointments, to offices of trust and profit, of colored citizens; for that has demonstrated to us that they have acted irrespective of race or color, and we assure them that when Maryland's 40,000 colored Republican citizens can wield the ballot, that they who have taken the front in doing our brothers justice shall not be forgotten; we will likewise remember those gentlemen in this our native State that have defined the word office so as to mean position.

Resolved, That we maintain and recognize the justice and expediency of according to all men equal political rights.

Resolved, That we pledge ourselves to support at all times the regular nominee of the Republican party.

Whereas, President Ulysses S. Grant and his Cabinet have nobly recognized the ballots of 700,000 colored Republicans who aided in securing their triumphant election, by appointing colored men to high positions as foreign ministers, consuls-general, assessors of internal revenue, one judge of court, postmasters, justices of the peace, etc.: therefore,

Resolved, That we, the colored Republicans of Maryland in State Convention assembled, do fully realize the healthful influence of these humane and practical acts for which our hearts and the hearts of our long-neglected and patient race shall ever burn with indelible gratitude to them for their just recognition and impartial manifestation in acknowledging the claims of all American citizens.

Resolved, That the colored people are citizens and men, and having always by taxation borne their portion of the public expense; always conducting themselves in obedience to the laws of the State, even to degrading and oppressive laws; always ready to render patriotic aid to the State in times of peril; ready to contribute our means for internal improvement to beautify the Commonwealth equally with other citizens; ready to do our whole duty to our State in the most important sense in which duty can be practised, still, with all this and more, we are denied the commonest immunities of manhood already granted in the other States through the progress of liberal public sentiment.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the State to see that we get that which we pay for, by educating all of its citizens at the public expense throughout the State, that we may be better able to discharge the new duties devolving upon us with discretion; that if the Government, as it did during the recent civil war, expects us to bear arms, there is no reason why we should not be allowed, in a time of peace, to organize volunteer companies to acquaint ourselves with military service, and, therefore, we recognize the order of the police commissioners, which discriminates between us and other citizens by forbidding such organizations among us, as an outrage upon our liberties and totally without force of law.

Resolved, That we are, and have been for a long time, in the history of Maryland, submitting patiently to innumerable and constantly-repeated outrages (to some of which we have just referred), as citizens and human beings, excluded as we are from every humanizing privilege pleasantly enjoyed by the citizens of our native State; our females degraded; our wives, children, and ourselves lessened to the level of brutes by being crowded, men and women, together like four-footed animals in the same sleeping apartments, and dirty, filthy cabins of nearly every steamboat running from our native city, on some of which there is not even a division between the sleeping apartments of the men and women; and still more, not even a private place into which the females may retire.

Resolved, That a similar condition of oppressive injustice meets us on nearly every railway train which leaves Baltimore, in being compelled to pay for that which we do not receive by forcing the most respectable colored ladies and gentlemen into smoking-cars, where they are insulted, not only by making them pay for first-class tickets and giving second-class fare, but the obscene language often used by white men in such cars, in the presence of our females, adds another item to the crimes used against us by railway and steamboat companies.

On the 11th of June a mass meeting of colored Republicans was held in Baltimore, at which a long series of resolutions was adopted, the most important being the following:

Resolved, That we, the colored Republicans of Baltimore city, *totally ignore* the so-called Convention of June 1, 1869, believing its acts destructive of the best interests of the colored people of Maryland, and infamous and subversive of the cardinal principles of the great Republican party, viz., freedom of speech and action.

Be it further resolved, That we *particularly* reprobate and ignore that portion of the proceedings of the so-called Convention that arrogates to *men without votes* the control of the political future of our State, even in contemptuous disregard of Divine power, and repudiate this dictatorial action as foreign to the wishes of the masses of the colored people of our State.

June 18th, the colored Republicans of Frederick County assembled in the city of Frederick, and adopted a series of resolutions utterly repudiating the action of the convention of June 1st. The two most important resolutions were the following:

Resolved, 1, That we repel the idea that we have met in the interest of any wing of the Republican party; and aver that we acknowledge allegiance to

no faction, and that we are the firm and unswerving supporters of the great Republican party of the United States. And, so far as the Republican party of Maryland is concerned, we most sincerely hope that all of its deliberations may be characterized by great unity of action.

2. That we feel called upon to ignore the action of the Baltimore Convention of June 1, 1869, and unhesitatingly condemn it as ill-timed, unwise, and calculated to engender a spirit of contention among the colored Republicans, and lead to the formation of petty factions of a most disturbing and mischievous character.

On the 7th of October the Democratic Convention, called to nominate a candidate for the office of Comptroller of the Treasury, met in the city of Baltimore, and, without adopting any "platform," proceeded to ballot for a candidate. There were six contestants, of whom Levin Woolford was the successful one.

The Republican Convention met on the 12th of October, for the purpose of nominating a candidate for Comptroller, and, after adopting a platform, nominated W. A. McKellip.

The following are the resolutions adopted as the platform of the party in the election of Comptroller and members of the State Legislature:

Resolved by the Republicans of Maryland, in General Convention assembled, That we have undiminished confidence in the Administration of President Grant, devoted as it is to the maintenance of the national credit and the enforcement of economy and honesty in all branches of the public service.

Resolved, That repudiation of our national indebtedness is exclusively a Democratic doctrine, and should be, in whatever guise presented, utterly scouted and denounced by every man who cares to preserve either his country's honor or his own.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the enactment of a free railroad law, and the removal of all legislative restrictions upon the development of the agricultural and mineral resources of the State.

Resolved, That as the militia law of the State was enacted for purposes of doubtful loyalty, is unnecessary and produces a wasteful expenditure of the public money and an oppressive capitation tax on the people, it ought to be repealed.

Resolved, That the oyster law recently enacted is, in the opinion of the convention, a mere machine for furnishing place for political partisans, oppressive alike to all engaged in this laborious business, and in no wise calculated to protect the oyster interests or to benefit the treasury of the State, and ought to be repealed or essentially modified.

Resolved, That we are in favor of a comprehensive system of public schools that will give to all classes of our citizens the advantages of education for their children.

Resolved, That we, as national Republicans, stand pledged to the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which gives equal rights to all men, without distinction of race or color.

On the 20th of October the Republican State Central Committee issued an address, reviewing the financial history of the State for the years 1868 and 1869, from which it appears that the appropriations made by the Legislature in March, 1868, were as follows: Special appropriations, $5,307,404.10; general appropriations for 1868, $1,696,998.11; general appropriations for 1869, $1,614,488.11. Total, $8,618,890.32.

The election, held on the 2d of November, resulted in the choice of every candidate on the Democratic ticket, and therefore the Legislature which assembled January 5, 1870, consisted entirely of members of the same political party, a circumstance which has never occurred but once before in any State in the Union, and that was as now in Maryland.

The vote polled was 23,412 for McKellip, Republican; and 52,754 for Woolford, Democrat. Woolford's majority was 29,342.

MASSACHUSETTS. The Legislature assembled on the 5th of January, and remained in session until the 25th of June, thus consuming 171 days—a longer time by one week than that of 1868, which was the longest ever held in this State.

The business accomplished may be briefly summed up as follows: The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was adopted. A number of new branch railroads were chartered. An ocean telegraph company was authorized. Twenty new savings-banks and two or three insurance companies were chartered. A railroad commission and a bureau of statistics were established. The Boston (Methodist) University was chartered. New and stringent game-laws were passed, and about fifty private and miscellaneous corporations were authorized.

The three great measures of the session were: 1. The establishment of a State Board of Health. 2. The abolishment of the district system of public schools, and the revision of the educational system of the State. 3. The enactment of the prohibitory liquor law.

The new school law, in abolishing the old "district system," required the towns where it still existed to take immediate possession of all the school-houses, land, and other property owned and used by the district, to appraise the property and levy a tax for it, and remit the amount to the tax-payers of the several districts. Hereafter the schools will be managed directly by the towns, through the general school committee. The result will be fewer schools and better. There will no longer be schools of one, two, or three scholars, as has frequently been the case in some of the sparsely-populated hill-towns for the last few years. By a supplementary act, union districts and contiguous districts in different towns are also abolished, and the way of appraising the property of such districts is prescribed. Towns shall assume all the debts of districts, and deduct their amount from the amount to be remitted to the districts. By another act, towns may appropriate money for the purpose of providing conveyance for children to and from school. In accordance with the resolves of last year, there have been appropriated $25,000 each to Williams College and the Agassiz Museum of Comparative Zoology. The new appropriations are $1,000 for the purpose of instructing the convicts in the State Prison in reading, writing, and other branches; $10,000

for the new Salem Academy; $50,000 each to the Worcester Free School of Industrial Science and to the Agricultural College; and $80,000 to the Perkins Institute for the Blind. Amherst College and the Institute of Technology had leave to withdraw their petitions for aid.

The liquor law, which was passed, was a revival of the one previously in force. The first eleven sections treat of the commissioner, who shall be appointed by the Governor, give bonds in the penal sum of $20,000, have an office in Boston, where he shall analyze liquors and sell them to the authorized agents, keep record of sales and purchases, and seal all packages of liquor. He and his agents are forbidden to adulterate, or sell adulterated liquor, under pain of imprisonment. The next five sections authorize county commissioners to license the manufacture of liquors, to be exported or sold in thirty-gallon packages for chemical and mechanical purposes, the manufacturer to give bonds in the sum of $6,000, and keep his books open for inspection. The next eight authorize the appointment of bonded agents by cities and towns "to purchase and sell," at some convenient places, spirituous or intoxicating liquors, to be used in the arts, or for medicinal, chemical, and mechanical purposes, and no other. Every agent shall receive a fixed salary, keep open and accurate books, under penalty, purchase of the commissioner only, and make true annual returns. The next two sections provide for an assayer and inspector of liquors. Bond, $10,000. The next three apply to importers, druggists, and chemists. An importer of foreign liquors is allowed to sell the same, unadulterated, in the original packages in which they were imported. Druggists may sell for medicinal purposes to each other; and a chemist, artist, or manufacturer, may keep liquors for use, but not for sale; and any person may manufacture and sell cider for other purposes than as a beverage, and unadulterated wine for sacramental purposes. The next thirty-five sections forbid the manufacture or sale, except as above provided, or the keeping with intent to sell. Whoever by himself or by another person, directly or indirectly, or by any device, parts with liquor for a consideration in violation of the above provisions, is liable for the first offence to a fine of $10 and thirty days' imprisonment; for the second, $20 and sixty days'; for the third and every subsequent one, $50 and six months'. The whole machinery of evidence, search, and forfeiture, is then minutely detailed, and provision is made for searching any house where liquor is suspected to be sold, or concealed for purpose of sale. The last section provides the legal forms that are to be used. Cider is stricken from the lists of intoxicants.

The financial condition of the State is given in the following statement, which was carefully prepared for the information of the Legislature of 1870, and was incorporated in the Governor's message:

Funded debt	$29,737,259 90
Temporary loans	1,086,130 12
Total amount of debt January 1, 1870	$30,823,390 02
Increase during the year	$2,087,509 97
The sinking funds established for the redemption of the debt amounted on the 1st of January, 1870, to	$11,476,351 27
Cash on hand, applicable also to the payment of the debt	1,054,710 51
Back Bay lands fund in the Treasury (which may be used for this purpose)	286,922 62
These sums deducted leave an indebtedness of the State, for which still further provision is to be made, of	18,055,395 56
From this last item there must be deducted the loan to the Western Railroad (not provided for in the sinking funds), of	1,621,239 30
Loan to the Boston, Hartford and Erie Railroad (unprovided for in the sinking funds)	2,832,154 00
Loan to the Norwich Railroad (unprovided for in the sinking funds)	146,864 00
Loan to the Eastern Railroad	125,000 00
Total	$4,725,250 30
Which leaves to be provided for by the State, principal and interest, the sum of	13,330,145 26
There are several other items which will ultimately reduce the debt. Among these may be mentioned the receipts for the Back Bay lands, which are estimated at	1,500,000 00
Land sold to the Boston and Albany Railroad	435,000 00
And the balance of the unsettled claims against the United States Government, which are estimated at	400,000 00

This shows that the State is obliged to pay, from current revenue and taxation, interest on about $13,500,000. A large portion of the loan is issued at five per cent. interest, payable in gold. This indebtedness will be increased annually for the next four years about one million dollars, by payments to the contractors for the work on the Hoosac Tunnel, under their agreement with the Commonwealth.

This amount, with that still to be issued to the Boston, Hartford, and Erie Railway, will swell the liabilities of the State to $35,000,000.

The following statement shows the Treasurer's balance-sheet for the year:

Revenue receipts for the year 1869	$5,722,394 91	
Receipts on account of sinking funds, loans, etc	11,329,353 84	
Cash on hand, January 1, 1869	1,161,933 80	
		$18,213,681 55
Ordinary expenses, 1869	$5,450,227 47	
Payments, sinking funds, etc	10,620,645 27	
Cash on hand, January 1, 1870	2,142,808 81	
		$18,213,681 55

The revenue receipts for 1869 exceed those of 1868 in the sum of $612,458.68, while the ordinary expenses are less than in 1868 by $459,451.01. The revenue account of 1869 shows a surplus of $272,167.44, while in 1868 there was a deficiency of $798,742.25. The estimated expenses for 1870 are $5,754,320, and the revenue, $2,905,162, leaving a deficiency of $2,854,157 to be supplied by taxation. The interest on the Troy and Greenfield Railroad loan will make up $810,000 of this, and the conditional advances on the Hoosac Tunnel contract $840,000, reducing the amount of deficiency on the ordinary running expenses to $2,204,157.

The taxable property of the State, for the years 1868 and 1869, was as follows:

	1868.	1869.
Assessors' aggregates of real and personal property	$1,220,305,939	$1,341,169,403
Savings-banks deposits	94,838,336	112,119,016
Taxable excess of corporations	92,326,758	95,167,745
Total	$1,407,471,033	$1,548,456,164
Increase in 1869		140,985,134

The principal items of the Tax Commissioner's report are the following:

Amount of tax assessed on general list	$1,477,003
Amount assessed on oil companies, etc.	15,911
Total	$1,492,914
Taxes of 1869 paid	1,429,495
Taxes of former years paid	28,420
Remaining unpaid of taxes of former years	56,708

	1868.	1869.
Aggregate valuation of corporate stocks	$181,173,768	$193,742,793
Value of real estate and machinery	92,328,420	100,801,756
Excess on which a tax was laid.	92,326,758	95,167,726
Whole number of corporations taxable		1,261
On general list		1,084
Oil companies, etc.		1797
Made returns		103
Authorized increase of corporate capital by special act		$96,610,000
Under general laws		6,804,365
Reductions		1,278,000
Net increase		$75,136,365

The State Reform School is doing a noble work in the redemption of boys from the paths of vice, and fitting them for lives of usefulness. The report of the superintendent shows the number of boys in the school, September 30, 1868, to have been 321; number received during the year, 167; whole number, in school during the year, 488. There were apprenticed, released, discharged, etc., 193, leaving in school, September 30, 1869, 295. The total receipts of the school were $75,-364.73; the .expenses were $56,901.59.

The Massachusetts School for Idiotic and Feeble-minded Youths is too small for the demands upon it. The whole number of inmates at the close of the last year was 85. Since then 23 have been admitted, 17 have been discharged, four have died, and the present number is 87. The whole number treated has been 108. Seventeen have been discharged, and, among these, four are already known as doing so well that they can earn their livelihood. The new wing has been entirely completed during the year, and proves to be very convenient and advantageous in all respects. The superintendent of the State Almshouse at Tewksbury reports the whole number supported during the year to have been 2,140 The actual average weekly number supported is 710, at a gross cost of $78,331.19—which is $2.12 for the support of each one of the 710 persons, per week. It must be understood that this amount covers the entire cash expenditure for all purposes for the year.

The report of the Inspector of the State Almshouse and Primary School at Monson shows that at the time of the last report the number of inmates of the institution was 137; admitted during the year, 756—total, 893. The number of children actually attending school at the present time is 285, of whom 226 are boys and 59 girls. The average age of pupils has been nine years, and the average days of attendance for each has been 130. The superintendent of the institution says: "Dividing the actual amount drawn from the treasury of the Commonwealth, $45,663.11, by the average number of inmates, 500, gives an annual cost of $91.32, and a weekly cost of $1.75 for each inmate."

Dividing the current expenses, minus the increase of the personal assets, $3,379.35, we have the annual cost, $84.56, and the weekly cost, $1.62½. If to the current expenses be added the extraordinary expenses, $4,563.79, and the balance of the special appropriation expended, $3,047.77, the weekly cost will be $2.05 against $3.84 for the last year, made on the same basis. Whole number of deaths since the opening of the institution: males, 523; females, 485—total, 1,008.

The inspectors state that the whole number of inmates of the State Almshouse and Workhouse at Bridgewater was unusually small during the year. At the date of the report the following was the condition of the institutions:

Whole number in the almshouse	81
Whole number in the workhouse	23

By the superintendent's statement it is ascertained that—

The total current expenses were	$35,511 88
Receipts from State Treasury	35,511 88
" " labor of inmates	4,973 35
" " farm sales	726 12

From the report of the superintendent of the State Lunatic Hospital at Worcester, it appears that 337 patients were admitted during the year just closed, of whom 171 were males and 166 were females.

At the close of the previous year there were 382 patients remaining in the hospital, of whom 188 were males and 194 were females; so that there were 719 persons under treatment in the course of the year, of whom 359 were males and 360 were females.

The number of patients discharged was 343, of whom 169 were males and 174 were females. Of the 343 patients discharged, 149 were restored to their usual health of body and mind, 186 were improved, many of them so much so as to be able to return to their ordinary duties, and 11 were discharged as not improved.

The trustees state that on the 30th of September, 1868, the number of patients in the State Lunatic Hospital, at Northampton, was 421. In the course of the official year 169 have been admitted; 163 have been discharged; and 25 have died; leaving 402 in the house at the present time. The largest number on any day was 422; the smallest, 389; and the daily average for the year, 405. This average is larger than in any foregoing year except the next preceding. The superintendent thus gives the condition of the patients discharged: recovered, 49; improved, 51; unimproved, 63; died, 25—total, 188.

The statistical tables of the warden of the State Prison show a steady increase in the

number of prisoners, the largest number at any one time during the past year being 600, an increase of 36 over the largest number of 1868. The receipts in cash for the financial year ending September 30th were $132,466.74, which, with stock on hand of $7,290.87, makes a total of $139,757.61; and the expenditures in cash have been $104,020.84, which, with stock on hand, October 1, 1868, of $7,161.40, makes a total of $111,182.24, and a balance of $28,575.37 in favor of the prison. The labor of the convicts is hired out by contract, the present prices obtained varying from 83 cents to $1.07 per day.

The total number of girls cared for at the State Industrial School for Girls at Lancaster, during the year, was 252, of which number 189 remained in the institution October 1st.

The report of the superintendent of the State Nautical School shows the number of boys in the ship, October 1, 1868, to have been 381; committed and received from other sources during the year, 195; total, 476. Number shipped, discharged, escaped, etc., 206; remaining in school, 270.

The Treasurer's report shows the receipt of $5,939.40; amount expended, $5,618.89; cash on hand, $320.51.

The following is a condensed abstract of the report of the State Constable of the operations of the force during the year:

Prosecuted during the Year 1869—*Criminal Cases.*

All classes	3,459
Liquor prosecutions	6,808
Total	10,267
Number of officers on duty	150
Violations of license law	2,080
Violations of prohibitory law	3,353
Liquor seizures	1,395
Total	6,808
Gallons seized—alcohol	10,376¼
" " ale	25,533¾
Total	35,910
Stolen property recovered and restored to owners	$18,975 25

Expenses of State Police.	Fines and Costs paid in to County Treasuries.
1866... $81,939 14	$52,486 65
1867.... 129,660 99	226,427 19
1868.... 100,284 96	72,497 49
1869.... 161,253 76	141,277 68
$473,138 85	$492,678 95
Deduct expenses	473,138 85
Balance in favor of State Police	$19,540 10

Appropriations.	Expenditures.
1866.... $85,650 00	$81,939 14
1867.... 154,800 00	129,660 99
1868.... 114,800 00	100,284 96
1869.... 199,304 90	161,253 76
$557,554 90	$473,138 85
473,138 85	

$84,416 05 unexpended balance.

Number of liquor dealers abandoned the traffic	1,094
Witness-fees earned during the year	$20,290 16
" " received " "	5,881 09
Retained for use of counties	14,409 07
Pedlars' license fees	45,000 00
Paid over to Surgeon-General Dale, for benefit of sick and disabled soldiers and sailors, half fines and costs imposed on unlicensed pedlars prosecuted	1,270 00

The report of Colonel Gardiner Tufts, Massachusetts State agent at Washington, can be summed up as follows:

Whole amount claimed from United States	$3,744,044
Received prior to 1867	2,555,750
Received between 1867 and 1869	982,173
Received in 1869	84,790
Expected in a month	216,464

The final report of the agency, to which Colonel Tufts alludes as not far distant, will show a collection of 99 per cent. of all the claims of the State, against the General Government. The question of the liability of the United States, for the interest on money borrowed by the States to carry on the war, is now in controversy, and its decision will affect the final settlements. The State has also an unsettled claim for $280,000 for money expended in coast defence, which will probably be favorably decided. The expenses of Colonel Tufts's agency, last year, were only $6,384.

The 26th registration report of the Secretary of the Commonwealth for 1867 was published during the year, and gives the following statistics:

	Total.	Males.	Females.
Born	35,063	17,891	17,171
Married	28,902	14,451	14,451
Died	22,773	11,376	11,396

Of the marriages, 8,488 were between parties altogether of American birth; in 5,878, one or both of the parties were of foreign birth, and the nativity of 135 couples was unknown. The number of births increased by 977 over the year 1866, and was up to the average of the six years preceding the war; the marriages increased by 23, and were the most numerous ever recorded; the deaths were 865 less than during the preceding year, and were less than in 1860. The natural increase of the population during the year was 12,290. The average age of those who died was 30.05 years, which was somewhat less than in 1866.

The report further states that, by estimating the increase of population by immigration at one per cent. of the whole population, for the two years since the census of 1865, and adding it to the 23,000 natural increase, it is supposed that the total population of the State at the close of 1867 was 1,300,000.

During the year there were 1,007 stillborn children. The birth-rate, excluding these, was 2.76 per cent. At the rate of increase shown by the year 1867, it was supposed that by 1869 the old rate of 2.87 to each hundred persons would be reached. The proportion of male births to females ranged from 116 to 100 in Franklin, to 92 to 100 in Barnstable, only the latter county and Plymouth exhibiting an excess of females. An interesting table is that showing the parentage of the children born. It appears that the births from wholly American parents have decreased by 318, the births from mixed parentage have increased by 289, and those from wholly foreign parentage have increased by 922. The children born of foreign parents exceed those of American parents by 2,215. The fact appears that the marriage-

rate was one to 43.83 of the whole population. The highest marriage-rate was in Suffolk County, the lowest in Dukes. The average age of the new-married during the year was 29.1 years; of women, 25.1 years. The percentage of nativities of those married is as follows: wholly American, 58.94 per cent., wholly foreign, 29.24 per cent., mixed, 11.82 per cent. This shows a small diminution of purely American marriages and a marked increase of foreign marriages from the preceding year, when the proportion was 59.72 and 28.27.

The number of deaths, 22,772, was 2,301 less than the average of the six preceding years, and but 2,038 larger than the smallest number during the past eleven years. The death-rate in 1867 was 1.797 to 100 persons living, which is smaller than the average for the twelve years preceding the war. The highest rate was in Boston, the lowest in the coast counties south of Boston, of which the record of Dukes is the most satisfactory. The highest rate in the large cities and towns was in Somerville, 2.48; the lowest in Haverhill, .88. The nativities of those who died were as follows: American, 18,278; foreign, 4,126; not stated, 368—the percentage of those known being 81.58 Americans, 18.42 foreign. The leading causes of death were consumption, 4,362; pneumonia, 1,378; cholera infantum, 966; typhus, 965; scarlatina, 828; dysentery, 658; croup, 356; teething, 275; diphtheria, 251; measles, 194; erysipelas, 144.

The report of Mr. Stockbridge for the Commissioners on Cattle Diseases states that the pleuro-pneumonia has not appeared during the year, and "we would fain hope to be exempt from its scourge in the long future." The Spanish fever also failed to break out again last spring, as it had been feared, and the only serious malady among cattle was that which first made its appearance in October last in Great Barrington and Egremont. The facts regarding this malady are given at some length in the report of Dr. Beebe, who was called to take charge of the cases. The symptoms first appeared, after the great fall freshet, among cattle which had been allowed to feed on the meadows and marshes, but it is not regarded as certain that the undue moisture or malaria from them was the cause of the disease. The cattle appeared to be perfectly well, up to within a very few hours of death. They then became stupid, their horns were cold—in milch-cows the quantity of milk was largely diminished—and in a few hours the animal would die, invariably in great agony. *Post-mortem* examinations showed the spleen to be inordinately disturbed, the blood to be entirely free from coagulation and to lack fibrin, and a healthy state of the lungs and most of the other organs of the body. Dr. Beebe prepared a prescription which was used with great success. It consists of rosin, elm-bark, ginger, and cayenne, each one drachm, and cinchona two scruples. Mix in a half-pint of warm water, and give every two to four hours. The disease has been eradicated, it is believed, but it has caused a great loss to the farmers of the two towns to which its ravages were mostly confined. Both Mr. Stockbridge and Dr. Beebe believe that the disease is not contagious.

The report of the Board of Assessors of the city of Boston gives the following statistics in reference to the valuation of property:

Real	$332,051,900
Personal	217,459,700
Total	$549,511,600

The report shows a gain on real estate of $44,416,100, and on personal estate of $11,531,800, making a total gain of $55,937,900.

The annual report of the State Liquor Commission has the following recapitulation:

Amount of sales from July 31st to October 1, 1869	$53,922 67
Of commissions	3,381 39
	$57,304 06

The Messrs. Shanly, contractors for the completion of the Hoosac Tunnel, commenced work March 31, 1869. On the 23d of December they had made 1,199 feet of progress at the east end, 205 down the central shaft, 415 at the west end, and 221 with the brick arch. The work, on the whole, is not up to the contract requirements; but at the east end it has averaged 12 feet per month in excess, and is rapidly coming up at all points. The contractors are steadily perfecting and increasing their means of operation, having nearly doubled the monthly quantity of work, and do not anticipate the full development of their efficient strength before May or June, 1870. It is predicted by sanguine observers, long familiar with the tunnel, that the Shanlys will be through the mountain a year and a half before the contract time expires, March 1, 1874. The rock encountered at the west end has been of the hardest character, almost of the quality of flint, and that portion of the work has progressed slowly. The machinery has been increased, and now the advance is gaining in rapidity. They have added a good deal of valuable machinery to the working appliances, worth in the aggregate $100,000. During the month of November the number of workmen employed was 847—nearly twice the force ever employed by the State at any one time. The monthly disbursements for wages average over $60,000.

By the terms of the contract the Shanlys cannot draw any thing from the State Treasury until they have performed work enough to amount to $500,000, at the stipulated price per lineal foot and per cubic yard, which must be approved and certified by the State Engineers.

By the act of the Legislature, entitled "An Act to enfranchise the Indians of the Commonwealth," that class of persons, held, since the landing of the Pilgrims, under political and civil disabilities, is endowed with equal civil rights; and henceforth every inhabitant of the

Commonwealth, without distinction of race or color, is equal before the law. Until the passage of that act, the Indians of the Commonwealth, and people of color residing on Indian lands, though recipients of the liberal charities of the Commonwealth, were the subjects of civil and political proscriptions.

On the 14th of July the French Atlantic cable was landed at Duxbury with imposing ceremonies.

The State Temperance Convention was held in Boston on the 17th of August. The design of forming a new political party was distinctly disavowed, and a platform embracing twenty resolutions was adopted. The first eleven are of the usual style of temperance resolutions, reaffirming the belief in the policy of prohibition; and several others are of no consequence. Those that have any particular point or saliency are the following:

12. We hereby call on the political parties of the Commonwealth to insert in their platforms the approval of prohibition, as a principle right in itself, of the highest benefit to the people, that has been approved by the State for the last thirty years, and in its present form for the last fifteen years, except a single year of falling away. It is, therefore, so completely the policy of the State, that its representative parties should indorse it, and adopt it as their own.

13. The party that for nearly twenty years has controlled the administration of our State government is especially bound to recognize this principle, if it would continue to direct the counsels of the State. To its successful controversy with a gigantic national crime should now be added its controversy with another crime, national no less than local; and in which, if it is as faithful as it has been in that duty, still larger success awaits it than any it has received from a grateful people emancipated from the thraldom of rum.

14. The Democratic party, professing as its original corner-stone the equal rights of all men, should approve of a law which keeps men of every class from becoming slaves of the rum-seller, and which insures that freedom from temptation that alone can make all men happy and virtuous; and we, therefore, urge upon these, our fellow-citizens, to declare themselves in favor of the prohibitory law.

16. We thank the Constable of the Commonwealth for the faithfulness and progress evinced in the execution of the law; and, recognizing the difficulties in securing as deputy constables reliable men throughout the State, the obstacles which the far more numerous policemen of our several cities, who are under concurrent obligations to execute the laws, may throw in their way, and the brevity of the period within which the law had been operated, we call upon the citizens and officers of our cities and towns to cooperate with the constable in its more complete execution.

17. We gratefully recognize the various services of his Excellency, Governor Claflin, to the cause of prohibition, especially in the appointment of judges by whom we may expect a faithful administration of the laws; and we hereby pledge his Excellency our hearty support in the discharge of all those onerous duties of which these services are the harbinger.

The Democratic State Convention met in the city of Worcester on the 24th of August, for the purpose of nominating candidates for State officers.

John Quincy Adams was unanimously nominated for Governor by acclamation.

The other nominations were: For Lieutenant-Governor, S. O. Lamb, of Greenfield; Secretary of State, John K. Tarbox, of Lawrence; Treasurer, —— Heywood, of Gardiner; Attorney-General, Josiah G. Abbott, of Boston; Auditor, Phineas Allen, of Pittsfield.

The following resolutions were adopted as the platform of the party:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of Massachusetts have no new theories to advance upon national subjects. Recent events, as well as the experience of our earlier history, serve to convince us that the further the nation wanders from the old and cherished principles of the Democracy, the more urgent grows the need of a speedy return to them. But we nevertheless deem it a political duty to acquiesce in settled results, and postpone fruitless opposition to the accomplished facts of yesterday, in order to secure effective action upon the pressing problems of to-day.

Resolved, That we repeat our demand for assured honesty and ascertained ability in public servants, rigid economy in public expenditures, and an opportunity for all to buy in the cheapest market and with honest coin, so that taxes may no longer utterly consume wages; and renew our declaration in favor of the Monroe doctrine, and in favor of protecting the rights of our naturalized citizens at home and abroad; and our sympathy with every people now struggling for independence and self-government; and now, as heretofore, acknowledge our obligations and indebtedness to the courage and bravery of our fellow-citizens who, in the hour of peril, defended the flag of our country on land and sea.

Resolved, That we condemn the increase of the State debt, by extravagance and improvident grants of the public funds, as intolerably onerous to the taxpayer, unequal, unjust, and undemocratic; and we protest against the undue length of the sessions of the Legislature. If the public scandal of three hundred men spending more than five months and a half in making laws to govern the people the other six months and a half, thereby increasing the burden of taxation by $300,000 a year, cannot be otherwise removed, we are in favor of doing it by a constitutional limitation.

Resolved, That the constitutional and statutory provisions now in force in this Commonwealth, limiting the exercise of the elective franchise, aimed at certain classes of citizens, and intended to deprive them of the free exercise of that right, are unjust, pernicious, and at variance with the principles of true democratic government, and should be summarily repealed.

Resolved, That this convention, in presenting the name of John Quincy Adams for Governor of Massachusetts, and his associates upon the State ticket this day nominated, confidently ask for them the suffrages of all liberty-loving voters of the Commonwealth.

Resolved, That equal rights and equal privileges to all classes of the people, the laborer equally with the capitalist, is the cherished doctrine of the Democratic party; that, while capital is encouraged to organize for the increase of its prosperity, the prayer of labor for chartered privileges, in its effort to secure its rights and elevate its condition, should not be denied; that the present Republican Legislature of this State, in refusing to grant charters to the labor organizations which petitioned for acts of incorporation, outraged justice, and robbed the working-man of his just right; and that the working-classes of the country should have prompt relief from the oppressions of the pernicious system of legislation and administration in State and nation which, under the rule of the Republican party, pampers capital and degrades labor.

On the 22d of September the Republican Convention assembled in the city of Worcester, and made the following nominations: For Governor, William Claflin; Lieutenant-Governor, Joseph Tucker; Secretary of State,

Oliver Warner; Attorney-General, Charles Allen; Treasurer, Jacob H. Loud; Auditor, Charles Endicott. The following resolutions were adopted as the platform of the party:

Resolved, That we reaffirm our devotion to the principles and policy of the Republican party, which arrested national degeneracy, proclaimed liberty to all the oppressed of the land, vanquished a most formidable rebellion, preserved the integrity and unity of the Republic, and placed on an enduring foundation its safety, prosperity, and glory.

Resolved, That the Democratic party, by its close alliance with the slave power during a whole generation, its sympathy with the public enemies during the late civil war, its constant endeavors to perpetuate disorder in the rebel States, and by the enunciation of the doctrines of practical repudiation, has forfeited forever all claims to the confidence of the people, and cannot without great peril to their liberties and fortunes be intrusted with the government of the nation or of this Commonwealth.

Resolved, That the reconstructed States are not yet beyond the watchful care of the National Government, and that the Legislative and Executive Departments should take all lawful and constitutional measures to guarantee liberty, personal security, and equal rights to all the people thereof. "With malice toward none and charity to all," we welcome the truly repentant rebels back to the privileges of fellow-citizens, while we insist upon complete protection of all loyal men, white and black.

Resolved, That the Administration of President Grant, by its moderation and firmness, and its foreign and domestic policy, its scrupulous regard for the public faith as pledged to public creditors, its reforms in the direction of economy, and its able management of the public revenue, whereby the debt has been reduced and the national credit maintained and raised, has fully justified the confidence reposed in it, and gives promise of great and lasting benefits to the country.

Resolved, That as we contemplate the high place which our country, now relieved of slavery, holds in the family of nations, the widening influence of its example, and the marvellous development of its resources, it is becoming to remember gratefully the patriotic soldiers and sailors, living and dead, by whose toils and blood in our civil war this precious land was kept one and indivisible. The commemoration of their deeds by fitting rites and memorials, and the care of their disabled survivors and of their bereaved families, will remain a perpetual duty.

Resolved, That we regard as political aims of prime importance, the encouragement of the moral, educational, and industrial interests of the State, a just distribution of the burdens of taxation, so that they shall fall where they can be most easily borne, a rigid economy in public expenditures, less special legislation for private and corporate interests, a material abridgment of the sessions of the Legislature, and the requirement of high personal character in all public officers.

Resolved, That the Republican party recognize all the rights and privileges that belong to labor, and that the same chartered rights and privileges which are extended to organized capital, by legislation, should also be extended to organized labor.

Resolved, That the Republican party is a national party, coextensive with the country; that in this Commonwealth it applies no tests not exacted in other States or sections; that it ought not here to add or subtract from its national creed; that diverse views upon the best method of suppressing intemperance are honestly held among its members, and that the decision, as to what legislation upon the sale of intoxicating liquors is likely to prove most salutary, shall be left entirely to the will of the people, as indicated by the Senators and Representatives elected by their votes.

Resolved, That Governor Claflin has, in his official term, demonstrated the same integrity of purpose and capacity for affairs which have always been conspicuous in his private life, and we commend him and the other nominees of this convention to the suffrages of the people of this Commonwealth.

A convention was held in Worcester on the 28th of September, at which the Labor Reform party of Massachusetts was organized, and the following ticket put in nomination: For Governor, E. M. Chamberlain; Lieutenant-Governor, James Chattaway; Secretary of State, S. B. Pratt; Treasurer, N. W. Stoddard; Attorney-General, Thomas Crawley; Auditor, J. L. Glines.

The principles of the party were announced in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we reaffirm the principles of the Declaration of Independence, that "all men are created free and equal," and have certain inalienable rights, to secure which is the only just and true purpose of government. Therefore all laws creating distinctions in favor of their condition, nationality, or pursuit, are a clear violation of the fundamental principles of democratic government.

Resolved, That, as labor lies at the foundation of all national prosperity, it is the duty and the interest of both the State and the nation to foster and protect it. Therefore, all associations of working men or women, formed with a view of promoting their moral or material interests, should receive the same chartered rights and privileges at the hands of legislators, State and national, as are granted associated capital, especially as all the chartered rights of associated capital are derived solely from the people who are the true source of power under democratic institutions.

Resolved, That a cardinal principle of the labor-reform movement is reduction in the hours of labor; therefore, be it resolved, that we insist upon the reduction of the hours of labor to eight hours for all labor employed at the public expense by State, counties, cities, and towns, as experiments which the public is able to make and is interested in making, since they will establish the preliminary claim necessary to prove finally that they mean a better-paid and better-educated laborer.

Resolved, That we will demand of every candidate who seeks our suffrage for political honors in the coming campaign, a faithful pledge and guarantee that he will advocate, and, if elected, vote for the enactment of a law, prohibiting all incorporated and other manufacturing establishments in this Commonwealth from employing females and minors more than ten hours per day, and we pledge ourselves to use all honorable means to defeat every candidate for office who will not pledge himself unreservedly to the enactment of such a law.

Resolved, That the exemption from tax of bonds or securities is a violation of the just principles of revenue laws, and lays an unjust burden upon the producing classes of the country.

Resolved, That we view with pride the fact that the soldiers and sailors were enlisted mainly from the ranks of the working-classes, and that they fought heroically to maintain the national integrity and uphold the honor of Massachusetts, and we claim that, if true to her promises and to herself, she should provide means for equalizing the bounties to her soldiers and sailors on just and equitable principles.

Resolved, That we heartily indorse the demands of the mill operatives of Massachusetts for a reduction of the hours of labor to ten per day.

Resolved, That the power, honor, and prosperity of the country rest upon the skill, intelligence, and welfare of the industrial classes.

Resolved, That we welcome to our shores indus-

trious sons and daughters of other countries upon equal terms with ourselves; but are opposed to the appropriation of our substance and labor for the purpose of introducing into this country a servile race to degrade and cheapen labor.

Resolved, That we indorse the demand of the National Labor Congress, for the creation of a Department of Labor at Washington to aid in protecting the rights and interests of labor as the most important interest of the country.

Resolved, That we earnestly urge the friends of labor in this State to use all their influence, individually and collectively, to secure the election to public office of candidates who are unequivocally committed to the principles embraced in this platform.

Resolved, That the recognition of any party of the claim of the bondholders, that the national debt is payable only in coin, is a clear repudiation of the national faith pledged in the act making the greenback a legal tender in payment of "all debts, public and private, except duties on imports and interest on the public debt," inasmuch as the national debt is a public debt, secured by the entire property of the nation. We therefore demand that the national faith shall be sacredly kept, and denounce all parties who would violate the promise on the greenback or in the bond.

Resolved, That we recommend that the constitution be so amended that the sessions of the Legislature be limited to 100 days, each year.

The election held the 2d of November resulted in the choice of all the Republican candidates for State officers—the following being the vote on Governor: Claflin, Republican, 74,106; Adams, Democrat, 50,701; Chamberlain, Labor, 13,567. The Legislature for 1870 stands:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Ballot.
Republicans	29	160	189
Democrats	10	58	68
Labor Reform	1	22	23
Republican majority	18	80	98

On the liquor question the majority of the Legislature is supposed to be in favor of the sale of liquors under proper restrictions.

In 1867 Patrick S. Gilmore conceived the idea of celebrating the return of peace by a monster musical festival, to be called the "Peace Jubilee," and on the 15th of June, 1869, his ideal was realized. A wooden building 500 feet long and 300 feet wide was erected for the purpose of holding the immense crowd expected to be present. The arrangements for lighting were ample, the building containing 25,000 feet of gas-pipe (over four miles) with 2,400 burners, consuming 14,000 cubic feet of gas per hour. A grand chorus organ with 1,011 pipes was built for the occasion. One hundred and eight societies were represented in the chorus, which consisted of 10,371 singers.

The first leading violin was played by Ole Bull, and the second by Carl Rosa, while the total number of instruments in the orchestra was 1,094. As adjuncts to be used in certain pieces, 12 cannon were provided, which were discharged by electricity. All the bells in the city were rung by the same means, and 50 anvils were beaten by 100 men. The Jubilee lasted five days.

On the 8th of September the New-England coast was visited by a fearfully violent and destructive hurricane. Boston suffered very severely. Branches of trees were swept through the streets, houses were unroofed, steeples were blown down, the shipping in the harbor was damaged, and some lives were lost. The most remarkable freak of the storm was the destruction of the Coliseum, of which only a fragment was left standing.

MASSIE, Rev. James William, D. D., LL. D., a Nonconformist clergyman, missionary, and author, born in Ireland in 1799; died at Kingstown, Ireland, May 8, 1869. He was educated for the ministry by Dr. Bogue, and went out as a missionary to India. After laboring there a few years he returned to Great Britain, was pastor for a time at Perth, Scotland, and subsequently at Dublin, Ireland, and Salford, England, from which latter place he removed to London to act as secretary to the Home Missionary Society. He was deeply interested in all the public movements of the day; was a prominent advocate of free trade during the anti-corn-law agitation, a supporter of the antislavery movement, and of the union and emancipation societies formed during the late war in the United States. He visited the United States several times, and within the past ten years had twice been a delegate from the Independents to the Congregationalists and Presbyterians of this country. He was the author of several works, among which were: "Continental India, Travelling Sketches;" "Recollections, illustrating the Religion, etc., of the Hindoos," 2 vols.; "The Nonconformist's Plea for Freedom of Education," 1847; "The Evangelical Alliance, its Origin and Development," 1847; "Recollections of a Tour in Belgium, Germany, Switzerland," etc., 1846; "Liberty of Conscience, illustrated, etc., Lectures," 1847; "Social Improvement among the Working-Classes, affecting the Entire Body Politic," 1849; "Slavery the Crime and Curse of America," 1852; "The Contrast: War and Christianity—Martial Evils and their Remedy," 1854; "Christ a Learner," 1858; "Revivals in Ireland: Facts, Documents, and Correspondence," 1859–'60; "Ireland in the Summer of 1860;" "Revival Work," 1860; "The American Crisis, in relation to the Antislavery Cause," 1862; "America: the Origin of her present Conflict; her Prospect for the Slave, and her Claim for Antislavery Sympathy, illustrated by Incidents of Travel during a Tour, in the Summer of 1863, throughout the United States," 1864.

MEIGS, Charles D., an eminent American physician, professor, and author, born in Georgia in 1792; died at his residence in Delaware County, Pa., June 22, 1869. His academic education was obtained at the South, and his medical studies were conducted in Philadelphia, at the Medical Department of the University of Pennsylvania, where he graduated M. D. in 1814. After graduation he returned to the South, and practised there for a few years, but in 1820 returned to Philadelphia, and since that

time had resided in that city or its vicinity, where he attained in few years to a large and lucrative practice in his specialty—obstetrics and diseases of women and children. He early manifested a taste for medical literature, and began his career, as a medical writer, as editor of the *North American Medical and Surgical Journal*. He subsequently translated and edited Velpeau's "Elementary and Complete Treatises on Midwifery." His thorough mastery of his own special department of the profession was already well known, and his reputation was greatly enhanced by the publication in 1838 of his "Letters on the Practice of Obstetrics." In 1840 he was called to the chair of Midwifery in the Jefferson Medical College of Philadelphia, and filled the position with great credit and acceptance till 1862, when he resigned and removed to his country-seat in Delaware County. In 1841 he published his very popular "Letters on the Diseases of Females," which was highly prized by the medical profession. This was followed in 1847 by "Lectures on some of the Distinctive Characteristics of the Female;" in 1848, by "Remarks on Spasmodic Cholera;" in 1849, by "Obstetrics, the Science and the Art;" and in 1850, by "Observations on Certain Diseases of Children." Besides these, he published a number of lectures on medical and other subjects. His last work, issued in December, 1868, was a translation from the French, entitled "Typhaines Abbey," a novel.

MENTSCHIKOFF, PRINCE ALEXANDER SERGUWITSCH, a Russian noble, Admiral of the Fleet, Governor of Finland, Minister of Marine, and Commander-in-Chief of the Russian forces in the Crimean War, born in St. Petersburg, in 1789; died in that city, May 3, 1869. He was descended from a noble family which had attained to the highest dignities under Peter the Great. He entered the public service, after receiving a military education, at the early age of sixteen, and was for some time attached to the embassy at Vienna. From 1812 to 1816 he saw much service as an aide-de-camp of the Emperor Alexander, and was promoted to the rank of general. After the Peace of Paris, he was actively engaged in the promotion of the Greek *hetairia*, or brotherhood, which aimed professedly at the restoration of the old Greek empire. These movements being regarded with disfavor by the Emperor, he resigned his connection with the Government in 1823. On the accession of the Emperor Nicholas, he was recalled to court, and made ambassador extraordinary to Abbas Mirza, then the Shah of Persia, to conclude an alliance with him against the Sultan. But the Shah proved treacherous and endeavored to seize Prince Mentschikoff, who effected his escape with great difficulty, and took a high command in the war which immediately followed. In 1824 he made himself master of Anapa, entered Europe as general-in-chief, and undertook the siege of Varna. In conducting this siege he was severely wounded, and was for a long time unfit for active employment. After his recovery he was made vice-admiral and chief of staff of the Russian navy, and coöperated very ably with the Archduke Constantine in the creation of the Baltic fleet. In 1831 he was appointed Governor of Finland, and proved very harsh and cruel in his treatment of the inhabitants who were of Swedish birth or affinities. In 1834 he was advanced to the rank of Admiral of the Fleet, and in 1836 made Minister of Marine. In 1853 the Czar sent him on an embassy to Constantinople to demand of the Sultan the right of protectorate over all the Greek Christians of the Turkish empire. Resolved to bring on a war with Turkey, he came before the Sultan in a dress and with a manner purposely so offensive, that he was summarily dismissed. On his return to St. Petersburg he was received with coldness, but was, nevertheless, a few months later appointed to the supreme military and civil command in the Crimea. He proved an energetic, and, for some time, a very successful commander; now stirring up insurrections in Thessaly and Epirus, making careful observations of the movements of the Turkish fleet, and presently annhilating it at Sinope; offering a stubborn though not successful resistance to the allies in the Alma, and sustaining severe a defeat at the Alma, without losing his *prestige*, and preventing for many months the fall of Sevastopol. On the death of the Emperor Nicholas he was deprived of all command, being personally obnoxious to Alexander II., but continued to sit in the Council of the Empire till his death, and to advocate the views of the Panslavists.

METALS. *Making Lead Pipes with a Tin Lining.*—M. J. Grand, Jr., is the inventor of a new way of manufacturing lead pipes with a lining of tin. The first step is the formation of a muff coated with tin on the inside. This is made in a horizontal mould, which is caused to revolve with great rapidity, and is provided with a hollow axle, through which the metals are introduced. The metals are fused in a crucible furnished with a stop-cock or a clack-valve opening into the hollow axle of the mould. One crucible will suffice, the lead being placed at the bottom and the tin on the top, the two being separated by an iron grating; or the tin may be melted in a separate crucible provided with a valve, and placed above that in which the lead is melted. The lead is run into the mould first, and the tin follows, while the former metal is still liquid. A rapid movement of rotation keeps the two metals from mixing, while a perfect junction is formed as they solidify. When sufficiently cooled, the muff is transferred to the press, and the pipes are squeezed out in the usual way.

Reducing Aluminium from its Ores.—Mr. A. L. Fleury, of Boston, Mass., claims to have discovered a method of reducing the metal aluminium from pure alumina. He first mixes

it with gas-tar, resin, petroleum, or some such substance, making it into a stiff paste, which is divided into pellets, which are dried in an oven, then placed in a strong retort or tube, which is lined with a coating of plumbago. They are then exposed to a cherry-red heat. The retort must be sufficiently strong to stand a pressure of from 25 to 30 lbs. on the square inch, and be so arranged that, by means of a safety-valve or tube, the necessary amount of some carburetted hydrogen gas can be introduced into the retort among the heated mixture, and the pressure of from 20 to 30 lbs. on the square inch be maintained. The gas alluded to is forced into the retort by means of a force-pump. By this process the alumina is reduced, and the aluminium remains as a spongy mass, mixed with carbon. This mixture is remelted with metallic zinc, and, when the aluminium has collected in a metallic state, the zinc is driven off by heat. The reduction is due to the carburetted hydrogen gas under pressure. The time required for reducing one hundred pounds of alumina earth, cryolite, or other compound of alumina, should not be more than four hours; when the gas can be applied in a previously-heated as well as strongly-compressed state, the reduction takes place in a still shorter period.

Platinizing Copper.—The *Quarterly Journal of Science* publishes the following:

In order to obtain a platinizing fluid capable of platinizing copper, yellow metal, and brass, add, to a moderately-concentrated solution of chloride of platinum, finely-powdered carbonate of soda, until effervescence ceases; next some glucose, and afterward just so much common salt as will cause a whitish-colored precipitate. When it is desired to apply this mixture for platinizing, the objects to be treated are placed in a vessel made of zinc and perforated with holes. The vessel is then placed, with its contents, for a few seconds, in the mixture just described, which, just previous to using, should be heated to 60° C. On being removed from the zinc vessel, the objects are to be washed with water and dried in sawdust.

Preventing Silver Waste.—The loss of silver, from the formation of a sulphide of silver on the surface of plate and its subsequent washing off, is enormous. The cause of the formation is well known to be the sulphurous products of the combustion of gas in streets, houses, and shops, which products unite with the exposed silver, causing a black appearance on its surface—not only tarnishing it, but diminishing the quantity of metallic silver in the articles so affected. Various expedients have been tried by silversmiths to prevent this discoloration of their wares, and also the loss in their weight, but without complete success, until Herr Strolberger, of Munich, hit upon the thought of coating his goods with a thin film of collodion, which effectually prevents the sulphur formations, and keeps silver, no matter how freely exposed to the deleterious influences of gas-lights, bright for an indefinite time. He first warms the article to be coated, and then, with a wide, soft brush, gives it a coating with a thin collodion diluted with alcohol. One operation generally suffices to produce the result.

Tinning Brass and Copper Vessels.—Dr. Hiller proposes the following method of tinning vessels of copper and brass: A solution is made of one part of crystallized protochloride of tin and ten parts of water. Another solution is prepared with two parts of caustic soda or potash, and twenty parts of water, and the two solutions are mixed together. The mixed liquor will be milky at first, but becomes clear after a time. The objects to be tinned are placed in a proper vessel with a sheet of pure tin perforated with many small holes. The alkaline solution is poured over them, and then heat is applied while they are occasionally moved about with a rod of zinc. The tinning is effected very rapidly, a few minutes being sufficient for a deposition of a bright coating of the metal.

Plating Steel, etc., with Nickel.—There were recently exhibited before the Polytechnic Association of the American Institute several specimens of iron and steel, upon which nickel had been deposited by the battery by a process devised by Dr. Isaac Adams, of Boston. It was claimed for this process that, while nickel is a much cheaper metal than silver, it is much harder, and is not affected by atmospheric influences, while, at the same time, the color is nearly equal to that of silver. Nickel is admirably adapted to the engraver's purposes, as, from its extreme hardness, a plate of nickel will outwear several plates of copper. Hitherto it has been found impossible to deposit nickel to a greater thickness than a mere film. The mere deposition of nickel on steel is nothing new. Directions for the process will be found in Smee's work, published many years ago. But thus far it has been found impossible to deposit nickel in thick plates, for, as soon as a film has been thrown down, the nickel is deposited in the form known as the "black deposit," which is friable and worthless. Hitherto it has been thought necessary to use pure nickel for the pole or anode that is to be dissolved, but Dr. Adams has succeeded, even when the metal employed did not contain more than 75 per cent. of nickel. The solution employed is the double sulphate of nickel and ammonia; but it must be prepared in a special manner, in order to insure success.—*Van Nostrand's Magazine.*

Alloys of Copper and Tin.—In a note to the French Academy, M. Riche submits the following facts concerning the alloys of copper and tin: He first considers the question of density. Some determinations were made upon bars of the two metals, weighing from fifty to sixty grms., but the results obtained were unimportant, owing to the great difference which exists in the alloys. The same metals reduced to fine powder were afterward operated upon, when it was observed that the contraction increases very regularly, from the very rich alloy in tin to the mixture $SnCu_2$,

and from this point it increases suddenly, arriving at a maximum, when the copper and tin are united in the relation of one to three. The density diminishes from this point, then rises again nearly regularly; the density of the richest copper alloys is inferior to the mixture $SnCu_3$, which only contains 62 per cent. of copper. Besides, this alloy may be distinguished from all the others by its properties; it is brittle enough to be pounded in a mortar, and forms crystals of a bluish tint, not resembling in the least either copper or tin. M. Riche gives a number of formulæ, expressing the composition of the definite compounds which copper forms with tin, and their properties. Referring to liquefaction, he then observes, "In order to separate these alloys, the mass should be moved about when becoming solid, to separate the crystals while forming." The fusibility of these alloys has been determined by the thermo-electric pyrometer. M. Riche has operated comparatively with these alloys, and with metals whose fusing-points have been settled by various experimenters. Numerous determinations show that the solidification of the alloys $SnCu_3$ and $SnCu_4$ takes place at a temperature somewhere between the fusion-point of antimony and the boiling-point of cadmium.

Alloy of Iron and Zinc.—One of the German scientific journals says that Dr. Oudemans, Jr., obtained for analysis a piece of metal which had been formed in an iron vessel wherein zinc had been fused for several weeks continually; this metal was found deposited at the bottom of the vessel, and became an impediment to the melting operations, in consequence of the relative infusibility of the alloy. In physical aspect this latter was of very much whiter color, and entirely different crystalline structure, than zinc; the alloy dissolved very readily and briskly in dilute sulphuric or hydrochloric acid, and was found, on analysis, to contain 4.6 per cent. of iron. Taking for granted that this alloy is a definite compound of the two constituent metals, its formula would be:

$$FeZn_{28}\ (Fe=56;\ Zn\ 32.75).$$

Fusibility and Volatility of Metals.—Dr. A. Von Riemsdyk, while engaged with experiments on the intrinsic composition of various pieces of silver money coined at the Royal Netherlands Mint, at Utrecht, investigated the fusibility and volatility of certain metals. The following is an abstract of his record of results:

The metals tin, bismuth, cadmium, lead, and zinc, as chemically pure as they can be obtained, were molten, in order to prevent their oxidation, in a feeble but constant current of pure and dry hydrogen gas. The author found that—(1) the melting of these metals does not, either mechanically or by evaporation, give rise to any loss at all; (2) that *tin*, *lead*, and *bismuth*, when kept in a liquid state, are not volatile at temperatures greatly in excess of their melting-points, and that, at a bright-red heat, quantities of 2.3433 grms. of *bismuth*, and 4.5183 grms. of *lead*, did not lose, by being kept at that temperature for one hour, more than 1 and 0.5 m.m., respectively, by evaporation, while *tin* did not exhibit any volatility at all; (3) that *cadmium* and *zinc*, though completely fixed, non-volatile at their melting-point, begin perceptibly to volatilize at a few degrees above that point; (4) that there does not exist any relation at all between the fusibility and volatility of these metals, which may be arranged in the following manner, beginning from the most fusible and most readily volatile:

Fusibility.		Volatility.
Tin	228.5° C.	Cadmium.
Bismuth	268.3° "	Zinc.
Cadmium	320.0° "	Bismuth.
Lead	326.0° "	Lead.
Zinc	420.0° "	Tin.

(5) that the so-called Rose's fusible metal, an alloy of tin, lead, and bismuth, the melting-point of which is about 97.5°, and certainly not higher, is not perceptibly volatile when heated to a bright-red heat in a current of pure hydrogen gas. Silver, unalloyed, melts at 1,040° C., pure gold at 1,240° C., while the author found that chemically pure copper requires a temperature of 1,330° C. to become liquid. Neither pure silver, nor pure copper, nor also the alloy of silver and copper containing 945-1000ths of the former metal (this alloy is the standard alloy of the Netherlands silver coins), loses any thing at all by volatilization, when kept for a considerable time at temperatures higher than the melting-points of both these metals, and in a feeble current of pure hydrogen to prevent their oxidation. The author has made some of these experiments on a large scale, having at his disposal several hundred kilos of these metals in pure and alloyed state.

Bronze Manufacture.—The great bronze founderies of France are well described in a paper in the *Practical Mechanics' Journal*. The following account is given of some of the processes employed in the celebrated establishment of M. Barbedienne, at Paris:

The bronze for all moderate-sized objects, say up to 250 kilos., is melted in clay crucibles, which are made in the neighborhood of Paris, and hold about 30 kilos. each. These are not extremely refractory, but stand three or four meltings.

There are eight crucible furnaces, in form very much that of the ordinary brass furnace, but differing from usual practice, in England at least, in that they are not wind-furnaces, but are fed with blast, from a small fan (about 20 in. diam.), driven by a strap from the engine of the "*marbrerie*;" the fuel is coke. As the advantages seem to be patent of this arrangement. The metal is "brought down," i. e., melted very much faster, the "heats" can be repeated much more rapidly, and the consumption of coke is greatly less than with wind-furnaces. Then, again, when the crucibles are about to be "drawn," the blast is thrown off, and there is much less flare and heat to be endured by the man who lifts them out. The tops of these furnaces are of cast iron, the covers iron-bound square fire-tiles, and the tops are about 22 in. above the floor-level.

The large air-furnace is fed with dry-wood fuel, and will melt upward of 1,000 kilometres.

In olden times statues were always cast in a loam-mould, put together piece by piece in the excavated pit, and, as fitted in place and jointed up, the pit was rammed up round them. This was but a make-shift mode, and had several serious evils: the mould never could be dried with perfect uniformity; and, even when dry, it stood so long in the pit while being got ready, that it imbibed moisture anew, and hence so many "miscasts" of old. Under the heavy head of liquid bronze, too, the ramming-in of the pit sometimes proved soft and deceptive, so that here or there the walls of the mould partially bulged, and the casting was either lost or damaged.

All M. Barbedienne's statues or large objects are cast therefore in cast-iron flasks or boxes, so that the pit is what iron-founders call a "naked pit," i. e., no ramming-up is practised.

A "pool," or reservoir of sand, with charcoal facing, is employed for all large castings, into which the contents of the crucibles are "teemed," or into which the air-furnace is tapped. When the full quantity of metal is in the pool, an iron conical plug, which had been inserted into and stopped the main "gait," or "*coulie*," is drawn up, and the metal enters the mould.

It passes off (as overplus) by "rising heads," as in cast-iron moulding, and "the gas is fired" at these by a lighted torch in the same way. From the low temperature of the liquid bronze, however, as compared with cast iron, but a small volume of gas is evolved from either moulds or cores.

The head of surplus pressure employed is always very small, for fear of distortion; a practice exactly the reverse of that of bronze-gun founding, where the "*masselot*," or "rising head," is often nearly as long as the gun itself above its muzzle, which is uppermost in the mould. It may be very much doubted, or even on plausible grounds contested, whether any advantage is obtained by those very long "gun-heads," and whether some positive evils in the increased segregation of the alloy be not thus introduced. Bronze-gun founding, however, is now, in these days of huge wrought-iron artillery, somewhat an art of the past, it may be said. We must remember, however, that Prussia is returning to bronze rifled field-guns, and that our new rifled Indian artillery is also to be of bronze.

The metals employed by M. Barbedienne for his bronze are very pure "tile-pitch" copper, and English or Straits tin, also of best quality. The copper is usually South American, again melted in France, purified by "liquation," and run into small pigs of about the size and form of ours known as "best selected copper."

Whitworth Metal.—Mr. Whitworth, the distinguished inventor of the ordnance bearing his name, has long been engaged in testing a new process of making and casting iron and steel, with a view of preventing the occurrence of air-bubbles in the castings, which are the frequent cause of the explosion of cannon. These bubbles are formed in the molten steel before it is set, and are retained in the metal, no matter how severe a hammering it receives. Of two pieces, manufactured at the same place, about the same time, and by the same workmen, one may stand a thousand rounds, and the other burst destructively at the first or fiftieth round—the difference in the strength of the pieces arising, for the most part, from the presence or absence of air-bubbles. The details of Mr. Whitworth's process are not published, but it is said to consist in the application of immense pressure to the molten metal while cooling. He has four qualities of this steel, or Whitworth metal, as he calls it. They are known as yellow (having most carbon), blue, brown, and red, the red being the most ductile. Having tried many experiments, on a small scale, he feels justified in declaring that he will now be able to make heavy guns perfectly trustworthy, at a price of about £120 a ton. He is making preparations for the construction, on this plan, of guns weighing as high as 43 tons and over.

Casting Steel under Pressure, by Use of Gunpowder.—Cast steel run into moulds is subject to blister, and is otherwise porous, which defect reduces considerably its toughness. In order to give the metal its requisite tenacity it is subsequently reheated, and then rolled and hammered. A writer in *Van Nostrand's Magazine* says that, as many articles, such as cannon, cannot be treated in that manner, he has devised a plan of submitting them to a higher pressure while in a liquid state, enclosed in their moulds maintained in iron flasks. For this purpose, immediately after running a cannon, he covers hermetically the lead by a metallic cap, by means of bolts or other devices attached to the flask; this cap is fitted in its centre with a vertical pipe, and provided with a cock at its lower extremities, while its upper extremity is closed by a washer, pressed by a bolt in such a manner as to act as a safety-valve. Before attaching the cap at, say, one inch from the surface of the liquid metal, he introduces in the vertical pipe, and between the cock and the washer, about one-quarter of an ounce of powder, prepared in the proportions of 80 parts of saltpetre and 20 parts of charcoal. On opening the cock, this powder falls on the metal, ignites and engenders about one-third of a cubic foot of gas, at 3000° F. These gases exert on the liquid metal a pressure which is transmitted throughout the entire mass, thereby condensing the same and expelling the blisters. The effect thus produced is equivalent to the pressure of a head of liquid metal 90 ft. high, admitting that the capacity between the cap and the surface of the metal contains 30 cubic inches. By making the flasks sufficiently strong these charges of powder may be varied so as to produce, by its ignition, a uniform and general pressure, which is preferable to the partial, irregular, and momentary action of a hammer.

The Ellerhausen Process.—The general results of the Ellerhausen process, which consists in the mixing of from 30 to 33⅓ per cent. of fine ore with pig-iron, previous to its treatment in the puddling-furnaces, are stated by *Van Nostrand's Magazine* to be a large loss of ore as compared with puddling, but an improvement of the iron, especially of a cold, short iron made from hematite, when treated with magnetic ores. An important experiment was recently made at the works of Henry Burden & Sons, Troy. The pig-iron was melted in a puddling-furnace, fettled with about half the usual

quantity of lump-ore, and 30 per cent. of fine ore scattered over the iron and stirred in. The heat was then lowered slightly to give the iron and ore time for reaction, when it was raised, and the charge balled in the usual manner. In this experiment there was a saving of some 30 per cent. in time, and an improvement in quality of product. The following summary of results is presented, contrasting the old with the new (or Ellerhausen) system of puddling:

OLD SYSTEM.

Coal consumed per ton of puddled bars	2,698 lbs.
Fettling ore consumed per ton of puddled bars.	1,374 lbs.
Average turn six heats	2,667 lbs.
No waste.	

NEW SYSTEM.

Coal consumed per ton of puddled bars	2,213 lbs.
Fettling ore consumed per ton of puddled bars.	682 lbs.
Fine ore consumed per ton of puddled bars	646 lbs.
Average turn eight heats	3,552 lbs.
Saving by new system in coal per ton of puddled bars over old system	485 lbs.
Increase in consumption of ore per ton of puddled bars over old system	46 lbs.
Increase in product of puddling-furnace over old system	34 p.c.
Gain in yield of both furnaces over old system during the week	2,512 lbs.

The Siemans-Martin Process. — *Van Nostrand's Magazine* gives the following particulars of a change of Siemans-Martin steel, produced at the works of Messrs. Cooper, Hundt & Co., Trenton, under the superintendence of Mr. F. J. Slade, who first introduced the process into this country. The editor says that he has experimented with a bar of steel made by this process, exactly as represented in this table annexed, and has found it to be very soft and tough, and capable of sustaining a very high heat:

Martin Steel Process, April 21, 1869, 6.25 A. M. to 6.22 P. M.

CHARGE, 7S: INGOTS, 542-560. CLASS I.

Time of charging.	West Cumberland Pig.	Franklinite Pig.	"A" Iron Rerolt.	Steel Scrap.	West Cumberland Plus puddled.	Time of taking Proofs.	Remarks.
6.25	1,000	500	.....	.....	2	4.20	strong cold with fine fracture.
7.53	.....	.....	.....	495	Ingot	5.05	
8.20	.....	.....	.....	307	.....	.....	Red short at orange, tough cold with good granular fracture.
9.06	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	6.00	
9.42	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	
10.50	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	.....	
11.23	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	
11.50	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	Hammered well, strong cold with fine fracture.
12.33	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	
1.40	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	
3.28	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	
4.29	.....	.....	.....	.....	400	.....	
5.24	.....	.....	100	.....	.....	.....	
6.22	poured.	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Total.	1,000	500	100	2,002	2,400	.....	

Dr.

To Pig Iron	1,600
" Steel Scrap	1,507
" Puddled Iron	2,400
" Ingots	495
	6,002

Cr.

By Product:		
By Ingots	(cast in groups)	5,124
" Scrap		339
" Waste, 8.9 per cent.		539
		6,002

Coal for producers, from 7 A. M., April 21st to 7 A. M. April 22d, soft, 6,864: duration of charge, 11 h. 57 m.

A correspondent of *The Engineer* thus mentions one of the results of the process as adopted in France: "The Terrenoire Ironworks have now four Martin furnaces in operation. Ere now this process has been carried on, introducing scraps of Bessemer steel into cast iron. It is necessary, of course, that this cast iron be entirely free from phosphorus. Some trials have been made in the use of worn-out rails instead of Bessemer steel, but that has been a complete failure. The rails were exceedingly brittle, and the railway companies have forbidden the mixture of old iron rails with the Bessemer steel used in the Martin process. This difficulty might be avoided with good iron obtained from a cast iron free from phosphorus, but the price of the steel would be greatly increased. This process will be very useful to the makers of Bessemer steel, enabling them to get rid of their scrap."

Berard's Process. — The Paris *Presse* makes mention of a successful test of M. Aristide Berard's plan of changing second-class metal, in course of refining, into steel of at least ordinary quality, by means of a process which is no further described than by saying that it is "alternately oxidizing and reductive." The product obtained by his process, in presence of two competent judges, proved to be steel of good quality, suitable for all purposes, and made with the facility necessary to its application to practical industry. The operation was effected in a reverberatory furnace, lasted about an hour and a half, and was accomplished with as much facility as puddling. In this process, instead of acting on 480 pounds of metal, to obtain iron of number-one quality, from 6,600 to 11,000 pounds of metal are made by only one operation into steel ingots ready for the workshop, and with an unexpected economy.

Ponsard & Boyneval's Process.—The *Mining Journal* gives the following account of a process, patented by Messrs. A. Ponsard and F. E. Boyneval, of Paris, for dispensing with the costly blast-furnaces hitherto employed in the manufacture of cast and wrought iron and steel.

The furnace is constructed similar to a reverberatory furnace, with a double sloping hearth for the collection of the molten metal. The hearth is heated either by an ordinary furnace or by gas. Upon each of the sloping sides of the hearth rest the lower ends of a number of vertical fire-clay tubes or crucibles, without bottoms, such tubes entering at their upper ends with holes in the roof of the furnace, which roof is covered by a cast-iron plate, forming a platform, and being provided with movable lids, which fit over the mouths of the different springs leading down into the tubes. The ore, fluxes, and fuel, are fed into the several tubes from the platform; the flames circulating round the exteriors of the tubes effect the fusion of the ore without coming into contact therewith. The small amount of fuel contained inside the tubes along with the ore and flux, in order to effect the deoxidation of the ore and the carburation of the metal, should be of the best quality. It will thus be seen that two distinct kinds of fuel are employed — the ordinary fuel, for the purpose of fusion, and a superior fuel, of which only a small proportion is required. The molten cast iron runs out of the bottoms of the

vertical tubes and down the sloping sides of the hearth; and, as fast as the contents of the tubes subside or descend, fresh supplies of ore, fuel, and flux, are added, thus rendering the process continuous. The molten metal is run off through a tapping-hole in the side of the furnace, and the slag is removed through a separate opening, from time to time, as required.

In making wrought iron, the same apparatus is employed, and the wrought iron is obtained direct from the ore. The ore employed should be first reduced to a metallic state, by subjecting it to an elevated temperature in a furnace in contact with the fuel. The ore thus reduced is introduced into the vertical fire-clay tubes, and the process continued as for the production of cast iron, taking care, however, that no coal be mixed with the ore, which would in such case become carburetted, the result being cast iron or steel. In making steel, the process is substantially the same as for cast or wrought iron.

M. Schinz says of this patent that it "is not much more than the ordinary test-process of the laboratory on a larger scale; the only difference being, that, whereas in the ordinary trials a surplus of carbon and scoriæ is added, he, M. Ponsard, used merely the exact quantity requisite for carbonizing and smelting. This process, however, is the same as that going on in the hearth of the blast-furnace when the ores arrive there unreduced. The peroxide of iron (or sometimes the oxide) is reduced by the contact with solid carbon. This reduction, however, is not confined to the oxides of iron alone; other substances contained in the scoriæ are affected in the same manner, and yield sulphur, phosphorus, silicium, etc., which are by no means desirable companions for the produced article. In the blast-furnace, hot air, and an insufficient supply of scoriæ, generally produce this bad effect partly; while Ponsard's apparatus is so arranged as to have it throughout. The resulting inferior material will have to be refined, and, in that case, the inventors can hardly claim to have saved any thing by their so-called direct production."

The Heaton Process.—An English translation of a long and able memoir on this process by M. Gruner, Professor of Metallurgy in l'École des Mines, Paris, appears in *The Engineer*. The more important details of the process are thus described:

The purification of pig-iron by the Heaton process is based on the reaction of nitrate of soda, which is at once basic and oxidizing. The nitric acid oxidizes the silicon, the phosphorus, and the sulphur; the soda seizes on the acids so formed, and withdraws them from the reducing action of the iron. These reactions are known, but the difficulty in operating on large masses is to obtain a sufficiently intimate contact between the molten metal and the nitrate, to produce an efficient purification, without, however, causing an action so energetic as to result in violent explosions. Mr. Heaton adopted several contrivances in succession, which I need not review. It will be sufficient to describe his latest improvement, which has the great merit of being both simple and cheap.

This apparatus consists of a cylindrical vessel with a movable bottom, a kind of cupola without *tuyères*, into which is run the molten metal to be purified. In England it is called a Bessemer's converter. The movable bottom is a cylindrical caldron of sheet-iron, provided with two trunnions, which allow of its being held by a forked lever mounted on a wheel carriage. By this means it is removed and replaced after each operation. The interior of the caldron is lined with bricks, or refractory clay worked into the shape of a hemispherical basin.

The converter and its movable bottom are provided with flanges, which are held together by clamps and wedges for each operation. The converter itself is lined with fire-bricks, and provided with a sheet-iron chimney like a cupola; on the top of the chimney is a sheet-iron cup, intended to stop the projection of incandescent slag and metal, which might take place in the event of a too violent deflagration of the nitrate. The molten pig is poured into the converter through a lateral aperture, a sort of box funnel, which can be closed at will by a wrought-iron lid, or simply by a brick. The dimensions vary with the weight of metal to be treated at each operation. There are four converters at Langley Mill, two large and two small ones; the latter are used for charges of about fifteen cwt., the former for more than double that quantity. But that is not the necessary limit of their capacity, like the Bessemer converters. The essential feature of Mr. Heaton's invention lies in the arrangement of the nitrate-chamber. To insure the gradual decomposition of the salt by the molten metal, the nitrate must be tightly packed into its chamber, and further protected by a perforated cover. If the stream of molten metal fell directly on the nitrate, it would at once penetrate and force its way to the bottom of the mass. The action would be most violent and instantaneous, and the alkaline salt would soon float without efficiently permeating and reacting on the molecules of metal to be purified. To avoid this, the above-mentioned perforated cover is placed over the nitrate when it has been packed into the movable bottom; it is a thin plate of cast or sheet-iron, perforated with a great number of holes about ½ in. in diameter. The principal reagent used by Mr. Heaton is Peruvian nitrate of soda; but he habitually mixes with it a certain proportion of quartzose sand, sometimes lime, peroxide of manganese, fluor spar, etc. We shall see that quartzose sand and lime are more generally detrimental than otherwise, but peroxide of manganese, carbonate of soda, and sea-salt may advantageously be added to the nitrate. Indeed, Mr. Heaton himself has abandoned the use of lime, and now generally uses from six to twelve per cent. of nitrate with one to one and a half per cent. of sand.

These two ingredients are thoroughly intermixed, and then closely packed into the nitrate-chamber, which has been previously dried.

The nitrate used is the ordinary nitrate of commerce; it contains from five per cent. to six per cent. of water, and three per cent. to four per cent. of foreign substances. A sample which I brought back from Langley Mill was analyzed at the School of Mines with these results: water, 5.88; sand, 0.28; sulphate of lime, 0.22; chloride of sodium, 2.78; pure nitrate of soda, 90.89. It was tested for phosphoric acid, but it only contained the merest traces of it. According to this, 100 of crude nitrate contains 33.27 of soda, or rather 34.7, if we reckon in that which is found in the condition of chloride of sodium.

The molten pig to be converted is tapped out of the blast-furnace or the cupola into a ladle of sufficient capacity to contain the weight of metal to be converted. By means of a crane or a traveller the ladle is brought up to the box funnel of the converter, and the molten metal is poured into it. If the molten metal be hot and fluid, the reaction begins at once; the perforated plate lets the metal pass, the nitrate is gradually decomposed, the oxidizing gases, mingled with streams of soda, rise through the bath of pig, and cause an ebullition more or less violent, which sometimes makes the whole converter tremble, and

is accompanied invariably by a roar similar to that which is heard in a small Bessemer converter.

The conversion seldom takes more than from two and a half minutes to five minutes, but occasionally, when the molten metal is not at a high temperature, and cannot at once pass through the perforated plate, it lasts eight or ten minutes.

Krupp's Bessemer Rails.—The manufacture of Bessemer steel rails is now very extensively conducted in the great works of Herr Krupp, at Essen.

The *Engineer* says: There are four converters used only for rail-making. The steel ingots obtained are cylindrical, 1 foot 6 inches diameter, and 5 feet high. These ingots are hammered under a steam-hammer of 8 tons, and reduced to an octagonal section 12 inches wide. They are then rolled through a rolling-mill worked by a 100-horse-power horizontal and direct-acting engine. This engine, which is not condensing, runs at 50 revolutions per minute, and has a fly-wheel 46 feet diameter, weighing 60 tons. The ingot is thus converted into a rectangular bar 5¼ inches thick and 7¼ inches wide; this bar is divided into six or eight pieces, under a steam-hammer of 4 tons. Each of these pieces is used for making rails; they are rolled through a steam rolling-mill worked by a 500-horse-power steam-engine to the speed of 60 revolutions per minute. This system of manufacture enables us to get rid of the globules which have been ere now the most grievous defect of the steel rails, and which are more easily expelled from a large ingot than a small one.

Tungsten Bessemer Steel.—The idea of alloying steel with tungsten is not a new one. Mr. Mushet proposed it many years ago. At a later date M. Leguen, of France, made experiments with the alloy, employing iron converted into steel by the Bessemer process. With a common gray pig, which he used then, he produced an alloy of very good quality. Recently he has continued his experiments, now employing a good white cast iron, and producing an excellent steel. A portion of the iron is first alloyed with one-tenth of wolfram in a cupola furnace, and is added to the rest in the converter. The conversion is carried further than usual, so that the carbon is reduced to one-half the ordinary proportion. The steel made by this process is soft, but very tough, and tempers remarkably well. Mr. Leguen mentions that it will be found extremely useful for machines, some parts of which require to be tempered, while others are kept soft. The amount of tungsten used to make the alloy is only 0.55 per cent., so that the additional cost of the steel cannot be very high. Rails have been made from this kind of steel—the alloy containing .558 per cent. of tungsten. M. Leguen says of this part of his experiments:

"The rolling of the tungsten-steel ingots did not exhibit any peculiar feature. They were rolled into rails for the French Eastern Railroad. The rails, when finished, were laid into the track of the Strasbourg depot in Paris. They were also tested by a breaking strain and by concussion, as well as by forging and hardening. The engineer who was intrusted with this testing reported to me on the result as follows:

"'The tungsten-steel rails tested at the depot of the Eastern Railroad were highly flexible and tough. The steel worked perfectly well in being hammered and jumped. In turning it off, chips of remarkable strength were obtained. To investigate into its capacity of hardening, several bars, 25 millim. square, were forged and hardened at a cherry-red heat. The grain in the fracture of the metal was, before this operation, large, white, bright, and somewhat hookey; after being hardened, it was very fine, gray, and showed a peculiar lustre, like velvet. Any steel made at Terrenoire by the ordinary method, and hardening so well, would be too brittle to be used for rails. But the tungsten Bessemer steel combines the highest degree of toughness with an eminent capacity for hardening.'"

Durability of Steel Rails.—*Van Nostrand's Magazine* alludes to the fact that, out of the 11,000 tons of steel rails in use on the Hudson River Railroad, some of which had been down over three years, only eleven had broken, up to January 1, 1869. On the Erie Railroad only ten steel rails had broken, up to the same date, out of the 8,000 tons in use. Some thousands of tons of these rails were made at Troy, N. Y.; the rest are of English manufacture. Other railroad companies using steel rails bear witness to their great superiority in all respects over the old iron ones.

Tests of Steel and Iron Car-wheels.—The *American Railway Times* publishes the following minutes of some tests made upon steel and iron car-wheels at the shops of the Pennsylvania Railway at Altoona, in June. A steel wheel made on Tarr's patent, at the "Black Diamond Steel Works," Pittsburg, was first tried. The test was that of the drop, weighing 1,200 lbs., falling upon the wheel, on bearings two feet apart, the blow on the hub:

1st blow, 9 feet fall, no apparent injury.
2d " 11 " "
3d " 14½ " "
4th " 16 " "
5th " 20 " "
6th " 23 " "
7th " 28 " cracked at hub.
8th " 28 " drove hub through the plate of the wheel, leaving the whole tread and guard around the circumference of the wheel perfectly sound. The steel wheel weighed 444 lbs.

At the same time and place the following tests of the best iron wheels in use were made:

Ramapo,	1st	blow,	10	feet,	broke	in	many pieces.
Lobdell,	1st	"	7	"	"	"	
"	2d	"	10	"	"	"	
German,	1st	"	7	"	"	"	
Whitney,	1st	"	5	"	"	"	
"	2d	"	7	"	"	"	
Whitney,	1st	"	7	"	"	"	

The cast-iron wheels weighed 550 lbs. each. These tests are rather crude in character, but they establish the fact, pretty well known before, of the superiority of cast steel over cast iron, in resisting the effect of hard blows.

The Protection of Iron Ships.—The latest invention for the protection of iron ships from oxidation is that of Messrs. Demanel & Bertin, who distribute about the inner side of the shell tubular reservoirs made of zinc, which are riveted to the plates, and place the metal in perfect communication with the iron hull. These reservoirs are charged with sea-water, which is changed every day. Bands of zinc carried in all directions connect the various reservoirs, and strips are here and there brought to the outer side and made to communicate with the sea. An electrical action, it is asserted, is thus produced, which protects the iron from oxidation. The authors say that experimental boats kept in very salt water for a year, with these appliances attached to them, do not exhibit a trace of oxidation in any part.

Chromium and Titanium in Pig-iron.—Messrs. A. N. and S. D. Hayes, of Massachusetts, contributed a paper to the *Scientific American*, reporting the results of frequent chemical investigations made by them upon the altered character of some pig-irons, resulting from the presence of the oxides of chromium and titanium. They say:

Both the oxide of chromium and oxide of titanium seem to act in the furnace or the crucible in a way to withdraw a portion of the carbon, or prevent that true union of carbon with a portion of the iron, which constitutes gray pig-iron, without the metals of these oxides really alloying with the iron, and thus indicating the cause of change. We have analyzed samples of pig-iron where the alloys of chromium or titanium existed in the pigs, and where the oxides accompanied the ores in the beds, but we were not prepared to find an influence exerted on the quality of the pig-metal without the refractory metals forming a part of the composition.

The occurrence of oxide of manganese with iron ore is common, and titanium compounds are often found in both magnetic and brown iron ores, as insoluble substances, in small proportions, and these compounds combine with and are removed by the fluxes without injury to the pig-metal. These compounds of titanium are the cause of the often superb blue color of the cinder, produced under varying conditions of glassy or stony character, and must be carefully distinguished from those we regard as more detrimental in their influence on the metal.

In a number of analyses of iron-ores we had found both oxide of chromium and oxide of titanium in a state rendering them soluble in diluted acids, and in a condition to escape detection in the ordinary modes of analysis. Both magnetic and brown iron ores have been found to contain either oxide of chromium or oxide of titanium in this soluble state. Among the samples from contiguous beds, this diversity in composition made by the presence of some oxide of chromium or oxide of titanium existed; and, while the bulk of a bed of ore was pure, continuations of the bed or associated ore yielded notable weights of oxide of chromium or oxide of titanium in the different samples.

The suggestion we would make to the iron-master, in view of these facts, is the possibility of the quality of the pig-metals in anomalous cases being greatly influenced by the admixture of some ore containing the oxides of chromium or titanium with the basis ore of good quality. This may take place by the main bed being crossed by veins of mixed ore, or by the workings passing into contiguous beds where one kind of ore is used. In other cases, where the iron-master can gain a great advantage arising from mixing ores, one of the kinds may contain the contaminating oxides and injure the iron.

We subjoin some results of analysis, showing the proportion of oxide of chromium to the metallic iron contained in the ores:

1. Magnetic ore—iron, 49; oxide of chromium, 1.40. 2. Hematite ore—iron, 42.47; oxide of chromium, 1.60. 3. Brown massive ore—iron, 54.32; oxide of chromium, 1.90. 4. Same—iron, 46.70; oxide of chromium, 1.04.

More traces have been discovered in some cases, while in other instances a larger proportion of chromium formed an alloy with the iron produced from the ore.

Malleable Cast Iron.—An account of the manufacture of this article, as now carried on in the most celebrated German founderies, is supplied by *La Génie Industrielle*. We quote: "The makers keep secret the brand of iron which they employ, but it is well understood that the brands are not the same in different establishments. The iron is melted in plumbago crucibles, holding about 30 kilog. They are covered with porcelain lids, to keep out impurities and cinders, which reduce the high heat requisite for the process. The fire in which the crucibles are placed is from 630 m. to 940 m. square, and is surrounded with bricks of porcelain earth. The use of blast is not advantageous, since the economy of time is offset by a greater consumption of coke. The natural draught of the chimney is sufficient when the furnace is properly constructed. An essential condition of success is a high heat at the moment of pouring. Practice enables the caster to estimate the heat of the furnace, and he recognizes the precise moment by plunging a bar of red-hot iron into the crucible, from which, upon being withdrawn, the metal flies off in sparks. The crucibles are raised with tongs with curved jaws, and the pouring is done with all possible speed—the surface being first cleaned. By cementation the casting acquires the properties of wrought iron, having some analogy to steel. The operation consists in subjecting the castings to a prolonged red-heat in a bath of pulverized red hematite. They are arranged in boxes of cast iron called muffles. These are square, and with air-tight covers. In arranging the castings in the boxes, they are placed in layers alternately with layers of hematite. The cementing furnace is very simple. The grate is in front, and the draught of the chimney carries the hot air around the boxes. The heat should be conducted with care, starting rather vigorously, in order to reach the desired temperature quickly; then, supplying the furnace at regular intervals. The cementation lasts three, four, and five days, according to the size of the pieces. A charge is about 350 to 450 kilog. of castings. In arranging the charges,

large pieces should not be mingled with small, and those muffles containing the larger pieces should be placed in the furnace first. On the other hand, the smaller objects are placed on the sole of the furnace. Without these precautions, many pieces may be burned, or badly decarburized—the latter becoming something intermediate between iron and steel. When the operation is deemed complete, the fire is allowed to fall, but the furnace is not uncharged until it has gradually cooled. Practice plays an important part in the management of the firing, as the temperature can be judged of only after prolonged experience."

Special Method of Blooming.—The American *Exchange and Review* gives the following description of a modification of the Catalan process in the old form of the forge-hearth at the Logan Iron-works, Bellefonte. The writer regards the plan as extremely simple and direct, and resulting in the production of a very superior iron:

The furnace is a few inches above the general floor of the forge-house, and the size about large enough to make one bloom of 200 or 225 lbs. It is about three by four feet, the long way running back from the workman. The instrument for turning, lifting, and aggregating the iron is called a "furgeon," and answers to the rabble of the ordinary puddling-furnace. The waste-heap passes up and through a chamber immediately over the forge-hearth, where the pigs are placed, which become red-hot before they are ready to be drawn down upon the bed of charcoal previously prepared. The pigs thus drawn down upon the charcoal bed are covered, and the blast turned on into both *tuyères* right and left. After a few minutes the iron begins to melt; it is decarbonized by the blast, is worked into shape by the furgeon, and then lifted up clear of the bed and laid upon the top of the same bed again, some additional charcoal put around, and the blast turned on. The iron now is melted in what is called the sinking process, wherein the iron drops through the coal into the hearth until entirely passed into the hearth; there it is again agglomerated into the ball, or "loup," by the furgeon (pronounced *furgun*), the blast having previously been turned on fully; it is then lifted out a balled loup and carried to the hammer. The cinder is tapped off through a hole in the front iron plate, and is rich in iron, with so much silex that it easily emits sparks when the penknife-blade is struck against it. Of course, this process is attended by a large loss of iron, while the loup, which gives rise to the cinder, is not thereby improved, as in the puddling-furnace. But in this particular instance the iron is singularly pure, and the blooms command $85 per ton at the forge. One ton and a half of pig yields 2,464 lbs. of bloom. The charcoal-furnace yielding the iron is nearly adjoining the bloomery.

This furnace is only 32 ft. high, about 26 in. across the tunnel-head opening, 8½ ft. bosh, and the slag is allowed to flow out from the hearth whenever it rises above the fore-hearth. The breast is covered with a simple plate of iron; the cinder is always in sight; as soon as the iron appears, the crucible, or tapping-hole, is opened, and the iron is tapped off into iron moulds. There are three casts per twenty-four hours, two tons per cast; 150 bush. hard coal (18 lbs. to the bushel) to the ton made. Charges, 700 to 750 pipes ore (brown hematite), 27 bush. charcoal, 80 lbs. gray limestone of good quality: pressure, a half to three-quarters of a pound per inch; nozzle, two and a half; two wooden blowing cylinders worked by water-wheel. Some finery cinders, about 30 to 40 lbs., are added to the charges, and said to improve the iron, which at present (May 26, 1869) is all forge-iron, and used at Stewart & Co.'s wire-factory, and reported as a very fine iron.

Smelting, carburizing, and purifying Iron.—Some processes for facilitating this work have lately been patented by Mr. Isham Baggs, of London. In charging the furnace he dispenses with coal or coke, using instead coal-gas, hydrogen, carbonic oxide, or other combustible gas, or the vapor of any hydrocarbon under pressure, and in combination with a hot or cold air blast. In the case of the inflammable hydrocarbon vapors, the same may be forced into the furnace under the pressure of their own atmospheres, or by means of mechanical appliances. The gases and vapors which are employed for the purposes of this invention may be previously mixed with the air furnished by the blast, or may be caused to meet the air in the furnace or at the tuyères. The proportions of the mixture, when a combination of gas or vapor and air is employed, are subject to constant regulation by valves. One very convenient mode of obtaining combustible gases for the purposes of this invention is to generate coal-gas in the usual way, and then carbonic oxide, and to blow air or carbonic-oxide gas under pressure through the retort containing the residual coke.

For the purpose of carburizing the iron, whether in or out of the furnace, as may be desirable, coal-gas or other carbides, or other materials containing carbon, are blown through the furnace, or brought into contact with the molten metal by blowing them through it. Carbon in any suitable form or combination may also be directly introduced into the furnace for the purpose of carburization; and, although generally for smelting purposes it is desirable to exclude all solid mineral fuel from the furnace as part of the charge, yet, where a suspension of operations is necessary, such a charge of coal, coke, or other fuel, may be introduced into the furnace as will prevent the materials, on renewal of work, from falling through the crucible or any iron remaining therein or below it, from being permanently solidified. When purification is required, hydrofluoric acid is blown through the molten metal on its way from the furnaces, the gases being mixed with common air, or with some gaseous diluent.—*Mechanics' Magazine.*

Iron Analysis.—Gintel gives an easy method of determining the impurities in cast iron. The iron is reduced to as minute a state of division as possible, and is then treated with a strong solution of perchloride of iron, as nearly neutral as possible. The mixture is kept heated for ten or twelve hours, at the end of which time almost all the iron will be found to have dissolved, leaving, as a residue, the carbon, sulphur, phosphorus, and silica, together with the little iron left undissolved. This residue has only to be well washed, oxidized and dissolved, and the sulphur estimated as sulphate of baryta. The exact plan directed

by the author is to introduce the residue, and filter into a porcelain crucible, having at the bottom three parts of nitrate of potash and one part of hydrate of potash; heat to fusion, dissolve and precipitate with chloride of barium. The phosphorus and silica will be contained in the same solution, and can be determined separately.—*Jour. Franklin Institute.*

How to determine the Carbon chemically combined with Iron.—The American *Journal of Science* for May contains a translation of a paper presented to the Chemical Society of Paris, by Prof. Eggertz, Director of the School of Mines, Falena, Sweden, on a new process for determining the amount of carbon chemically combined with iron. We quote:

When steel or pig-iron containing carbon in chemical combination is dissolved in nitric acid, a soluble brown coloring matter is formed whose coloring power is quite intense, and the solution assumes a tint which is dark in proportion to the quantity of the chemically-combined carbon.

Iron and graphite (or free carbon) do not influence this coloring; for the solution of nitrate of iron is colorless, or at most slightly greenish, unless extremely concentrated, and graphite is insoluble in nitric acid.

Thus in dissolving two pieces of different steels of the same weight in nitric acid, taking care to dilute the darker solution until the two liquids present exactly the same color, it is very evident that the more highly carburetted steel will furnish the larger quantity of liquid, and the proportion of the volumes will indicate the relative proportion of color in the two steels.

If, now, the composition and content of carbon of one of the steels is known, the absolute percentage of carbon in the other steel may be immediately deduced.

Suppose that 1 gram. of each of two steels (*a* and *b*) have been dissolved, and that the volumes of the two solutions brought to the same degree of coloring bear the relation to each other $a : b :: 5 : 7$. Knowing that the steel (*a*) contains 1 per cent. of carbon, you at once deduce that the steel (*b*) contains 1.4 per cent. of carbon.

In applying this method of analysis, certain precautions must be taken, which we proceed briefly to point out.

In a cylindrical test-tube dissolve gradually in the cold 10 centigrams of wrought iron, steel, or cast iron reduced to a fine powder, in 1½ to 5 cubic centimetres of nitric acid of 1.2 specific gravity (about 25° Baumé). The use of nitric acid containing hydrochloric acid must be avoided, because the solution of iron would have a yellow tint.

In proportion as the metal contains more carbon, more nitric acid must be used. After some time, when the chief part of the metal appears to be attacked, place the tube in a water-bath to the depth of about fifteen millimetres, and warm it to 80° Centigrade. In this position only the lower part of the tube is in contact with the warm water; a movement takes place in the acid which favors its reaction upon the metal; a slight disengagement of carbonic acid from all the particles of carbon may be observed. The operation should always be conducted under the same circumstances as to heat and length of time.

The evolution of gas having ceased (in operating upon steel the reaction must continue two to three hours), place the tube in a large vase filled with water, to bring the solution always to the same temperature. This precaution is indispensable, because the same liquid is darker when warm than when cold. Afterward, pour off as exactly as possible the clear liquid into a graduated burette. Upon the black residue remaining in the tube pour some drops of nitric acid, and heat carefully over a lamp. If there is no further liberation of gas, the residue consists of nothing but graphite or silica. Cool the new solution, and add it to that which is already in the burette.

The liquid is then diluted with water until its color corresponds exactly with that of the normal liquid, which latter should be of such a degree of concentration that each cubic centimetre represents .0001 gram of carbon.

If, for instance, this normal liquid is prepared from cast steel containing exactly $\frac{1}{100}$ of one per cent. of carbon, one decigram of that steel must be dissolved in 8.5 cubic centimetres of nitric acid; 100 grams of steel containing 85 centigrams of carbon would thus be dissolved in 8,500 cubic centimetres of the normal solution, 100 cubic centimetres of that solution would represent one centigram of carbon, and consequently one cubic centimetre of the normal solution would represent .0001 gram of carbon.

The normal solution does not keep, and should be often renewed, since it becomes perceptibly paler even within twenty-four hours. For it, however, may be substituted a dilute alcoholic solution of sugar, properly caramelized, brought to exactly the same tint; this solution keeps much longer without sensible change.

As one gram of iron cannot readily be dissolved in less than 15 cubic centimetres of nitric acid, it follows that a proportion of carbon less than $\frac{1}{150}$ of one per cent.* cannot be estimated by means of the normal liquid, but this minimum is seldom found in practice.

If the proportion of carbon exceeds $\frac{8}{10}$ of one per cent., the ferruginous solution is so concentrated that it has a light greenish tint, which renders its comparison with the normal liquid difficult. It that case a normal liquid of one-third the strength is prepared by diluting the normal liquid with twice its volume of water; then each cubic centimetre of the liquid represents only one-third of the ten-thousandth part of a gram of carbon. When the proportion of carbon in the specimen to be analyzed is very large (as, for instance, in white cast iron), only .05 gram of the metal must be taken for analysis, and in that case half a cubic centimetre of its solution corresponds to a cubic centimetre of the normal solution. If the metal to be analyzed contains graphite, the latter must be collected on a filter before the solution is put into the burette.

This method is more exact in proportion as the percentage of carbon is smaller. With an accurate balance, and with suitable arrangements, a great number of determinations of carbon close enough for practice can be effected in a time relatively very short.

All the Bessemer steel made at Edskin, in Sweden, is marked after hammering (*apres l'étirage*) by figures expressing its hardness as ascertained by this color-measuring analysis of Prof. Eggertz.

It is obvious that only burettes of perfectly colorless glass must be used, or at least they must all have exactly the same tint.

Chemical Nature of Cast Iron.—A committee of the British Association, appointed to investigate this subject, reported that they have been enabled to prepare iron of such purity, that it contained in 100 parts only 0.00025 parts of sulphur, and was entirely free from phosphorus and silicon. The amount of the iron taken for each analysis was about thirty grammes. The committee expressed a hope that in another year a great deal of very

* O. D. Allen, of the Freedom Iron-works, Penn., has found it quite practicable by a modification of this method to distinguish between irons containing respectively $\frac{1}{100}$ and $\frac{1}{150}$ of one per cent. of carbon.

useful information will be obtained on the chemical nature and physical properties of pure iron and its alloys. At the same meeting, Dr. Jacobi read a paper on the electro-deposition of iron, illustrating his remarks by a series of plates of extreme beauty. The solution from which the metallic iron was deposited consisted of a double salt, the sulphate of iron and magnesia. It was found desirable to coat the article receiving the deposit with a thin film of nickel or copper. Specimens illustrating the application of the electro-deposition of iron to purposes of engraving (aided by photography) were also exhibited.

METEORS. A meteor of great size and brilliancy was seen at the principal points along and near the Atlantic coast, between Boston and Philadelphia, and doubtless at many other places, from which no reports have come, on the night of May 20th, about 11 o'clock. Its light is described as surpassing that of the full moon, which was shining at the time, and in effect was like that of a flash of lightning. It left behind a brilliant train of light, and finally exploded. The duration of its passage was estimated at five seconds. Seen from New York its point of origin was about east, at an elevation of 30°, and its termination about north 60° east, at an altitude of 15°. At Poughkeepsie its course was from the south toward the east, making an angle of about 30° with the horizon. At New Haven it moved from a point somewhat west of south to a point somewhat north of east, and its altitude at the time of explosion was about 30°. At Hartford its course was from south-southwest to east-northeast. Prof. Elias Loomis, in a notice in the *College Courant*, sums up the results of the imperfect data with regard to this meteor as follows:

"From these observations it is not possible to assign the actual path with much precision, but it is inferred that the meteor moved nearly horizontally at an elevation of fifty miles above the earth's surface, and the length of its visible path was about two hundred miles. The point where it exploded was over the Atlantic Ocean, somewhat north and east of Boston. The time of flight was estimated at five seconds, which would indicate a velocity of forty miles per second. Several observers have stated that the explosion of this meteor was followed by a sound which resembled distant thunder. The distance of the meteor from New Haven at this time was about one hundred and seventy miles, and sound would require more than ten minutes to traverse this distance. Any sound which followed soon after the explosion must therefore be ascribed to some other cause than this meteor."

Mr. E. N. Smith, of Moriches, Suffolk County, N. Y., sent the following interesting communication upon the subject to the American *Journal of Science:*

I have obtained the following facts, respecting the meteor of May 20th, from two persons, Mr. and Mrs. Fling, residing at the time at Cutchogue, thirteen or fourteen miles east of Riverhead. Mrs. Fling compared the light to the Drummond light which she had seen in Broadway. The meteor passed from southwest to northeast, parallel with the front of the house (which she says points to the southeast), and at an altitude half-way between the horizon and the zenith. She thought the body of the meteor, which sent off constant scintillations, was about the apparent size of the moon. Mr. Fling thought it might be a shade less. The color varied from reddish to purple, though different in different parts and times. In about three minutes after the passage of the meteor, a terrific sound was heard. Not realizing the character of the meteor, Mrs. Fling said she first thought it was an earthquake; but, on second thought, concluded it must have come from the meteor. It jarred the whole house, doors, windows, etc., to the very foundations. Rev. Thomas Owen, half a mile east of us, says he was just about retiring for the night, when he heard a tremendous jarring sound, and thought it must be a cannon fired from a ship in distress; others corroborate the statement of great noise. I have since conversed with Mr. and Mrs. Clark, very worthy people in Centre Moriches, and their account agrees, in all important particulars, with the former by Mr. and Mrs. Fling. Taking the diameter at 9′, and the distance (from the time 3ᵐ.) thirty-nine or forty miles, the altitude above the earth must have been twenty-eight miles; and the diameter of the body 1,843 feet. The velocity must have been very great, probably equal to that of the noted meteor which traversed Europe from northwest to southeast, about 9½ P. M., August 18, 1783, which it seemed to resemble. The time of occurrence of the late meteor was about 11ʰ. 20ᵐ. P. M. (some say 11½).

The shower of meteors looked for, on the morning of November 14th, was not seen throughout the greater part of the United States, owing to the thick weather. But at Pensacola, Florida, and at a few other points, where the sky was fortunately clear, a fine exhibition of the phenomenon was witnessed. Commander William Gibson, United States Navy, stationed at the Pensacola Navy Yard at the time, gave the following graphic account of what he saw, in a letter to the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory at Washington:

NAVY YARD, PENSACOLA, *November* 15, 1869.

SIR: The meteoric display of the night of the 13th and 14th instant was seen here under favorable circumstances, and in great brilliancy, and I send you a brief description of it, for the sake of calling attention to one or two of its features.

The night was still and cloudless; and, after the moon was down, the beauty and transparency of the sky, with its broad belt of equatorial constellations culminating in Orion, with Sirius and the planet Jupiter, Capella, and Canopus, confronting each other in opposite quarters, or "rival houses of the heavens," and with a clearly-defined pyramid of zodiacal light, shining wonderfully bright and reaching high toward the zenith, were something remarkable, independent of the showers of the shooting-stars. These were observed in extraordinary numbers from 1.15 A. M. until lost in the dawn, swarming most between the hours of three and four. It is difficult to give an average of the number per minute. It varied from two or three to twenty or thirty, or more, and it was never uniform for equal spaces of time, the star-showers flashing and intermitting like the bursts and pauses of the gusty rain.

Their paths were dispersed pretty freely over the whole heavens, but the principal point of divergence was in the constellation Leo. Few or none were observed to radiate from Perseus. We saw every variety of these "meteoric asteroids," from fine

spidery threads and mere moving points of light, to great meteors, which exceeded the apparent diameter of Jupiter, and burst in splendors of orange and crimson fire. Two of the larger class, after apparent combustion, remained for fifteen minutes visible as small nebulous or cometary stars of the second or third magnitude, with distinct nuclei in misty rings. One of these was near the outer of the index stars or pointers in Ursa Major, and one far to the southward, near or in Argo. But the most remarkable exhibition of all was that of a large "fire-ball," which fell rather slowly from near Aldebaran, and burst in Aries. For many minutes a portion of its tail (about five degrees in length) remained printed on the sky, forked in form like the conventional representation of a thunder-bolt—the lightning fixed where it had finished. This apparition finally changed, and spread horizontally into a small white cloud or vapor-wreath (about four degrees by two) of nebulous phosphorescent lustre, which drifted slowly to the northward, and remained visible and luminous for at least fifty minutes. Its apparent substance differed in no respect from that of the tail of a comet.

Very respectfully, your obedient servant,
WM. GIBSON, Commander, U. S. N.

The London *Daily News* gives the following summary of observations of the November meteors at different points on the Continent of Europe, where the shower was seen to the best advantage:

Although in England we had no noteworthy display of the November meteors, yet gradually news is coming in from various places which suffices to indicate that the earth passed in reality through a very widely-extended and tolerably dense portion of the meteor-stream this year. The display in 1866 lasted but a few hours; that in 1867 was even briefer; while, in 1868, falling stars were seen on two nights in succession (in America), a fact which indicates that the earth was upward of twenty-four hours in passing through the meteoric stream. But now observe what Lieutenant Tupman reports from Port Said, in Egypt. As early as November eight small meteors were noticed, whose motion, directed from the well-known "radiant" in Leo, showed that they belonged to the true November meteor-stream. Again, on the morning of the 10th, between one and four, meteors were observed to radiate from the constellation Leo at the rate of eight per hour. On the following morning they were still falling, but in fewer numbers; while, on the 12th, no stars were seen to travel from Leo, though many shooting-stars not belonging to the November system were observed.

Here, then, we find that there had been a vast outlying branch of the November meteor system, so perfectly distinct from the main stream as to leave a complete gap, so to speak, which the earth occupied a day and more in traversing, and yet unmistakably associated with that stream, since the radiation of stars from Leo could bear no other interpretation. On the 12th, however, there was a lull, and even on the morning of the 13th very few stars were seen to radiate from the sickle in Leo. The morning of the 14th was that on which the true display was expected; and the event corresponded to the anticipations which had been formed by astronomers. The morning was not very clear—half a gale of wind was blowing from the northward, and heavy clouds, continually passing, rarely left a third of the sky visible. Nevertheless a brilliant display was seen, of short duration, corresponding in this latter particular more with the shower of 1867 than any other recent showers. From half-past twelve to a quarter past one A. M., a large portion of the sky being clear overhead at times, only two small meteors were seen, neither of which radiated from Leo.

At half-past two the watch was resumed, and between large openings in the clouds the shower was seen at its height. Most brilliant meteors, many of which illuminated the view around like flashes of lightning, often of a bright-green color, shot with astonishing rapidity at the rate of one or two every minute. This continued at about the same rate until four o'clock, when there was a sudden diminution in the numbers, and before five o'clock all was over.

The news received from Father Secchi, at Rome, shows that the particular part of the November meteor system which gave the brilliant display witnessed by Lieutenant Tupman was the same which the Roman observer watched. He counted no fewer than 183 meteors in half an hour.

The *News* adds:

Undoubtedly the most remarkable result of these observations is the confirmation they afford of the view recently brought forward by Mr. Alexander Herschel, that the November meteor-stream is not single. This view points to the existence of no fewer than three distinct branches, of which the central one is the largest. But, at the part of the system crossed this year by the earth, the branches must be very much farther apart than at the portions crossed in the years 1866–'68. Lieutenant Tupman, in fact, only recognized two branches, of which the second was obviously the bright or central one, and, as his letter is dated November 15th, it follows that, if the third outlying stream is as far separated from the middle one as the first has been shown to be, the earth had not yet reached it when the last observations were made. But, taking only the results we have to hand, and noticing that the meteors belonging to the first stream were seen on four successive days, we have this astounding result, that the branch stream in question was no less than 1,700,000 miles deep (measured square to the direction in which it lies). Then came a gap which the earth took more than a day in passing—corresponding to a distance of some 500,000 miles; and then the earth plunged through the more compact central stream, whose thickness would seem to have been about 70,000 miles only.

These figures are surprising enough; but when we consider the enormous extension of the meteor-stream we are even more astonished. It has now been rendered all but certain that each of two great branches at least extends without break or interruption from the portion crossed by the earth in November, 1866, to the part crossed this year; and, knowing what we do of the path followed by the meteors, we are absolutely certain that the part traversed in 1866 is now about a thousand millions of miles away from us—is, in fact, passing not far from the orbit of distant Saturn. Along the whole of that enormous distance these two meteor-streams extend, with a depth varying from 40,000 or 50,000 miles to the enormous depths mentioned above, and with a breadth which, though unmeasured, may be safely assumed to exceed the depth tenfold at least.

In the American *Journal of Science*, for May, Dr. J. Lawrence Smith, of Louisville, Ky., gives an account of masses of meteoric iron lately discovered in Cohahuila, Mexico, near the Texas border. At different times very large specimens of this iron have been found in that region—one, described in 1854 as weighing a ton, and another at an earlier date, of a cylindrical form, a yard long, and ten inches in diameter. The irons referred to in the annexed narrative were discovered by Dr. H. B. Butcher, who communicated the facts in letters to his father, which were afterward placed at the disposal of Mr. Smith, who made an analysis of a fragment of one of the masses. The Santa Rosa iron, to which the author refers (and of which he gave a description in

the *Journal of Science* in 1854), was the cylindrical mass previously mentioned, found about 60 miles north of Santa Rosa. Mr. Smith says:

In a letter dated September 8, 1868, Dr. Butcher writes, from information received from the son of Dr. Long, who had resided many years at Santa Rosa, that, in the fall of the year 1837, there appeared over the town a most brilliant meteor, having a northwest direction. He describes it as most beautiful, lighting up the whole horizon, with a trail of brilliant light following in its progress. Shortly after its disappearance among the distant mountains, they heard a rumbling sound, immediately followed by a tremendous explosion.

From the report he thought it fell and exploded as it reached the earth, somewhere between Santa Rosa and the mountains, a distance of some 35 miles, and the next day he started with friends to examine the route, hoping to find it. After two days' severe and rough riding they abandoned the search, and returned to town. Shortly afterward, an Indian brought a piece weighing 10 or 12 lbs. into Santa Rosa, supposing it to be silver, having found it some 90 miles northwest of the town, being in the same direction in which Dr. Long and his friends had been exploring, the doctor having been deceived as to distance, he only going to the base of the mountain, instead of crossing it and then following the valley for some 40 miles farther, where I think his search would have been a success.

Dr. Butcher now undertook the search, after which he writes: "I have returned fully successful, and am making preparations to send on the iron. In making my arrangements, I hired eight Mexicans and two Indians as guides, and started into the mountains in a northwest direction, the same as taken by Dr. Long, and found the iron about 90 miles from Santa Rosa. As no vehicle could go into the mountains by the route we entered, I spent two days in exploring a new road, whereby the ox-teams could bring them out, and get them to Santa Rosa. They consist of eight pieces, varying from 290 lbs., which is the smallest, to 654 lbs., which is the largest, making a total of nearly 4,000 lbs. Before the explosion the weight must have been much greater, as it is not probable that I have secured the whole, and we know some was taken away by the Indians, who thought they found large masses of silver, and carried their specimens to Santa Rosa. It appears there is on record a statement of the meteor having passed over the city in 1837, and one of my guides relates as a fact that, at that time (1837), a Lepan Indian was riding one of their small ponies through the valley, when his stirrup struck against one of the masses, causing a ringing sound like silver. He dismounted, and was confirmed in his opinion of silver, and took away a piece 10 or 12 lbs. in weight, which he carried to Santa Rosa to sell. I have received, from various sources, information relative to this meteor, and all confirm me in the opinion that the autumn of 1837 is about the time of its fall. My party were in considerable danger while in the mountains, as we were encamped two miles from the regular trail, when some 300 Indians went through with a large number of their stolen horses."

Whether or not the time above specified is that of the fall of one or more of these irons, is a matter of little moment; the probabilities are, however, strongly in favor of it; nevertheless, it forms one of the most interesting groupings of meteoric irons known in any part of the world; especially, as the masses are solid and compact masses, and not fragile and half stony, as the Atacama iron, that may have been broken artificially after its fall, and the fragments scattered by Indians and explorers in search of silver. Each one of these masses merits a separate examination, which I hope to be able to give, sooner or later, to satisfy my mind on one or two points connected with their common physical structure and chemical composition. But I will not delay this paper until then.

Six of these masses have been brought to this country, weighing respectively 290, 430, 438, 550, 580, and 654 lbs. They are irregular compact masses, without any evidence of stony minerals. They belong to the softer irons, not very difficult to cut with a saw; as yet there has been but about one ounce detached from one of the masses, which has enabled me to make out the following description:

Specific gravity 7.692. It contains—

Iron	92.95
Nickel	6.62
Cobalt	.48
Phosphorus	.02
Copper	very minute quantity.

This composition differs somewhat from the meteoric iron called Santa Rosa; but since examining that I have reason to believe that the quantity of nickel given is too small, some portion of it having remained with the iron; it being far more difficult than is usually supposed to separate accurately minute quantities of nickel from iron. Future examinations may prove that the Santa Rosa belongs to the group of irons under notice.

The same author gives, in the *Journal of Science*, the result of his examination of the "Wisconsin meteorites" (so called by Mr. Smith), which were picked up in Trenton, Washington County, Wisconsin. They were found within a space of ten or twelve square yards, so near the surface as to be turned up by the plough. They weighed respectively 62, 16, 10, and 8 lbs., and presented the usual pitted and irregular surface of meteoric irons. The largest piece was 14 in. long, 8 in. wide, and 4 in. thick, of specific gravity 7.82, and of composition as follows:

Iron	91.06
Nickel	7.90
Cobalt	0.53
Phosphorus	0.14
Copper	minute quantity.
Insoluble residue	0.45

Prof. George J. Brush furnishes to the same magazine, for September, an interesting paper on the "meteoric stone" which fell, December 5, 1868, in Franklin County, Alabama. It was found by Mr. Benjamin Pybas, about four miles south of Frankfort, in that county, and when taken out of the ground weighed 1 lb. 9½ oz. Accounts of the meteor from eye-witnesses are these:

Mr. James W. Hooper witnessed the fall, and describes it in a note to Dr. T. D. West, which I copy. "About 3 o'clock P. M., the afternoon being cloudy and cold, we heard a strange, harsh, roaring noise up in the air. Three distinct reports were heard: at first these were supposed to be cannon, but the noise immediately changed into a series of bursting sounds, like a great fire blazing and crackling through the air. It appeared to pass from the north toward the south. Immediately after the first sound or roaring had passed over, another was heard coming from the same direction, like the whizzing of a bomb-shell as it cuts through the air, making a loud humming noise. I gazed intently in the direction of the noise, and found that something was coming downward at a rapid rate. I looked, with my hand up, standing in a dodging position, for fear of its striking me, until I saw it strike some willow saplings about seventy or eighty yards from where I was, and fall thence to the ground. Upon going to the spot I found a strange-

looking rock, nearly buried in the ground, and still warm."

Major Slass, editor of *The Alabamian and Times*, in this place, has taken considerable trouble to collect all the information he could on the subject. He says that "the noise was heard for several miles around, before the final explosion. It burst, apparently, over the heads of twenty men, who were at work felling wood, one and a quarter miles from Mr. Hooper's house. One piece appeared to go southeast, another southwest, and the third northwest. There were afterward heard the reports, resembling the bursting of shells. One piece was heard to fall some distance from Mr. Hooper's, making a loud, crashing noise, and frightening a lot of hogs near by.

The reports resembling artillery were plainly heard for twenty or twenty-five miles east and west of Frankfort, and from fifteen to twenty north. I have no information as to the south. Mr. Hooper deserves much credit for noting the particulars of the fall, and for sending the meteorite for analysis and description. He refused, with scorn, money offers that must have been tempting to a person of limited income, preferring the advancement of science to dollars and cents.

In a personal interview he told me that he was sitting by a fire with his family when he heard the first noise. He instantly arose and walked forty or fifty yards from the house before the meteorite fell. His sister, Miss Hooper, living near, called to her brother, to "run quickly, the house is on fire—don't you hear it?" Mr. H. thinks it was three or four minutes from the first noise until its fall. The place where it struck the ground is a partially-decomposed conglomerate, mixed with vegetable mould. The fracture was made by striking a fragment of limestone rock.

Prof. Brush, assisted by Mr. Wm. G. Mixter, made an analysis of portions of the stone, with the following result, from which it appears that silica and alkalies constituted the mass of the material, and that iron was present in a comparatively small quantity:

		Oxygen.	
Silica	51.33	26.37	
Alumina	8.05	3.75	
Ferrous oxide	13.70	3.04	
Chromic oxide	0.42		
Magnesia	17.59	7.04	12.28
Lime	7.03	2.06	
Soda	0.45	.11	
Potash	0.22	.03	
Sulphur	0.23		
Nickeliferous iron	tr.		
	99.02		

Prof. Brush remarks that, in general physical characters, this meteorite very much resembles the Petersburg (Tenn.) meteoric stone analyzed and described by Prof. J. Lawrence Smith. It has the same lustrous coating, and the constituent minerals are very much the same in character. It seems to belong to the class of meteorites that Prof. G. Rose calls "Howardite," and which he describes as being granular mixtures of olivine, with a white silicate (*anorthite?*) and a small amount of chromite and nickeliferous iron. This class, according to Rose, includes the stones from Loutalox, Bialystok, Mässing, Nobleborough, and Mallygaum.

The most remarkable meteorite chronicled during the year was that seen in a portion of Western Ohio, and most clearly near the town of Forest, latitude 40° 50′, longitude W. 84° 40′. About 3 A. M. of October 27th, the citizens of Forest, and for a region miles around, were roused from sleep by a series of loud reports like the discharge of artillery. The intervals between the sounds were from one second to two or three seconds. Houses were shaken and windows rattled by the concussion. At the same time the sky was brilliantly lighted up. Mr. Pierson, of Patterson, a village about one mile west of Forest, looking out to discover the cause of these strange phenomena, saw what looked like a ball of fire, "apparently about as large as a bucket," approaching from a direction nearly south 35° west. It was exceedingly bright and dazzling, and had a luminous tail, seemingly thirty feet long and three feet wide. It vanished or exploded nearly overhead. In a paper upon the subject in the November *Journal of Science*, Prof. J. L. Smith, the indefatigable investigator of this class of wonders, sums up the evidence which he had been able to collect with reference to it. He says:

At Findlay, twenty miles northwest of Forest, the statement is, that there at about three o'clock on Wednesday morning, October 28th, the inhabitants were aroused by a terrific explosion somewhere in the upper regions.

The night was one of clear moonlight, and exceedingly cold for the season. The night watchmen had witnessed it; and one says that he first saw it in the southeast, in size, seemingly, as large as a beer-keg, and of intense brightness; that it descended, leaving a luminous streak behind, and that, when near the earth, it exploded with a terrific sound, and fierce brightness; that the light, after the explosion, took a southerly course, and disappeared. Another watchman reports that at the time of the explosion it appeared as large as a load of hay, and that the sound of the explosion was stunning, not like a quick, sharp report of thunder, but, as he termed it, more like the coming together of railroad-cars, but much louder, and that the light was brighter than that of the sun. The direction of the meteor from Findlay, as given by the watchman, with the bearing of the meteor's path, as described by Mr. Pierson, of Patterson, and the fact that to many the sound seemed nearly overhead, would indicate that it exploded or terminated its course in the vicinity of Forest; yet a careful investigation might prove its terminus to be many miles from that place. The sound seems to have been heard for perhaps fifty miles around, if not more. The stones or fragments that have fallen may never be found, owing to the fact that the explosion was at night, and the consequent difficulty of determining its exact locality. In Kenton, Ohio, the phenomena are said to have occurred a few minutes before three o'clock, and, consequently, they were not well observed; many persons saw the light but not the meteor, and all were sensible of the shock and sound. The meteor did not pass this place nearer than twenty miles, and the best judges give its duration at from two to three minutes from the flash to the explosion. The sound was of such force as to shake the houses, and many believed it to be an earthquake.

These are all the statements I have been able to obtain in regard to the appearance of this meteor and its accompanying phenomena. It was beyond all doubt a meteorite, and I am using all possible means to discover any fragments that may have fallen.

METHODISTS. I. METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH.—At the close of the year 1869, the statistics of the Methodist Episcopal Church were as follows:

CONFERENCES.	Travelling Preachers.	Local Preachers.	Members.
Alabama	53	194	9.756
Baltimore	185	171	29.397
Black River	99	68	10,273
California	124	98	5,962
Central German	98	87	10,198
Central Illinois	186	212	22,696
Central New York	266	177	26.554
Central Ohio	137	157	19,287
Central Pennsylvania	183	118	28,240
Cincinnati	169	200	31,476
Colorado	13	11	645
Delaware	44	139	10,269
Des Moines	115	196	15,798
Detroit	187	185	21,371
East Genesee	203	147	25,346
East German	37	20	2,861
East Maine	93	71	10,697
Erie	268	250	33,115
Genesee	120	80	10,332
Georgia	62	123	21,133
Germany and Switzerland	45	29	6.956
Holstein	93	182	24,587
Illinois	217	329	34,385
India Mission	23	25	663
Indiana	123	200	27,707
Iowa	117	230	20,882
Kansas	97	183	11,119
Kentucky	83	198	19,508
Lexington	19		
Liberia Mission	17	40	1.776
Louisiana	88	128	12.632
Maine	128	89	13,406
Michigan	211	247	24,536
Minnesota	115	129	10,152
Mississippi	89	98	10,951
Missouri	95	176	13,007
Nebraska	41	40	2,973
Nevada	14	12	370
Newark	176	135	28,644
New England	216	136	23,666
New Hampshire	130	76	12,736
New Jersey	162	173	31.160
New York	273	183	40.742
New York East	219	229	38.342
North Carolina	18	25	3.331
Northern Indiana	142	270	29,719
Northern Ohio	133	152	19,124
Northwestern German	95	68	7,736
Northwestern Indiana	137	196	19,531
Ohio	162	227	34.287
Oregon	66	56	4,645
Philadelphia	198	252	37,284
Pittsburg	250	237	50,726
Providence	143	95	17,809
Rock River	208	279	21.409
South Carolina	45	157	23,579
Southeastern Indiana	110	142	22,415
Southern Illinois	141	336	24,439
Southwestern German	93	185	8,378
St. Louis	110	269	17.068
Tennessee	73	119	10.521
Texas	38	59	4,170
Troy	251	122	30,930
Upper Iowa	160	198	17,955
Vermont	118	64	11,618
Virginia	36	29	4,362
Washington	86	117	23,418
West Virginia	104	225	26.100
West Wisconsin	129	185	12.206
Wilmington	107	122	23,042
Wisconsin	170	148	13,378
Wyoming	177	196	24,570
Total	8,830	10,340	1,226,998
Last year	8,481	9,899	1,255,115

Of the members, 1,114,712 are in full connection, and 184,226 are "probationers." The number of churches is 12,048½, against 11,692 the preceding year. Their value is $47,253,067. The number of parsonages is 3,968, against 3,811 the previous year. Their value, $686,230.

The number of Sunday-schools is 16,393½, against 15,885½ last year; officers and teachers, 184,596; scholars, 1,179,984; volumes in libraries, 2,781,480. The number of adult baptisms was 61,147; of children, 47,509. Conference claimants, $129,777.06; Missionary Society, $630,163.20; Church extension, $61,565.79; Tract Society, $21,312.28; American Bible Society, $93,048.35; Sunday-school Union, $21,271.45.

A correspondence was held, during May, between a committee of the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church and the bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, in reference to an eventual reunion of the two branches of the Church. In introducing themselves to the bishops of the Church, South, the Northern bishops said:

It seems to us that, as the division of those Churches of our country which are of like faith and order has been productive of evil, so the reunion of them would be productive of good. As the main cause of the separation has been removed, so has the chief obstacle of the restoration.

It is fitting that the Methodist Church, which began the disunion, should not be the last to achieve the reunion; and it would be a reproach to the chief pastors of the separated bodies if they waited until their flocks prompted them to the union which both the love of country and of religion invoke, and which the providence of God seems to render inevitable at no distant day.

Another letter thus stated the origin and object of this proposition, and the position of the Methodist Episcopal Church in reference to it:

At a meeting of the Board of Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, held in Erie, Pa., in June, 1865, we made and published the following declaration: That the great cause which led to the separation from us of both the Wesleyan Methodists of this country and of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, has passed away, and we trust the day is not far distant when there shall be but one organization which shall embrace the whole Methodist family in the United States.

This declaration was made in good faith, and shows what were then our sentiments and feelings, and was deemed by us as the utmost we were authorized to say or do on the subject at that time.

Although our late General Conference did not directly authorize us to take further specific action in the matter, yet we judge that some of its acts justify advanced steps on our part.

In our quadrennial address to the General Conference we referred to the declaration above quoted, and no exception was taken to it by that body.

The General Conference, to promote the union of Methodistic Churches, appointed a commission consisting of eight members of that body and the bishops of the Church, who were "empowered to treat with a similar commission from any other Methodist Church" that may desire a union with us.

We have understood that there were in the minds of many of the members and ministers of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, reasons why they consider it unsuitable for them to initiate measures to effect a reunion of the two Churches.

Believing, as we do, that if they were one in both spirit and organization, much more could be accomplished for the interests of humanity and for the glory of God, we are desirous of doing all we consistently can to promote a reunion on terms alike honorable to both Churches and in the spirit of our Divine Lord.

The bishops intimated that the commission spoken of would probably be ready to treat with a similar commission which might be appointed by the Southern General Conference.

The reply of the Southern bishops was quite long. It recited their regret for the controversies that have prevailed, and their disposition to coöperate in bringing about a better state of things, even greater, they intimated, than that of the Northern Church. It suggested that the establishment of fraternal feelings and relations between the two Churches would be a necessary precedent to reunion. It called attention to a measure to effect fraternal relations, which was started several years ago, by the Southern Church dispatching a visiting delegate (the Rev. Dr. Pierce), to the Northern General Conference, to offer the establishment of fraternal relations and intercourse; to the failure of his mission, and his declaration, consequent thereupon, that that effort was the final advance that would be made by the Church, South, toward reunion, but that it would be ready to receive a renewed proposition for fraternal relations at any time, and cordially entertain one based on the plan of separation adopted by the General Conference of 1844. The Church adhered to the words of his declaration. It continues:

You say "that the great cause which led to the separation from us, of both the Wesleyan Methodists of this country, and of the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, has passed away." If we understand your reference, we so far differ from you in this opinion, that it may help any negotiations hereafter taking place, to restate our position. Slavery was not, in any proper sense, the cause, but the occasion only, of that separation, the necessity of which we regretted as much as you. But certain principles were developed in relation to the political aspects of that question, involving the right of ecclesiastical bodies to handle and determine matters lying outside of their proper jurisdiction, which we could not accept; and in a case arising, certain constructions of the constitutional powers and prerogatives of the General Conference were assumed and acted on, which we considered oppressive and destructive of the rights of the numerical minority represented in that highest judicatory of the Church. That which you are pleased to call, no doubt sincerely thinking it so, "the great cause" of separation existed in the Church from its organization, and yet for sixty years there was no separation. But when those theories, incidentally evolved in connection with it, began to be put into practice, then the separation came.

We cannot think you mean to offend us when you speak of our having separated from you, and put us in the same category with a small body of schismatics who were always an acknowledged secession. Allow us in all kindness, brethren, to remind you, and to keep the important fact of history prominent, that we separated from you in no sense in which you did not separate from us. The separation was by compact and mutual, and nearer approaches to each other can be conducted with hope of a successful issue only on this basis.

It is our opinion that the controversies and tempers which so disturb the Churches, and are so hurtful to the souls of those for whom Christ died, are due in a large measure to irritating causes which are not entirely beyond the control of the chief pastors of the separated bodies. To this end we invite your concurrence and coöperation.

It reprehended the conduct of the Northern missionaries and agents who have been sent South, and engaged (as it alleges) in disintegrating and absorbing their societies, and have taken possession of their houses of worship, and expressed readiness to remedy any offences "against the law of love" committed by those under the appointment of the Church, South. It concluded by saying:

"We have no authority to determine any thing as to the 'propriety, practicability, and methods' of reunion of the Churches represented by you and ourselves."

The commission appointed, in pursuance of the action of the late General Conference of the Methodist Episcopal Church, to confer with the representatives of other Methodist bodies, met by appointment, in the city of Philadelphia, November 23, 1869. A commission from the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church also met in conference with this commission, and presented a paper containing a proposition for the union of the two churches represented, with a draft of the terms and conditions upon which it should be made. Most of the terms and conditions proposed by the commissioners of the Methodist Episcopal Zion Church were accepted by those of the Methodist Episcopal Church, when, at the suggestion of the latter, the paper was withdrawn, for modifications.

At the subsequent meeting the paper was presented again, modified. The subject was canvassed, and both parties seemed to feel that there would probably be found no insuperable obstacles in the way of consummating the proposed union. But, as neither of the commissions had any power either to consummate the union or to commit their several churches to any definite line of action, and as the time of the sessions of the General Conferences of both bodies is somewhat remote, it was deemed not advisable by either party to proceed further at this time, but to adjourn, to meet again at or before the sessions of the two General Conferences in May, 1872.

The spirit of the proceedings on both sides was kind, conciliatory, and frank. It was conceded by the commission of the African Methodist Episcopal Zion Church that, in case of a union being consummated, their organization, as the lesser body, would be absorbed into the greater, thus losing its identity. To this they did not object, provided proper assurances were given that the colored element in the consolidated body should be duly recognized in all the departments of the Church, and to that condition the commissioners of the other party made no objection. In separating, the members of the two commissions seemed to feel assured that, unless some unforeseen hinderances shall arise, it will be found possible at their future meeting to satisfactorily arrange all the terms of union, and to bring the two bodies into one, by the concurrent action of the two General Conferences.

In accordance with the provisions of the plan which was adopted by the General Conference of 1868, of the Methodist Episcopal Church, the vote of the laity on the question of the adoption of lay representation was taken during the month of June, and the vote of the clergy was taken in the conferences which subsequently met during the year. The vote was much smaller than either party had anticipated it would be, calling out hardly a fourth of the voting strength of the Church, although men and women among the laity, who had attained the age of majority, were alike admitted to vote. Owing to the fact that only a part of the conferences have yet held their session, through which only the complete official returns of the vote could be obtained, the full statement of the vote has not yet been made. It is known, however, to be overwhelmingly in favor of lay representation. In November the full vote of 42 conferences footed up for lay delegation, 108,571; against it, 53,025. The full vote of the whole Church is estimated at over 200,000, of which the proportion of votes in favor of and against the new rule maintains about the proportion observed in the above footing.

The plan submitted by the General Conference called for approval, not only by the vote of a majority of the laity voting on the question, but also by three-fourths of the ministers voting in the annual conferences. The following is the statement of the voting in the conferences which met previous to the close of the year:

CONFERENCE.	For.	Against.	Total.
Alabama	14	..	14
California	67	19	86
Central German	55	12	67
Central Illinois	107	80	187
Central Ohio	56	38	94
Cincinnati	93	38	131
Colorado	10	..	10
Detroit	133	25	158
Delaware	37	1	38
Des Moines	76	3	79
East Genesee	123	27	150
Erie	144	64	208
Genesee	70	13	83
Georgia	39	..	39
Holston	53	..	53
Illinois	139	15	154
Indiana	60	33	93
Iowa	82	8	90
Michigan	94	44	138
Minnesota	85	7	92
Nevada	5	5	10
Northwest Indiana	61	39	100
North Ohio	66	48	114
Northwest German	68	2	70
Ohio	72	53	125
Oregon	33	13	46
Rock River	109	33	142
Southern Illinois	86	16	102
Southeast Indiana	76	5	81
Southwest German	63	2	65
Tennessee	38	...	38
Upper Iowa	113	8	121
West Wisconsin	69	14	83
Wisconsin	118	4	122
Total	2,514	608	3,122

This gives, so far, three-fourths and 172 votes to spare.

The fiftieth anniversary of the parent Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church was held in the city of Washington, D. C., on Sunday and Monday, January 10th and 11th, and was an occasion of universal interest. Appropriate discourses were preached in all the Methodist churches.

The Rev. Bishop Ames, reviewing the history of the Society, in his address, said:

There is much in the past history of our missionary organization that calls for thankfulness. Just about fifty years ago this society was organized. Its income for the first year was only eight hundred dollars. We have collected and expended from the commencement about eight millions, and not one dollar has been paid into the treasury that has not been satisfactorily accounted for. No draft has ever been protested, nor has the society ever lost a dollar by the dishonesty of any agent. This great revenue—for it is now the largest revenue collected by any religious organization in the United States—is collected by the voluntary action of the pastors of the churches. We have no financial or soliciting agents. In virtue of his office as pastor, the minister is charged with the responsibility of looking after the interests of the missionary cause, and making collections to sustain it, and in the administration of the affairs of the society hardly three cents out of a hundred are expended to pay those who perform executive duties. We have three secretaries at New York, and we pay a bookkeeper, for keeping the accounts of the general treasury, five hundred dollars a year. That, with the necessary incidental expenses connected with the office, is the sum total of the charge brought against the general treasury for the administration of the affairs of this great society.

The General Conference of 1868 appointed a commission of ministers and laymen, with full authority to purchase grounds and erect on it suitable buildings, to afford more spacious accommodations for the use of the Book Concern, Missionary Society, and other connectional institutions in the city of New York, at a total cost not to exceed a million of dollars. The commission, after a careful survey of sites and buildings, purchased a building, just erected on the corner of Broadway and Eleventh Street. The building is a very large and elegant one. The price paid was $900,000.

The Church Extension Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church was organized by direction of the General Conference of 1864, and incorporated during the following year by the Pennsylvania Legislature. It depends for its income on annual collections in the churches, which go to form a general fund, subject to annual distribution, and on donations and bequests, which are applied to create a perpetual loan fund, to be loaned without interest to church societies, in sums not exceeding $5,000. The receipts and disbursements from the organization of the society till November, 1868, were about $125,000. The receipts for the year ending November 16, 1869, were $66,592.93, and the disbursements $59,741.34. During that year aid was extended by donation to sixty-five churches, in twenty-three different States and Territories, and by loans to fourteen churches in eight different States and Territories.

Additional subscriptions and pledges to the loan fund of the Society have been secured to the amount of $100,000, and additional cash to the amount of $10,000. The methods and plans of the Society (says the Treasurer), especially in connection with the loan fund, are winning the confidence and interest of friends of the Church everywhere. The foundations of the Society are secure, and the growth, though less rapid than the demands upon the Board require, is healthy.

The contributions asked to meet the appropriations for 1870 are fixed at $112.900. The Society resolved, at its last meeting, that no resolution passed by the General Committee, shall be so construed as to prevent twenty per cent. of all the collections received being reserved for a special relief fund, to be used for the benefit of the most necessitous cases, as they may occur in any part of the work.

The Society is about issuing registered six per cent. bonds, and claims that, with no business indebtedness to speak of, it has an annual income from collections of over $50,000, bonds and mortgages amounting to over $40,000, pledges on the loan-fund to over $100,000, all of which will be constantly increasing.

The Boston Theological Seminary at Boston, the Garrett Biblical Institute, at Evanston, Ill., and the Drew Theological Seminary, at Madison, N. J., have together fourteen instructors, ten lecturers, and five special instructors (in the Boston Seminary). The number of students was, by the last catalogue, 206; volumes in library, 17,000; property and endowments, $1,109,684. The Baker Theological Institute at Charleston, S. C., has three professors and twenty-six students; the Martin Mission Institute, at Frankfort-on-the-Main, Germany, has two professors, and buildings worth $25,000. The Thomson Biblical Institute, at New Orleans, was opened in 1866.

The latest statistics of the literary institutions of the Methodist Episcopal Church make the number of universities and colleges 28, and of academies and seminaries 85; instructors in universities and colleges, 153; students, 5,200; instructors in academies and seminaries, 504; students, 14,100. Value of university and college buildings, libraries, etc., $1,824,774; endowments, $3,015,100; property invested in academies and seminaries, over $2,000,000; making the total capital invested in education nearly $7,000,000.

The Board of Education of the Methodist Episcopal Church was organized by the General Conference of 1868. Its duty is to take charge of property given for educational purposes, and particularly of the Centenary Educational Fund, to invest it, and appropriate the interest only to: first, aid young men preparing for the foreign missionary work of the Church; second, to aid young men preparing for the ministry of the Church; third, to aid the theological institutions; fourth, to aid the universities, seminaries, and academies. It also takes care of the Children's Fund, appropriating the interest to assist meritorious Sunday-school scholars in obtaining a more advanced education. The Centenary Fund amounts to $24,325.44, and the Children's Fund to $56,674.40.

The Methodist Episcopal Tract Society held its annual meeting on Wednesday, December 10th. The grants in tracts and money made during the year amounted to $5,689. The circulation of *The Good News*, a monthly Sunday-school paper, had reached an average of 72,200 copies. The total receipts, including a balance on hand, January 1, 1869, of $444.17, were $13,975.71, and the expenditures, $11,869.46; balance on hand, $2,606.25. A discrepancy of $2,000 appeared by comparing the minutes of the last annual report with the present report of the treasurer. The bookkeeper explained that the discrepancy was owing to the inappropriate time of holding the annual meeting, which compelled the leaving out of the receipts and expenditures for December in each year; but that the quarterly or the printed annual report would show every thing complete.

The Anniversary of the Sunday-school Union of the Methodist Episcopal Church was held in Columbus, Ohio, from October 30th to November 3d. The statistics are as follows: Sunday-schools, 16,084; officers and teachers, 191,869; scholars, 1,165,914; volumes in library, 2,749,547; Bible classes, 24,232; infant scholars, 169,877; total expenses for schools, $424,696.59; raised for Sunday-school Union, $21,286.02; conversions, 41,708.

Reports were current in September, apparently founded upon examinations which had been instituted by one of the agents into the accounts of his predecessors, of irregularities in the management of special departments of the Methodist Book Concern, through which it had failed to realize as large profits to the benevolent funds as the Church was entitled to expect from it. The matter was brought to the attention of the committee appointed by the General Conference (called the Book Committee), who, after an examination of two weeks, availing themselves also of a previous examination by a sub-committee, reported in November:

1. That it is our deliberate judgment that the last exhibit of the agents is a true and reliable statement of the financial responsibility and solvency of the Book Concern at New York.

2. That though the agents have bought paper and other materials for the printing department mainly through paper-dealers or middle-men, yet it does not appear by any facts before the committee that the Concern has suffered any serious loss by such mode of making purchases.

3. That the investigation of the affairs and business of the bindery has satisfied the committee that there has been great mismanagement in this department, and that serious losses have occurred therein.

4. That the general management of the business of the Book Concern, in all matters involving its credit or integrity, is such as to meet the approval of the committee and command the confidence of the public.

The investigation will be continued.

II. Other Methodist Bodies in the United States.—The statistics of other Methodist bodies in the United States are given in the *Methodist Almanac* for 1870 as follows:

M. E. Church South, about	2,540	3,952	535,040
African M. E. Church	560	1,500	200,000
African M. E. Zion Church	694	.....	164,000
Methodist Protestant	423	.....	72,000
The Methodist Church	694	444	49,080
Wesleyan Methodist	220	.....	20,000
Free Methodist	85	.....	4,889
Bible Union	....	.....	.....
Primitive Methodist	20	.....	2,000

III. Evangelical Association.—The statistics of the Evangelical Association, in 1869, were as follows: annual conferences, 15; Itinerant preachers, 531; local preachers, 390; church members, 65,155; probationers, 2,445; adults baptized, 1,062; children baptized, 6,251; sunday-schools, 962; sunday-school scholars, 48,888.

IV. Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada.—The Methodist Episcopal Church in Canada comprises three conferences: Niagara, Ontario, and Bay Quinte. The statistics of the three conferences are as follows: Niagara, members, 7,550—ministers, 76; Ontario, members, 5,382—ministers, 59; Bay Quinte, members, 6,627—ministers 73; making a total of 19,559 members and 208 ministers. There are 228 Sunday-schools, 1,787 officers and teachers, and 11,207 scholars, among whom there have been, during the year, 292 conversions.

V. Wesleyan Methodists in Canada.—The Canadian Wesleyan Methodist Conference closed its session in Toronto, Canada, June 11th. The membership was reported to be 62,000—an increase over last year of 2,156. There are 53,024 Sunday-school scholars—an increase of 1,703. Of these scholars, 4,467 are members of the church. Of the Sunday-school officers and teachers (7,691 in number), 5,684 are church-members.

The report of the Missionary Society of the conference shows that the amount of the receipts, including £1,000 from the parent Society, was $82,474. The missions under the care of the Society are: Indian missions, 23; missions in British Columbia and Red River, 6; German, 5; French, 4; domestic missions, 136. The membership of the various missions embraces 4,113 Indians, 237 Germans, 53 French, 14,497 on the domestic missions, 35 in Red River and the Saskatchewan, and 156 in British Columbia—making a total of 17,091 in church-fellowship. These are supplied by 186 missionaries, besides which there are on the Indian mission 15 interpreters, 16 day-schools, and 16 teachers—making a total paid agency of 223.

This body is a branch of the British Wesleyan Methodist connection, and the conference is subordinate to the British Conference.

VI. Wesleyan Methodist Connection of Great Britain.—The following are the general statistics of Wesleyan Methodism:

	Members.	On trial.	Total Ministers.
Great Britain	345,526	20,596	1,608
Ireland, including the missions	19,639	697	174
Foreign Missions	65,803	5,906	292
French Conference	1,966	170	35
Australasian Conference	52,222	8,268	319
Canada Conference	57,860	3,017	880
Eastern British American Conference	14,988	1,253	149
Total	557,995	40,619	3,157

The amounts raised from all sources for the funds of the Wesleyan connection of England, according to the last published reports, were as follows:

	£	s.	d.
Foreign Missions	146,249	7	8
Theological Institution	10,530	15	9
Contingent Fund:			
Yearly collection	7,467	12	2
Congregational collection	6,456	7	6
Meetings and subscriptions	6,125	16	2
Circuits toward the support of their Home missionaries, legacies, etc.	5,677	11	2
General chapel fund	7,576	19	11
Education fund	10,974	14	8
Worn-out ministers	15,226	0	8
Kniwood & Woodhouse Grove Schools	15,748	14	7

The anniversary of the Wesleyan Missionary Society was held in Exeter Hall, May 3d, William McArthur, Esq., M. P., in the chair, who made a brief but comprehensive address. He stated that the Society had 704 stations, 5,701 preaching-places and chapels, 987 missionaries, and in their schools upward of 174,000 scholars. "What a wonderful machinery is this!" he said. "In looking at our various stations throughout the world, we cannot form a sufficient estimate of the amount of work that is going on in this respect. Take, for instance, Sierra Leone; we have 9 missionaries there, but we have 125 local preachers, and we have 222 Sabbath-school teachers. In the Friendly Islands we have only 19 regular missionaries, but we have 841 local preachers and 747 Sunday-school teachers. In Feejee we have 58 missionaries and assistants, but we have 477 local preachers and 1,730 Sunday-school teachers. It has been the peculiar glory of Methodism that it has enlisted an amount of lay agency that no other church in the world has ever done." The Rev. G. T. Perks read the report, showing that the receipts of the Society for the year have been £146,249 7s. 8d. The expenditures have been £146,071 13s. 2d.

The missions of the Wesleyan Methodist Missionary Society occupy extensive districts in Europe, Asia, Africa, America, Australasia, and the islands of the sea. The missions under the direct charge of the Society are classified in twenty-seven districts, and include 195 churches, 1,978 chapels and other preaching places, 283 missionaries and assistants, 5,591 subordinates, paid and unpaid agents, 65,802 members, 5,903 "on trial," and 51,930 scholars in the Sunday-schools.

A large portion of the missions, however, have relation to the local conferences. These have 504 churches, 4,342 chapels and other

preaching-places, 711 missionaries and assistants, 18,949 subordinates, paid and unpaid agents, 88,385 members, 10,000 "on trial," and 122,791 Sunday-school scholars.

The jubilee fund is now closed, £175,000 having been collected upon it.

The number of Wesleyan Sunday-schools in Great Britain is 5,328; of teachers, 103,411; of scholars, 601,801—an increase on the previous year of 19,781. The number of week-day schools is 698, with 119,070 pupils. The amount of Government aid to Wesleyan day-schools was £32,611. The Normal Training-School, at Westminster, numbers 132 students.

The Wesleyan Methodist Local Preachers' Mutual Aid Association of Great Britain numbers 2,110 members. Its objects are to afford relief to its members during periods of sickness and old age, and also to provide a sum of money for their decent interment at death. The total amounts paid for these objects since the formation of the association, in 1849, is £33,492 19s. 2d. There is this peculiarity about the Association, that while there are self-help and mutual aid in the members, their own contributions are supplemented by the free-will offerings of the churches to which they minister.

VII. METHODIST NEW CONNECTION.—The statistics of the Methodist New Connection are: 11 districts, 60 circuits, 9 missions, 155 preachers, and 26,309 members, in England; 7 circuits and stations, 8 missionaries, and 678 members, in Ireland; and 97 missionaries and 8,719 members in the missions.

VIII. UNITED METHODIST FREE CHURCHES.—The statistics of the United Methodist Free Churches are: Itinerant preachers, 312; local preachers, 3,445; members, 68,062; Sunday-school scholars, 152,315.

IX. PRIMITIVE METHODISTS.—The statistics of the Primitive Methodist Connection are: Travelling preachers, 943; members, 161,229; Sunday-school scholars, 258,857.

X. BIBLE CHRISTIANS.—The statistics of the Bible Christian denomination are: Itinerant preachers, 254; local preachers, 1,759; members, 26,241; "on trial," 804; Sunday-school scholars, 44,221; teachers, 8,913. The missionary report shows an increase of 9 itinerant preachers, 17 chapels, 434 members, 66 teachers, and 1,173 scholars. The income of the society amounted to £5,599 16s. 4d., and the disbursements to £6,039 18s. 1d.; thus leaving a deficiency of £440 1s. 9d.

MEXICO.* President, Benito Juarez, a descendant of the Indian race of Tapatecos, born at Ixtlan, State of Oajaca, 1807; elected deputy to the House of Representatives, 1846; Governor of Oajaca, 1848–1852; exiled by Santa Anna, 1853; returned to Mexico, 1855; Minister of Justice, 1856–1858; of the Interior, 1858; head of an insurrection against President Zuloaga, 1858–1859; and against President Miramon, 1859–1861; elected President, 1861; reëlected 1867, for the term from 1867 to 1871; Vice-President, Lerdo de Tejada.

The area is about 773,144 square miles. The population, according to the census of 1869, amounted to 9,089,254, distributed among the different States as follows:

Federal District	286,500	Michoacan	618,039
Aguas Calientes	86,176	Morelos	121,409
Baja (Lower) California	21,000	Nuevo Leon	171,000
Campeche	86,463	Oaxaca	601,850
Chiapas	193,987	Puebla	997,789
Chihuahua	179,971	Queretaro	166,643
Coahuila	67,691	San Luis Potosi	397,735
Colima	48,649	Sinaloa	161,157
Durango	173,942	Sonora	147,133
Guanajuato	874,000	Tabasco	83,703
Guerrero	270,000	Tamaulipas	107,547
Hidalgo	404,207	Tlascala	177,944
Jalisco	924,580	Vera Cruz	380,971
Mexico	599,810	Yucatan	283,686
		Zacatecas	399,977

The number of public and private schools in the year 1869 was reported as 3,742, with 276,854 pupils, and showed a proportion of about one pupil to every 32.78 of the population. The Federal District has 248 schools, with 18,195 pupils. The city of Mexico has one pupil to every ten inhabitants. In 1795 the Mexican territory had only 12 schools for a population of 5,270,209 inhabitants.

The population of the city of Mexico was, according to the census of 1869, only 140,000; although a Mexican statistician, Orozco y Berra, in 1865, estimated it at 200,000. The other large cities of the republic had, according to Orozco y Berra, in 1865, the following population: Puebla, 75,000; Guadalajara, 70,000; Guanajuato, 63,000; Queretaro, 48,000; Matamoras, 41,000; Jalapa, 37,200; Vera Cruz, 37,040.

The budget for the year 1868 to 1869 estimated the revenue at $18,219,708, and the expenditure at $18,694,438. In the budget for the year 1869–1870, the revenue is estimated at $18,235,513. The public debt, on August 1, 1865 (according to Martin's *Statesman's Year-Book*), amounted to $317,357,250. The imports from England, in 1867, were valued at £320,000 sterling; the exports to England at £810,000; the commerce with England constituted more than one-half of the foreign trade. The movement of shipping amounts to about 1,000 vessels annually, together of about 100,000 tons.

The telegraph now connects Manzanillo with Vera Cruz *via* Colima, Guadalajara, and Mexico, thus opening interoceanic communication.

There are now 2,000 miles of telegraph and 240 miles of railroad in operation. The petroleum-springs near Espinol, on the Tuxtla River, prove very abundant. A rich silver-mine has been discovered in Tamaulipas. Manufacturers are increasing in wealth.

The second session of the Mexican Congress, which commenced on September 16, 1868, ended January 21, 1869. Congress five times resolved itself into a grand jury for the purpose of judging of the guilt of the following distinguished Mexican officials, against whom charges were made: General Cauto, for the crime of as-

* For full geographical information of the republic, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

sassination; Ministers Mejia and Romero, for exceeding the authority granted them by the Constitution or Congress; General Huerta, for conspiring to overturn the present Government, and General Diego Alvarez, for a similar crime. The charges in each case were dismissed, except the first. General Cauto having been surrendered to the criminal courts for trial and punishment, the laws granted to him inviolability of person and property as to members of Congress until that body shall examine the charges and pronounce thereon. In addition to other laws passed, two of the treaties made and signed by Mr. Romero and Mr. Seward were confirmed, thus settling the question of claims for the present and also that of the naturalization of people moving from one country to another.

Congress passed also three railroad bills, the most important of which relates to the concession made to the English Mexico and Vera Cruz Railroad Company. It was finally approved by Congress, having been materially modified. This great national enterprise had been promptly acted upon by the Executive under the authority of the "Ample Faculties," but subsequently interfered with by Congress, to such an extent as to materially injure all parties interested, including capitalists, contractors, and workmen. Congress finally becoming conscious of the necessity of the completion of the road, and convinced of the unwise policy of their interference and their procrastination, although at a late hour, apparently desired to make amends therefor, and on the 10th of November passed the bill which enabled the work to be recommenced.

Next in importance was the passage of a bill for the construction of a railroad from the Rio Grande to Guaymas on the Gulf of California, with a view of opening the agricultural and mineral resources of the adjacent country.

At the session of Congress commencing in April, President Juarez was authorized, by a vote of 100 to 12, to recognize the Cuban revolutionists as belligerents. Congress closed its session May 31st. The labors and the views of the General Government, as well as the situation of the country at large, are given in the following addresses of President Juarez to the Mexican Congress and the President of Congress:

Citizen Deputies: After having consecrated yourselves to your elevated functions with laudable assiduity, and, for the public benefit, having previously prorogued as far as possible the duration of those labors, you have now reached the end of the last period of your session. Believing that in accordance with your opinion, not anticipating in the present state of things that there is any grave motive which makes an extraordinary session necessary during the legal recess, the fourth constitutional Congress terminates definitely its labors to-day. This new proof of the regular course of our institutions is very satisfactory. At the same time there is no occasion to be restless, but rather to look with confidence upon the future of the relations of the republic with the world abroad.

With the United States we preserve the best relations of amity and neighborly friendship, which must always be beneficial for the better development of the commerce of both countries. Although our relations have been interrupted with European powers, in consequence of the late war, yet, as soon as military operations ceased, we immediately declared that if, by reason of the war brought upon the republic, it were not possible to consider the late treaties as being longer in existence, still we should be disposed to celebrate other new ones upon just and convenient terms, whenever such nation should desire to propose them. No other cause for dispute with those nations has occurred, which can possibly give rise to further difficulties. Their citizens have continued to live with us without having any motive for complaint, under the just protection of our laws. A new and grand European power has already opened relations with the republic, proposing the celebration of a commercial treaty. The North-German Confederation has sent a representative to Mexico, who has been received with the proper consideration and good-will. It has been justly observed that upon the termination of the late warlike operations the administration of the republic was soon reorganized, without having suffered all of those evils which have befallen other countries under similar circumstances. Unfortunately, several instances of crimes against individual security occurred, which have made necessary the recent law of Congress, in order that such disorders may be suppressed promptly and justly. The Government has made use of the authority which this law concedes, dictating such arrangements as it has believed fit, for the purpose of securing efficacy in its enforcement, and at the same time, the prevention of an abuse thereof. The Government has already succeeded in setting in operation all possible measures, in order that there may be the least necessity for the severe suppression of these crimes through the most earnest care in its attempts to prevent their occurrence. Upon the initiative of the Government, Congress has discussed and decreed the establishment of juries in the Federal district. This important measure of improvement will facilitate the prompt and good administration of justice very much. In accordance with the requirement of the Constitution, Congress has been engaged during the session, by preference, in acting upon the Appropriation Bill for the coming fiscal year. The Government will see that the expenses of its administration be in accordance therewith, promising that, as heretofore, every thing shall be looked after with regularity. The rebellion which occurred in Sinaloa against the authorities of the State having been suffocated, there results the peace of the republic. There are to be excepted some places in Tamaulipas, very sparsely populated, where some rebels are still left, who, by the fewness of their number, and by their moving about incessantly, have been able to escape from the troops sent in their pursuit. The law in regard to recruiting, which Congress has just passed, will permit the preservation of a fixed number of the forces of the army which, with valor and discipline, has combated all of the rebellions—showing that it is the worthy defender of the Constitution and the laws. It pleases me, citizen deputies, to repeat at the end of your office the congratulations which I have at other times offered you for the illustrious patriotism with which you have fulfilled your high duties. You have the satisfaction of meriting the national gratitude, because with your prudence and wisdom you have contributed most efficaciously, after the profound disturbance caused by the foreign war, to the march of the republic upon the road of peace and true liberty, which constitute the basis for its aggrandizement and prosperity.

The President of the Congress replied:

Citizen President: It is highly satisfactory for the Fourth Constitutional Congress to have reached the regular end of its functions, and to retire, convinced that its labors have not been sterile for the people,

who trusted them with not a small portion of their destiny. Chosen under circumstances truly exceptional, called to preside over the reorganization of a country in which not only the political institutions had been destroyed, but also its national life cruelly attacked, it became necessary to establish the bases of government and of public administration; to change, in a country rich and capable of supporting itself, the inert quietude produced by the fatigue of prolonged and gigantic struggles; to give new birth to confidence and the spirit which it inspires in the honored majority of the nation; and to give all those labors and useful enterprises the impulse which they derive from security conceded as a right, and from the guarantee made effective to every legitimate interest. This noble and arduous task imposed upon Congress by the era in which it happened to exist, was at once admirably comprehended thereby, which consecrated itself most effectually to the performance of its duty, with the most entire good faith and the most sincere mind. It has not been the pretension of this assembly to endow the nation with huge and wise legislative documents, nor to introduce great novelties in the national codes. Accepting the mission—much more useful, if less ostentatious—of aiding the republic in raising itself from material ruins, the price of its glorious moral triumph, and of repairing the immense losses suffered in so many and so obstinate wars, it has preferred to occupy itself in resolving those questions of the moment, which have arisen day after day from the abnormal state in which society found itself, and in dictating regulations for the understanding, the application, and the development of the eminently wise and beneficent institutions which together form our fundamental law. Although twelve years have already passed since its promulgation, it may be asserted that it has only been possible to make a regular application of this law since the republic triumphed in the foreign war, which was nothing more than the continuation of that which servileness and retrocession had stirred up against our Constitution. In order that those luminous principles which this Constitution contains may be practical truths, great legislative labors have been and are still necessary. Although in the native representative system there is wanting efficacious action, and although even the possibility exists of the executive power not moving in harmony with the national representation in a country which is being reorganized, and which is passing through the exceptional situation in which ours has found itself for two years past, still there exists that which is better and more consistent—namely, a concurrence between the public powers. Under such circumstances the first, or, better said, the only acceptable rule of public conduct is that of maintaining the order of things derived from previous events, proving to the Government that the people will be conformable, aiding it in its march over terrible obstacles, and in expediting its action, provided it has for its ultimate object and final tendency the establishment of peace and of public security. Such has been the guide adopted by Congress, established as the first rule of its decisions, and applied with admirable good feeling and with rigid consequences. By chance it may not be known to-day what an immense good such prudent and well-inspired conduct has brought to the country; but when the impartial gaze of the historian shall examine how diligently the Congress which terminates to-day performed its functions, he will undoubtedly do justice to your prudence and patriotism; neither will there be denied the earnest desire manifested to organize and bring upon practical ground those constitutional principles whereof the various organic laws passed in this Congressional hall give testimony, as well as those chosen from among those laws found in force. Although through the electoral right and that of the free expression of thought, the press have received rules sufficiently proper to enable them to be accepted and put in force, there was still wanting the fixing of those important principles by which the States should harmonize in determining their duties. There did not exist in the Federal compact the just and proper prohibition with regard to the establishment of local and differential duties, although a multitude of contributions as materially grievous as they are repugnant to our political system have not been extinguished. The grand and beneficent innovation of the judicial "amparo" against the violation of guarantees was sterile, and without a law which should regulate it; the trial by juries, so ardently desired, could not be enforced in a most important part of the republic; there were wanting bases for the regulation of public instruction; some lesser reforms in the system of military juries were rejected; many people have clamored in vain for the erection of new States; finally, the indispensable custom of a sovereign people of dictating to its administrators how they should dispose of the fund derived from their sweat and blood, and how much of it and in what manner it should be applied to the public necessities, was ignored.

Congress has endeavored to provide for all these exigencies, the importance of which is notorious, and if experience shall demonstrate that it has not succeeded fully, it will be well entitled to the glory of having intended to have done so. That which has been accomplished with care by the way of planning and promoting public improvements, is not to be despised. The privileges and subventions for turnpikes, railroads, and telegraphs, have only been limited by the resources which it has been possible to dedicate to these works, and the day when the Vera Cruz, Tehuantepec and Paso del Norte railroads shall give prosperity and life to our country, there will be acknowledged how much is due in this respect to the assembly which to-day closes its sessions. The state in which our foreign relations exist, on account of the war of intervention, has been the reason why Congress has had very little to do in that respect; but scarcely on any subject has the opinion of its members been so uniform and so well known. It has associated itself decidedly and without reserve to the opinion of the Executive, whose attitude, full of decorum and dignity, has only met with sympathy and decided aid in the House. To welcome with friendship and kindness every honest foreigner; to give him protection and guarantees in exchange for obedience to the national law; to maintain commercial, scientific, and literary relations with all the nations of the globe, are international obligations which Mexico fulfils with pleasure, and to which she will never be wanting. But to renew relations with the governments of those countries which brought her ruin and desolation, and endeavored to deprive her of her independence, does not suit her interests, nor does it become her to take the initiative step. She has never derived any benefit from her treaties with European nations, and it is natural that her desires no more relations than those required by the strictest and most rigorous justice when the actual state of war has been changed into that which exists between nations which have ceased to be enemies.

Relative to this important point, as well as the other culminating points in our foreign policy, Congress has seen with delight that the Executive has marched forward, inspired by an elevated sense of his obligations, and guided by a sincere desire to procure the happiness of the republic. For this reason he has met with a constant and efficacious aid from the national representatives.

The members, that have composed Congress, will be soon changed, but their spirit, which is that of all elevated and patriotic Mexicans, will continue the same, and, free from many obstacles, can express itself in a manner most suitable to the happiness and prosperity of our country.

The subject of the claims made and to be made by citizens of the United States against the Mexican Government began to alarm the

people. The internal situation becoming worse, a general gloom began to pervade the country. "Every thing," says a local paper, "indicates that there will be no remedy. When revolution has destroyed the republic, when our fields, laid waste, shall be saturated with the blood of our brothers, and the eagle of the North shall swoop down upon the corpse of our country, the men who to-day have brought this abyss will forget at once the land of their birth, and go abroad to enjoy the pleasures which riches purchase, while the sons of Mexico will be dragging in the dust the chains of slavery."

A treaty of amity, commerce, and navigation, in September, signed by the Minister of Foreign Relations and the *chargé d'affaires* of the North-German Confederation between the United States of Mexico and the King of Prussia, in the name of the Confederation and the States of the Zollverein, was sent to Prussia, and submitted to the ratification of the national Congress.

A proof of the feelings entertained by the *chargé d'affaires* toward the Government appears in a note sent to the Minister of Foreign Relations relative to the design of a few malcontents, who wished to bring about a sedition on the 20th of August.

MEXICO, *August* 23, 1869.

MR. MINISTER: I have just learned, through the *Opinion Nationale* of to-day, that the rumors in circulation in the city since Friday, and to which I attributed no importance, were nevertheless well founded.

I hasten, therefore, Mr. Minister, to congratulate most cordially and sincerely your Excellency, and also in the name of my fellow-countrymen, for the activity with which the Government has checked the dangerous projects of the enemies of the republic.

In one of my first reports to M. Bismarck, in the month of May I stated, that your Excellency had then said to me, in a conversation relative to the affairs of Mexico—

"We fear no revolution. The Government is sufficiently strong to suffocate all revolutionary movements."

It is very pleasing and satisfactory for me to be able to forward by the next packet a new report to M. Bismarck, informing him that those words of your Excellency have just happily been fulfilled.

All the German inhabitants of Mexico entertain the same feelings, and will thus inform their correspondents in Europe.

If an opportunity offers, I beg your Excellency to be pleased to be the interpreter of my feelings, thus expressed, to the President.

Accept the assurance of the distinguished consideration of your obedient servant, SCHLOZER.

To Señor SEBASTIAN LERDO DE TEJADA, Minister of Foreign Relations.

OFFICE OF FOREIGN RELATIONS,
MEXICO, *August* 24, 1869.

SIR: I have the honor to state to you, in answer to your note of yesterday, that I have communicated to the President of the republic the sentiments you have seen fit to express, in your own name and in that of all the German residents of the capital, relative to the fact that the Government has avoided the realization of the projects of some who desired to disturb the public peace.

Indeed, as I have told you before, the Government, emanated from the people, has had and still has confidence that, by the authority of the law, and the aid of public opinion, peace may be preserved, suppressing all kinds of revolutionary movements.

It is very satisfactory for me to state to you that the President appreciates your kind feelings and those of your countrymen residing in Mexico, who are so worthy of praise, on account of the intelligence and probity with which they dedicate themselves to the exercise of their professions, industries, and commerce.

I embrace this opportunity to renew to you the assurance of my distinguished consideration, with which I am your obedient servant,

S. LERDO DE TEJADA.

M. KURD DE SCHLOZER, Chargé d'Affaires of the North-German Confederation in Mexico.

On September 16th the Fifth Congress of the Mexican Union met and was opened by President Juarez, who read the following message:

Citizen Deputies: It is very satisfactory, in compliance with the precepts of our fundamental code, to meet to congratulate the representatives of the people in the Fifth Constitutional Congress, which to-day commences the first period of its august functions. As in the union which exists among the States, so the periodic and regular renewal of the public authorities, for two years past, since the termination of our war, is demonstrating each day more and more the consolidation of our institutions. We are also, with good reason, able to hope that the relations of the republic with some European powers, interrupted by the late war, would very soon be re-established in a just and proper manner in a short time. Those which the republic have maintained with the United States of America will be preserved on the best terms of amity and friendship.

The treaty of commerce, friendship, and navigation, recently concluded with the North-German Confederation, will be immediately submitted to Congress for its approval. In consequence of the disposition which Spain and Italy have manifested, and which has been equally expressed by the Government of this republic, there is reason to believe that the relations with these two powers will be soon re-established.

In the mean time, the citizens of those nations, and whatever may be their foreign origin, residing in Mexico, have no reason for complaint, as they are enjoying the most ample and secure protection in their persons and interests. I hope that this just and benevolent conduct on the part of the republic will be duly recognized abroad. The forces which won the revolution against the State authorities of Tamaulipas having submitted, the blessings of peace are now being enjoyed by the whole nation.

It has been seen that public opinion has resisted those few unquiet spirits who have proposed to disturb the peace. The Government has depended entirely upon the forces which the fundamental law of the nation gives to it, and the solid support of public opinion, which condemns the thought of appealing to arms against the authorities elected by the people. It has calculated also upon the respect and obedience to the laws which distinguished our republican army, composed of good citizens, who defended with so much patriotism our independence and our national institutions.

The Executive will omit nothing in preserving the peace, which is his first duty, not doubting that, in order to comply therewith, Congress would lend him, if it may be necessary, its most efficacious cooperation.

The application of the law against robbers and kidnappers, intended to reduce the number of such cases, has already had its proper effect, by putting to flight these criminals, and contributing to the re-establishment of public security.

Our society being profoundly disturbed by the effects of a war so prolonged, many objects of interest and various branches of our administrative affairs yet require the urgent attention of our legisla-

tors. With the desire of coöperating with Congress in its important task, the Executive will present some initiatives.

One of them will refer to reforms in the ordinance relative to maritime and frontier custom-houses, recommended by experience. Another will be proposed for the purpose of facilitating the transfer of nationalized property, admitting as a part of its price credits of the public debt. Another initiative will be proposed—indispensable modifications in the laws regarding mortgage which are now in force in the Federal District, in order to facilitate the interchange of riches, and that property shall not remain immovable. The Executive recommends also the initiation, which was presented in the last period of the last Congress, referring to colonization and the clearing up of uncultivated lands.

I do not doubt that the public credit will likewise deserve the special attention of Congress, it being so important a matter that a great number of values should have their deserving circulation.

We have to congratulate ourselves, citizen deputies, in the just anxiety which we have shown for the progress of our country, that, following the solemnity of our reunion, we are to-day to celebrate, in the city of Puebla, the conclusion of the railroad which unites it with that city. It is also a very satisfying act to solemnize to-day the anniversary of our independence, and to affirm our proposals for progress, in order to realize other improvements like those, so important for our national prosperity. Under these happy auspices receive, citizen deputies, the sincere prayer that, by prudence in your deliberations, the Executive may, at the end of the two years of your labors, congratulate you upon the benefits which you shall have conferred upon the republic.

A journey of Mr. Seward through Mexico was the occasion of a manifestation of good feeling and respect on the part of the Mexican Government. Before and on his arrival at Manzanillo, the following dispatches were interchanged:

MEXICO, *October* 6, 1869.

To the Governor of the State of Colima, Manzanillo:

I beg of you that, on the arrival of the Hon. Mr. William H. Seward at Manzanillo, you will be pleased to welcome him, in the name of the President, expressing his desire that he may be pleased in his visit to the republic.

SR. LERDO DE TEJADA.

MANZANILLO, *October* 7, 1869.

To the Minister of Foreign Relations:

I have the pleasure to inform you that the Hon. William H. Seward arrived to-day at three o'clock in the morning, and that I had the honor to welcome him in the name of the President, expressing his desire that the visit of Mr. Seward to the republic should be an agreeable one.

FRANCISCO JAVIER CUERVA.

His tour through Mexico was a great ovation, and regarded by the Mexicans as an important event. Mr. Seward was received with marked honors in the capital by the President and his entire Cabinet. On the 8th of December, a grand ball, attended by 4,000 citizens, was given at the Theatre National.

The year 1869 began with the outbreak of dissensions in the State of Jalisco, under Lozada. Quiroga and other generals pronounced in favor of Santa Anna. In February, General Negrete, ex-Minister of War, was marching at the head of a revolutionary army on the capital; while General Doreo, commanding the national forces, defeated the rebels at Pachuca. Negrete was, however, checked, on February 22d, at Atexcal, in the State of Puebla, by the loyal troops under the command of Generals Alatorre and Garcia. The revolutionists in Tamaulipas were routed by General Escobedo, and Canales fled across the Rio Bravo. The order of the General Government to pass the government of San Luis to Bustamente caused a pronunciamiento in that State in favor of the actual Governor. General Alatorre defeated Negrete again at Tlascala. General Malo was killed in the action, and many of the rebels were taken prisoners, Negrete himself escaping with a few adherents, and going in a southerly direction. The merchants of Mexico City made a present of $80,000 to the troops that saved the conducta of $2,000,000 from being captured by Negrete. In March, Colonel Palacios escaped from Mazatlan, and pronounced, at the head of the troops in Culiacan, against Juarez and for Placido Vegas. He failed, however, to revolutionize the State of Sinaloa. The state of affairs in Guerrero continued threatening, and culminated in a revolution in April. The feeling of dissatisfaction with the present Government extended throughout the republic, and the political struggle between the Government and opposition was severe, each party using all means in its power to gain the supremacy. Charges of corruption were freely made on both sides.

In May a vigorous campaign was carried on against robbers and kidnappers in the States of Jalisco and Michoacan; numerous engagements took place, in which the robbers were worsted and many of them killed. The revolution in Sinaloa assumed a serious aspect. Palacio captured the town of El Fuerto, the Government troops offering but slight resistance, and 300 troops from Sonora joining Palacio. Meanwhile the Apache Indians, having been driven from Arizona, made terrible inroads upon Sonora, devastating the whole interior. Queretaro threatened revolution, and 1,000 men went there to support the Legislature against the Governor. Troops were also sent to Iguala and Guerrero. The outbreak in Sinaloa was subdued; the disturbances in Queretaro increased, the Federal party displacing the State officers and executing part of the prisoners for treason, and the Federal forces from Michoacan and Guanajuato were sent to reënforce those in that State. General Alatorre, unable to suppress the revolt in Puebla, resigned his command. The revolution in San Luis Potosi increased in strength. The insurgents in Puebla captured several cities, defeated the Government troops, and captured and executed General Bocardo. The fear of a general revolution increased. The entire republic was full of pronunciamientos in December, 1869. Armed insurrection existed in Michoacan. On December 15th, General Aguirre, with a force of troops, captured and imprisoned the Governor and the entire Legislature of the State of San Luis. The

Federal troops at Potosi, though claiming to be neutral, virtually sustained the revolutionists. The Federal commander declared himself unable to cope with the spreading revolution.

On finding that the customs regulations in reference to goods shipped to Mexican ports were but rarely complied with, the Government determined to enforce the law. The Minister of Finance issued a circular under date of Mexico, Aug. 5, 1869, containing the following clauses:

MEXICO, *August* 5, 1869.

ARTICLE 1. All captains of vessels carrying freight from Europe to the ports of the republic must formulate their manifests, and the shippers their respective invoices, as stipulated in paragraph two of article twenty-one of the ordinance bearing on these matters, with the only difference that they are relieved from presenting the receipt drawn up by the Mexican consul, which should be remitted to the customs on the arrival of the vessels.

ART. 2. The manifest and the invoices will be considered sufficient by the customs authorities for the dispatch of the goods, and therefore must contain the same requisitions expressed in the existing regulations.

ART. 3. The absence of such documents or of any formality in their concoction will be subject to the penalties mentioned in the ordinance in paragraph two of article twenty-eight and others having reference to this subject.

ART. 4. The copies of manifest and invoices that formerly were submitted to the Mexican consuls shall henceforth be posted at the port of sailing of the vessel, duly addressed to this ministry.

ART. 5. The stipulations mentioned in the foregoing shall take effect after the lapse of six months from the date of the present circular.

ART. 6. The consular certificate will not be dispensed with for vessels proceeding from the United States or other ports where there are consuls of the republic. The penalties of the law will be strictly applied to all omissions, to which effect all consuls and vice-consuls, respectively, are ordered to comply with the conditions imposed by virtue of the existing ordinance.

Independence and liberty! ROMERO.

MICHIGAN. The only general election held in 1869 was on the first Monday of April, for one Justice of the Supreme Court and two Regents of the University. The result of the canvass for the first-named office was as follows: Thomas M. Cooley (Rep.) 90,705; D. Darwin Hughes (Dem.) 59,886—Republican majority, 30,819.

Jonas H. McGowan and Joseph Estabrook, the Republican candidates for Regents of the University, were elected over John M. B. Sill and John F. Miller, by an average majority of 28,204. At the same time Circuit Judges were chosen as follows:

1st	Circuit	Daniel L. Pratt	Republican.
2d	"	Nathaniel Bacon	"
3d	"	Jared Patchen	Democrat.
4th	"	Samuel Higby	"
5th	"	George Woodruff	Republican.
6th	"	James S. Dewey	"
7th	"	Josiah Turner	"
8th	"	Louis S. Lovell	"
9th	"	Charles R. Brown	"
10th	"	Jabez G. Sutherland	Democrat.
11th	"	Daniel Goodwin	"
12th	"	James O'Grady	"
13th	"	Jonathan G. Ramsdell	Republican.
14th	"	Moses B. Hopkins	"
15th	"	Charles Upson	"
16th	"	William T. Mitchell	Democrat.

Later in the year Judge Bacon died, and Daniel Blackman, Democrat, was elected to fill the vacancy. Judge Hopkins also died within the year, but the vacancy had not been filled on the 1st of January. Of the County Boards of Supervisors the Republicans elected majorities in 44 counties, the Democrats in 9, and 4 were equally divided.

The Legislature ratified the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and they also proposed several amendments to the State constitution, which will be voted upon by the people at the general election in 1870. The first increases the power of the Board of Supervisors to raise money for the repair of public buildings, highways, etc.; the second, third, and fourth, establish impartial suffrage and representation without regard to color; and the fifth increases the salaries of the State officers—the Governor's, from $1,000 to $2,500; the Circuit Judge's, from $1,500 to $2,000; the State Treasurer's, Auditor-General's, and Superintendent of Public Instruction's, from $1,000 to $2,000; the Secretary of State's, the Commissioner of the Land-office's, and the Attorney-General's, from $800 to $2,000. The most important legislation was the creation of two new judicial circuits; an act giving interest on overdue instalments of interest upon written contracts; an act making permanent provision for a soldiers' aid-fund for infirm, maimed, and needy Michigan soldiers; an act to punish with imprisonment in the State Prison persons who shall engage in a prize-fight, or in the training of parties therefor, or shall assist therein, or knowingly carry persons to or from a prize-fight, and punishing less severely any person attending such a fight; an act providing for the further geological survey of the State; several acts for the preservation of fish, game, and birds, one of which provides that no person shall, at any time, within the State, kill any robin, nighthawk, whippoorwill, finch, thrush, lark, sparrow, cherrybird, swallow, yellowbird, bluebird, brownthrasher, wren, martin, oriole, woodpecker, bobolink, or any song-bird, nor rob the nests of such birds, under a penalty of five dollars for each bird killed or nest robbed; an act authorizing townships, cities, and villages to aid in the construction of proposed railroads to the extent of ten per cent. of their assessed valuation, on a vote of a majority of the electors voting on the question at a meeting called for the purpose. Under this last act aid was voted during the year to the amount of more than $2,000,000.

The total receipts into the Treasury for the year were	$2,116,556 29
Balance in the beginning of the year	1,130,257 15
Total available funds	3,246,813 74
Warrants drawn during the year	2,412,734 02
Balance on hand	834,079 72
Total bonded State indebtedness Nov. 30, 1868	3,614,073 49
" " " " 1869	3,043,573 49
Reduction during the year	$570,500 00

This reduction was accomplished by payment in anticipation, as follows:

By payment of bonds	$432,500 00
By purchase of bonds not matured	88,000 00

Of the bonds paid, only $3,000 were due; the balance was paid in anticipation of maturity, being drawn for that purpose in pursuance of authority reserved for that object under the law providing for their issue. $84,078.49 of the bonds called in had not been presented at the end of the year, but will be paid on demand, interest thereon having now ceased. The bonded debt is payable at different dates, ranging through a period of seventeen years, the most distant of which is twenty years, as follows:

January 1, 1873	$469,000 00
" 1, 1878	450,000 00
July 1, 1878	192,000 00
" 1, 1879	84,000 00
January 1, 1883	750,000 00
May 1, 1890	463,000 00
January 1, 1886, or, at the option of the State, sooner	551,500 00
On presentation	84,078 49
Total	$3,043,578 49

The Auditor-General estimates that it would be possible, could the State bonds be reached by the Treasurer, to reduce the indebtedness by the use of funds pledged to that purpose, as follows:

Balance to credit of $2,000,000 sinking fund	$119,101 51
Receipts by fund during year, one-eighth-mill tax	38,495 73
Receipts from trust funds, estimated	155,000 00
" " surplus of interest, estimated	100,000 00
Total amount available to purchase of bonds during ensuing year	$412,597 24

The sum falling due in 1886, together with $45,100 of the bonds already called in, constitutes the final balance of the war-loan bonds, and funds are now on hand waiting their presentation for payment. The present is, therefore, a fit occasion for showing the progress of this loan for each year, from the issuing of the bonds to the retirement thereof. The first table shows the face of the bonds and the amount realized on the sale thereof; the second, the amount of bonds outstanding on the 30th day of November of each year, also the interest thereon falling due, the amount of bonds retired, and aggregate payments made for principal during each year. Combining the results of these tables with the amount of interest that had accrued on the bonds prior to the date of sale thereof, the actual expenditures from the legitimate revenue of the State, in retiring the war-loan, and paying the current interest thereon, may be determined as follows:

STATEMENT I.

YEAR.	Face of bonds issued.	Premium.	Discount.	Amount realized on sale of bonds.
1861	$449,100 00	$106 87	$22,468 50	$426,738 37
1862	158,200 00	31 88	7,660 06	150,571 82
1863	71,100 00	.....	.....	71,100 00
1864	571,000 00	10,058 00	.....	581,058 00
	$1,249,400 00	$10,196 75	$30,128 56	$1,229,468 19

STATEMENT II.

YEAR.	Bonds outstanding Nov. 30.	Interest falling due each year.	Amount of bonds retired each year.	Aggregate payments in each year.
1861	$449,100 00	.....	.....	.....
1862	607,300 00	$40,687 50	.....	$40,687 50
1863	569,200 00	41,114 50	$109,100 00	150,214 50
1864	1,123,150 00	54,015 50	17,150 00	71,165 50
1865	1,122,400 00	78,540 00	750 00	79,290 00
1866	1,113,600 00	78,172 50	9,800 00	87,972 50
1867	1,100,600 00	77,430 00	12,000 00	89,430 00
1868	1,082,100 00	76,870 00	18,500 00	94,870 00
1869	596,600 00	68,540 30	485,500 00	554,040 40
1870	.....	19,953 93	596,600 00	616,553 93
	.....	$584,813 33	$1,249,400 00	$1,784,213 33

Aggregate payments, principal and interest, as shown above		$1,784,213 33
Discount, as shown above		30,128 56
		$1,814,341 89
Accrued int. on bonds sold in 1861	$4,338 14	
" " " " 1862	2,578 80	
" " " " 1864	5,258 86	
Premium, as above	10,196 75	
		22,372 05
Giving for total payments from State revenue on account of the war loan		$1,791,969 84

The retiring of the war loan has rendered it possible to determine, with a certainty not before attainable, the sufficiency of the present provisions for the payment, at its maturity, of the yet outstanding unmatured portion of the bonded State debt. The Auditor-General estimates that further than the ½-mill tax, taxation, for the purpose of paying the bonded State debt as fast as it matures, need not be imposed; that after the levy of 1870 the ½-mill tax may be abolished; and that the trust fund receipts will be sufficient to pay the instalments of the debt as fast as they may become due. In his annual report the Auditor-General also demonstrates, by carefully-prepared tables, that taxation for the purpose of paying the accruing interest on the outstanding State indebtedness will need to be resorted to but a short time; three years at the farthest. The military tax now levied under an act passed in 1862, ostensibly for the payment of expenses incurred in the maintenance of the military forces of the State, but only partially expended for that purpose, the Auditor-General thinks might properly be repealed. The amount is 15 cents for each person voting at the last preceding election for Governor.

The amount received from taxation during the year was as follows:

Direct taxation		$722,409 57
Specific taxation on railroad and railway corporations	$176,487 70	
Specific taxation on State banks	900 00	
" " National banks	1,865 00	
" " telegraph companies	1,160 00	
" " express companies	983 88	
" " insurance companies	77,207 04	
" " mining companies	9,426 89	
		268,030 51
Total		$990,440 08

The specific taxes collected exceed those for 1868 by $16,999.54, and direct taxes are $142,688.86 less. The direct taxes apportioned for the ensuing year are $465,264.97; being $248,482.87 less than for 1869, and little more than one half the amount for 1868.

The following are the payments made during the year for the several State institutions:

ASYLUM FOR THE DEAF, DUMB, AND BLIND.	
For arrearages	$15,000 00
" current expenses	36,500 00
" building	30,000 00
Total	$81,500 00
ASYLUM FOR THE INSANE.	
For current expenses	$18,000 00
" building	45,500 00
Total	$63,500 00
AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE.	
For current expenses	$20,000 00
" building	25,000 00
Total	$45,000 00
UNIVERSITY.	
Special appropriation	$38,187 02
From University interest fund	38,400 00
Total	$76,587 02
NORMAL SCHOOL.	
Special appropriation	$2,500 00
Normal School interest fund	16,000 00
Total	$18,500 00
State Reform School—in all	$56,025 53
State Prison	$2,000 00

This last institution for the first time in its history has more than paid its current expenses from its receipts, and it was not found necessary to call for the whole amount of the sum of $20,000 appropriated by the Legislature for repairs and building.

The following are the trust-fund balances at the end of the year:

University fund	$313,779 66
" interest fund	742 26
Normal School fund	46,087 18
" " interest fund	13,041 27
Primary School fund	1,603,190 26
" " interest fund	90,187 02
" " five per cent. fund	210,011 07
Agricultural College fund	14,185 00
" " interest fund	58 96

The total expenses of the Judiciary for the year, including the publication of the reports of the Supreme Court, were $88,184.80.

The Legislature of 1869 made provision for the appointment of an immigrant agent, to reside abroad, and the Governor has made an appointment of one, who has taken up his residence at Frankfort-on-the-Main. One is also appointed to reside in the United States. And plans are being perfected under which, it is believed, the State may receive a large increase of a good class of immigrants.

There are published in the State 11 daily newspapers and 181 other periodical publications, mostly weekly newspapers; of the weekly papers, 4 are published in the German language, and 4 in Dutch.

The State Geological Survey has been put in the general charge of Prof. Alexander Winchell, of the university, as director, with a large corps of assistants; among whom are Major T. B. Brooks, in charge of the survey of the Marquette iron region; Dr. S. S. Garrigues, the salt manufacture; D. Darwin Hughes, ornithology; and others equally competent.

To the agriculturist the year was generally very prosperous, so far as production was concerned, but with some exceptions. The low price of wool continued the tendency among farmers last year to kill off sheep, and the whole clip of the State marketed reached only about 9,500,000 pounds; the total clip would be, perhaps, a million more. The corn crop was to a considerable extent a failure, owing to excessive rains. Wheat was a large crop, and generally secured in good condition. The fruit crop was generally excellent, and throughout the State is increasing in value and importance. The following were the shipments from two ports of fruits gathered in their immediate vicinity:

	St. Joseph.	Benton Harbor.
Apples, bushels	34,508	9,500
Peaches, baskets	687,126	495,000
Pears, "	3,000	2,000
Plums, "	400	.....
Cherries, "	600	.....
Quinces, "	300	600
Grapes, pounds	27,000	35,000
Blackberries, bushels	23,350	8,000
Raspberries, "	10,030	5,000
Strawberries, "	3,250	12,000

During the year the manufacturers of salt in the State secured a satisfactory arrangement of interests, under which sales for the most part are made by a corporation, in which all have shares. They also secured the passage of a law for the appointment of a State Inspector of Salt, and Dr. S. S. Garrigues was appointed. The production of the Saginaw Valley for the year was 41,183 barrels larger than last, reaching 596,873 barrels. The manufacture has extended but slowly since 1863. The following statistics will be of interest:

Number of companies in operation in Saginaw Valley	59
Number of salt blocks	119
Number of covers	4,796
Number of kettles	4,045
Number of graniers	128
Men employed directly or indirectly	3,800
Capital invested	$2,982,300
Salt on hand at the end of the year (bbls.)	126,867

Average cost of producing one bushel, 30 cents.

The production elsewhere than in the Saginaw Valley is slight; it being of importance only at Port Austin, where 14,000 bbls. were manufactured.

The following estimate of pine-timber manufactured is from figures compiled by the Detroit *Tribune*, Saginaw *Enterprise*, and Muskegon *News and Reporter*, and is probably not far from correct:

	Feet.
Saginaw Valley, proper	588,500,930
The Huron shore, exclusive of Sheboygan	116,615,333
Sheboygan	25,000,000
Genesee County	91,127,713
Tuscola "	11,100,000
Gratiot and Isabella Counties	19,980,000
Huron County	40,000,000
St. Clair "	51,000,000
Lapeer "	22,000,000
Sanilac "	14,500,000
Detroit	55,500,000
Muskegon and vicinity	419,230,555
Ottawa County	225,000,000
Oceana "	85,000,000
Manistee "	125,000,000
Other parts of Lower Peninsula	80,000,000
Upper Peninsula	80,000,000
Total	1,999,804,431

The stock on the Saginaw River at the close of the season is much greater than ever before. The following is a comparison for a few years past:

Year.	On dock, sold.	Unsold.	Total on dock.
1865..........	22,362,000	19,091,000	41,453,000
1866..........	14,211,000	30,204,700	44,415,700
1867..........	19,435,571	50,534,200	69,970,200
1868..........	13,402,990	58,998,027	67,401,017
1869..........	14,526,000	78,805,614	93,331,614

A similar relative comparison might be made in other parts of the State, indicating that the production for the year was in excess of the demand; and at the end of the year it was found that the preparations for the ensuing season were on a less extensive scale than for the last.

The iron-mining interests of the Lake Superior region were generally prosperous. Tons of ore produced, as estimated by the Marquette *Mining Journal*, 709,387, at an average cost, delivered on the cars, of $2 per ton. Production of the furnaces, 39,504 tons. Iron-ore is delivered in Cleveland at a net cost of $6.25 per ton, and sold at an average profit of $1.25. The transportation employs two hundred vessels, including steamers, which make this their main business. The *Journal* says that within the last thirteen years "the mines have been developed into an inexhaustible source of wealth, the neighborhood of the mines improved and built upon, railroad tracks constructed, extensive docks, with trestle-works, 'shoots,' 'pockets,' and other improved conveniences for loading vessels erected, and Marquette itself expanded from a few lonely houses into a large and flourishing village, with an extensive business. The total shipments of ore increased from less than 1,500 tons, in 1855, to considerably over half a million tons in 1869. Last year it was impossible to supply the demand, and this year the increased number and facilities of the mines will be taxed in vain to meet all the requirements of the hundreds of furnaces that run almost exclusively on Lake Superior ore."

There was general depression in the copper-mining business during the year; the increased copper-tariff not answering the expectations of those who favored it. The *Portage Lake Gazette* gives the following statistics:

Copper mined in the three Districts for 1868 *and* 1869.

	1868.		1869.
Portage Lake............	8,288¼	tons	11,730¼
Keweenaw...............	3,503	"	2,656¼
Ontonagon..............	1,257¼	"	901¼
Total..................	13,049		15,288¼

Increase for 1869, 2,230¼ tons.

From 1845 to the present time there have been 128,275 tons of copper mined, yielding 99,440 tons of ingot copper, worth $56,661,000.

There were made assessments to the amount of $176,000 during 1869, while only three mines made dividends, viz.: the Quincy, of $6 per share, $120,000; the Hecla, of $5 per share, $100,000; and the Central, of $4 per share, $80,000. The Quincy also transferred $10,000 to the reserve fund, which is now said to amount to $200,000. The total assessments levied since 1845 aggregate $16,646,500, and the total dividends $6,370,000. These figures will then sum up, as the result of the copper business of Lake Superior since 1845, as follows:

Proceeds of sales of copper.............	$56,661,000
Proceeds from assessments.............	16,646,500
Total proceeds......................	$73,307,500
Returned by dividends.............	6,370,000
Balance...........................	$66,937,500
Percentage of dividends to total proceeds......................	8 07
Percentage of dividends to copper sales......	11 24
Percentage of dividends to assessments......	38 26

Immediately back of the lake ridge, along the eastern border of Michigan, the country is considerably undulating, and in some portions the little lakes of pure, cool, and wholesome water, and fed by constant springs, are almost innumerable. This is particularly true of some portions of Oakland, Shiawassee, and Genesee Counties, and Mr. C. N. Clark, of Clarkson, a little village in the county first named, situated in the midst of a fertile country, and surrounded by beautiful and picturesque landscape views, has commenced an enterprise which contemplates making these delightful waters profitable. They are already, as a general thing, well stored with the more common varieties of fresh-water fish—sunfish, perch, bass, pickerel, pike, etc., and legislation has been adopted to prevent their wholesale depopulation by seine-fishing; but Mr. Clark, who is a man of wealth, enterprise, and energy, believes they may be readily stored with the more prolific and profitable varieties of market fish. He has accordingly constructed a hatching-house near Clarkston Station on the Detroit and Milwaukee Railroad, at the head of a beautiful and shaded glen, where several large springs flow from the base of the hills which environ it. These springs are all combined a few rods below their source, and furnish a constant and never-varying supply of about 200 gallons per minute of the purest cool water. On November 15, 1869, Mr. Clark went to Detroit, and, in company with Seth Green, the noted ichthyologist of Caledonia, N. Y., succeeded in expressing a large quantity of the spawn from the Detroit River white fish, and impregnating them with the milt from the male. These were then transported to and placed in the hatching-boxes already prepared at Clarkston. After they had been about fifty days in water at 47° Fahrenheit, Mr. Clark succeeded in hatching large numbers of these spawn, which he believes are the first white fish ever hatched artificially west of Caledonia. Unfortunately, screens sufficiently fine had not been provided to prevent their escaping as fast as hatched into the little lake a quarter of a mile below, but a sufficient number were afterward captured to enable Mr. Clark to learn their nature and wants when young, and better prepare him to propagate them successfully in

the future. About the same time he procured from the establishment of Mr. Green, at Mumford, N. Y., about 18,000 trout-spawn, which had been some twenty days in his hatching-troughs; these Mr. Clark, after transporting them some four hundred miles, placed in a separate trough, where a constant stream of water was flowing over them, and in about fifty days over ninety per cent. of them were hatched, and at the date of this writing (February 15, 1870), are doing finely; their yolk sacks being nearly consumed by their growth, so that they will soon require food. The experiment thus far strengthens the hopes and predictions of those who believe that within a few years pisciculture will be an important branch of industry in this beautiful and healthy region.

The following are the primary school statistics for the year: number of counties reporting, 63; of towns, 828; of districts, 3,891 whole, and 1,161 fractional. Number of children between the ages of 5 and 20, 374,774; increase over preceding year, 20,021; number attending school, 269,587; number of these over 20 or under 5, 5,869; average time school was taught by qualified teacher, $6\frac{2}{16}$th months; volumes in district libraries, 96,580; added during the year, 7,635; cost of same, $10,727.61; number of stone school-houses, 74; brick do., 459; frame do., 3,767; log do., 621; value of school-houses and lots, $5,331,774; number of graded schools, 236; number of visits by county superintendent, 5,744; number of visits by directors, 10,670; qualified male teachers employed, 2,354; do. female, 7,898; aggregate months taught by male teachers, 9,021; do. by female, 30,443; wages of male teachers, $430,389.36; do. of female, $747,458.50; volumes in town libraries, 40,254; added within the year, 2,370; paid therefor, $3,567.42; voted at spring elections for libraries, $2,056.50; fine-moneys received for libraries, $27,413.38; number of new districts organized, 141; number of private schools in State, 173; pupils attending same, 8,807; paid school inspectors for services, $4,235.55. The resources of the districts for the year were as follows.

On hand at beginning of the year	$264,446 22
Received from two-mill tax	293,946 12
" " primary-school fund	165,960 51
" " rate bills	94,752 25
" " non-resident scholars	24,659 00
District taxes to pay teachers' wages	571,554 11
Other district taxes	737,054 67
Tax on dogs	25,327 63
Raised from all other sources	490,076 12
Total resources for the year	$2,771,853 92
Paid teachers	$1,159,490 86
" for building and repairs	776,074 00
" " all other purposes	465,963 60
On hand at end of the year	368,543 97

Total indebtedness of districts at end of the year, $917,027.87.

The gift made by the State to the university in 1867, on condition that there should always be one homœopathic professor in the medical department, was so far modified this year as to dispense with the condition, and make the donation $15,000 annually. The Legislature also passed a joint resolution, in favor of the admission of females to the university on the same terms as males. The institution was prosperous during the year. The following degrees were conferred: pharmaceutical chemist, 23; mining engineer, 7; civil engineer, 9; bachelor of science, 9; bachelor of arts, 23; master of arts, 20; master of science, 1; doctor of medicine, 97; bachelor of laws, 129. The Normal School was also well attended and prosperous, and for the Agricultural College the Legislature made provision for the erection of a new and spacious building, largely increasing its accommodations.

The following table shows the number of convicts in the State Prison at the commencement of each year, the average number for the year, the number received, and the average amount to each convict disbursed during the year, omitting the amount expended for buildings and repairs:

Year.	No. at beginning.	Average No.	No. received.	Average Expense
1846	119	120.0	40	$80.00
1847	122	120.0	40	120.73
1848	119	124.5	33	90.45
1849	128	117.0	31	104.57
1850	110	119.5	50	122.65
1851	131	141.0	84	122.65
1852	176	186.5	87	98.77
1853	209	210.0	71	97.25
1854	205	219.1	103	115.15
1855	246	278.8	141	134.57
1856	304	316.5	186	117.14
1857	349	375.8	170	122.62
1858	411	443.6	195	111.96
1859	473	464.8	212	87.29
1860	585	597.5	272	79.81
1861	621	578.6	140	63.44
1862	581	559.6	110	100.21
1863	410	358.2	104	177.36
1864	333	319.15	105	143.63
1865	339	280.2	161	202.30
1866	315	412.2	305	221.73
1867	502	531.1	254	143.69
1868	562	609.7	256	143.68
1869	622	625.3	250	137.70
1870	644			

The receipts and expenditures of the prison for the year were as follows:

Balance on hand at beginning of year	$11,125 57
Received from convict labor	78,192 73
" from United States for keeping convicts	6,851 68
Received from visitors	2,945 49
" " miscellaneous sources	1,747 21
Total	$95,282 44
Expenses for the year	94,219 79
Balance on hand	4,062 65
Add to this expended for building and repairs	8,114 78
	$12,177 43

And it will be seen that the receipts for the year exceed the current expenses for other than building purposes $1,032.12; a result which has appeared this year for the first time in the history of the institution.

The number of prisoners discharged, etc., during the year was as follows: by expiration of sentence, 195; by reversal of sentence, 3; by pardon by the Governor, 7; by pardon by

the President, 2; by death, 10; by escape, 11; total, 228; increase of convicts during the year, 22. The following will show the crimes for which the new convicts were sentenced: adultery, 2; administering poison, 1; aiding escapes, 1; assault with intent to murder, 7; assault with intent to rape, 4; other felonious assaults, 4; attempt at larceny, 5; bigamy, 7; burglary, 25; burglary and larceny, 7; breaking jail, 1; buggery, 1; embezzlement, 2; false pretences, 12; forgery, 3; fornication, 1; horse-stealing, 1; larceny, 123; larceny and jail-breaking, 2; making counterfeit coin, 1; mingling poison with drink, 1; manslaughter, 4; murder in first degree, 4; murder in second degree, 4; passing counterfeit money, 9; perjury, 1; poisoning animals, 1; polygamy, 1; presenting forged vouchers, 1; rape, 3; receiving stolen property, 2; resisting officer, 1; robbery, 4; setting fire to jail, 1; uttering forged instrument, 3: total, 250.

The following will show the terms of sentence of prisoners received: Under one year, 1; one year, 49; over one and not exceeding two years, 71; over two and not exceeding three years, 53; over three and not exceeding four years, 17; over four and not exceeding five years, 21; six years, 1; seven years, 5; ten years, 10; twelve years, 2; fourteen years, 1; fifteen years, 3; twenty-five years, 1; for life with hard labor, 3; for life, with solitary confinement, 2; average term of sentence, excluding life sentences, $3\frac{1}{10}$ years; average age of convicts, $26\frac{8}{10}$ years.

The following shows the nativity of convicts received: born in Africa, 1; Germany, 8; Canada, 31; England 7; France, 1; Isle of Man, 1; Ireland, 22; Malta, 1; Poland, 1; Scotland, 3; Spain, 1; Sweden, 1; West Indies, 1; Michigan, 36; other States of American Union, 135.

The number of persons who have hitherto been sentenced to solitary confinement in State prison for life, beginning with the year 1848, is 58. Of these two died in one year, one in two years, one in three years, one in four years, one in five years, one in seven years, three in ten years, one in thirteen years, and one in fifteen years, two escaped, six had new trials granted them, four were pardoned, and the sentence of one was commuted. Two are now reported insane. The number remaining in solitary confinement at the end of the year is thirty-two.

The number of female prisoners is nine, of whom five are imprisoned for life. Females sentenced for a term of years are now sent to the Detroit House of Correction.

The inspectors of the State Prison report that during the year they have made a careful examination of such prisons in Massachusetts, Connecticut, New York, Illinois, and Canada, and they add: "In the discipline of the prison, we have aimed at the improvement and reform of the prisoners. We have not forgotten that they were human beings, and have endeavored in every way to have them treated as such. While firmly insisting upon strict subordination to the rules and regulations prescribed for their conduct, we have insisted that punishment shall not be inflicted while it is apparent that the offender can be influenced by other means. Observation leads us to believe that kindness and love, with appeals to reason and manhood, are far more potent to secure obedience than harshness and severity; and with this view we have been careful to see that the convicts are properly clothed and supplied with a sufficient quantity of food; by religious teaching and interesting books; by manifesting an interest in them, and assuring them that it is still within their power to reform and become useful citizens, and that in such efforts they have had the hearty coöperation of the agent and his subordinates. We have tried to inspire them with new determination to become better men. The good effect, we believe, is already perceptible in the diminished number of infractions of rules and punishments; in the good feeling toward the officers, and in the general order and harmony which prevail in the prison. We think we can say, within the limits of strict truth, that we have found no body of convicts, in any prison which we have visited, better fed, better clothed, under better discipline, or, all things considered, looking so hearty and vigorous as those in the Michigan State Prison."

The expense of supporting the State Reform School for the year was $41,000. Received during the year, 121; discharged, 83; increase for the year, 38; present number of inmates, whites, 262; colored, 23: total, 285. Offences of those received during the year, larceny, 95; burglary, 8; assault, 8; malicious trespass, 3; vagrancy, 3; rape, 1; arson, 1; returned, 2; number born of American parents, 60; English, 5; Irish, 28; German, 4; colored, 6; Canadian, 6; Scotch, 1; unknown, 11. Number ten years old, 12; eleven, 10; twelve, 15; thirteen, 21; fourteen, 28; fifteen, 13; sixteen, 22. Of those discharged, 44 were permitted to go as reformed, and 29 on trial. The inmates, when at work, are mostly employed in making chairs. Sales of products for the year, $11,544.82, diminishing by that amount the net cost of support. The superintendent in his report says that many hardened criminals find their way to this institution, and adds: "The deception used by friends to secure commitment to avoid confinement to a more penal institution, is proof of the duplicity and want of thoughtfulness and integrity in which they have been reared. As proof of this last statement, quite a large percentage of the commitments of the past year as of fifteen and sixteen years of age, obtained from the courts through the perjury of themselves and friends, range from the ages of seventeen to twenty-four, and have had experience of the most baneful nature."

MINNESOTA. The Legislature met at St. Paul, as usual, on the beginning of January,

1869, and held their eleventh annual session, which continued for about two months, both Houses having adjourned on the 5th of March. During this period a great multitude of acts were passed and resolutions concurred in, affecting directly the common interests of the State, or the local ones of the counties, cities, and towns. The general enactments refer to important matters of various kinds; but, for the most part, they have in view to provide for internal improvements, or what seems calculated to promote them, as well as for the maintenance and beneficial management of public institutions—penitentiary, charitable, and educational, especially the last named.

A new law, which is likely to prove of great service to the State, was enacted, providing for the compilation of annual statistics pertaining to its agriculture, manufactures, and population, including all useful facts bearing upon the material and social interests of the State, and tending to afford at home and abroad a correct knowledge of its resources and progress.

One of the most important acts passed, though not signed by the Governor, was that ordaining the liquidation and payment of the public debt known as the "Minnesota State Railroad bonds." These were issued in 1858 to parties who undertook the construction of certain railways within the State, but have, till now, been left unpaid, as it were ignored. Bankers and private persons who hold them in amounts more or less great, and chiefly those who actually expended their means in the works of the roads before the late war, repeatedly urged upon the Governor the final settlement of their claims. He transmitted these documents to the Legislature, with a special message requesting them, for the good name of the State, as well as for justice' sake, to defer no longer the adjustment of those claims, and he strongly recommended to set apart and assign for this transaction the 500,000 acres of land formerly granted by the Federal Government to the State for internal improvements, as the use of this means would obviate the otherwise indispensable necessity of levying a special tax for the same end. An appropriate bill was hereupon introduced, ordaining that three special commissioners, to be appointed by the Governor, should divide the said lands into parcels of forty acres, and appraise each parcel separately according to its quality, but so that the aggregate value of the 500,000 acres thus appraised should be exactly equal to the whole amount of the State indebtedness on account of the bonds for principal and interest, computed up to the 1st of January, 1870. It prescribed also the manner as well as the times and amounts in which the said lands, with all the rights of the State upon them, should be ceded to the creditor, namely, on his surrendering at fixed periods a corresponding amount of bonds to the State for cancellation, so that the whole of them should be cancelled within the course of thirteen years. This bill passed both Houses, but failed to become a law, because the Governor did not sign it.

A similar fate was experienced by another act considered to be scarcely less important than the one just referred to, as it intended to revive and amend a previously approved act purporting to "incorporate the St. Paul and St. Anthony Railroad Company." The bill was favorably voted for in each House of the Legislature, but not sanctioned by the Governor.

Considerable excitement was created in the community by the introduction and subsequent passage of a bill designed for the removal of the seat of government from St. Paul, in Ramsey County, to a place in the county of Kandiyohi. But, though this bill passed both Houses, by large majorities, the Governor vetoed it as premature, inexpedient, and, in the present condition of the State, undesirable, on account of the great outlay to be necessarily incurred for the erection of suitable buildings, and other heavy expenses, indispensable to carry such a removal into execution. As soon as the Governor's message had been read in the lower House, where the measure had originated, a motion was made and carried to pass the bill over the veto. On its being put to the vote, however, the veto was sustained by a comparatively large majority, as appears from the fact that, while in its first passage the bill had been voted against by only seven members of the House, now the votes against it were twenty-one.

The city of St. Paul, however, on account of her position, which affords uncommon facilities of intercourse with other portions of the State, and with the neighboring States, by land and water, is likely to continue to attract people and become greater every day, even though the seat of State government were moved away. The city limits embrace a surface of 2,700 acres, well dotted with fair and commodious residences, she having been steadily increasing in wealth and population (which is reckoned as high as 25,000 already); and this growth seems progressing at the present time in a greater ratio than before. A large proportion of the State imports and exports takes place in her port. During the past season of navigation, 216 days (the Mississippi having been closed with ice on the 4th of December last, some days earlier than usual), "the number of different steamers reaching St. Paul was 45, with a tonnage of 13,484 tons. The whole number of steamboat arrivals was 792, with a tonnage of 188,253 tons. The custom-house enrolment of steamers registered at her port is 11,247, and of barges 8,956." The aggregate amount expended for the erection of new buildings, in the city, during the year 1868, was $1,005,050; in 1869 it was $1,395,727.

The population of the State at the close of

1869 was composed of about 470,000 persons; out of which number some 100,000 reside within the limits of incorporate cities and towns, attending to commerce in its various branches, and other avocations of city life; while the remaining 370,000 dwell in the country, and are connected more or less with the pursuits of agriculture. The extent of land put under cultivation in Minnesota, mostly for the raising of grain, is very remarkable, especially considering the paucity of its inhabitants. The acres tilled in 1868 were not less than 1,397,470, and the acres tilled in 1869 were 252,000 over and above that number. But the extent of their agricultural operations may be inferred from the amount and variety of the products gathered last year, as is shown by the following table, which presents some general results of the details contained in the official reports, namely:

Total tilled area	1,690,000
Area in wheat	1,000,000
Bushels of wheat	18,500,000
Area in oats	274,800
Bushels of oats	11,816,400
Area in corn	175,000
Bushels of corn	6,125,000
Area in barley	20,400
Bushels of barley	625,006
Area in rye	3,250
Bushels of rye	58,600
Area in potatoes	27,500
Bushels of potatoes	2,475,000
Area in buckwheat	1,700
Bushels of buckwheat	27,500
Area in hay	208,000
Tons of hay	410,000
Pounds of wool	425,000
Pounds of butter	5,750,000
Pounds of cheese	158,600

The estimated total value of the agricultural product of 1869 is $25,000,000.

The average yield of almost every species of product named in the foregoing table was in excess of that respectively obtained in 1868, although this abundance has probably proved of little or no benefit—in some cases of actual loss to the farmer—on account of the exceedingly low price of his crops, especially wheat. The amount expended for raising and gathering this grain was ascertained by actual reckoning, in several instances, to have been considerably greater than what could be realized by selling it. In consequence of so depressed a market, not a few farmers were represented to be largely in debt for supplies of provisions and implements used, as well as for money borrowed at high rates of interest for the regular carrying out of their agricultural operations, and likely to continue in that condition, if they did not get into a worse one. This state of things was generally considered to be the result of the high protective tariff in force for several years, and the rate of transportation. It is stated that the market-price of wheat at Milwaukee, in the neighboring State of Wisconsin, being only one dollar per bushel, the Minnesota farmer, who wanted to send his wheat thither for the purpose of selling it, was charged for its transportation alone at the rate of twenty-five cents per bushel.

The live-stock existing in the State at the end of 1869 was as follows: Horses, 98,980; cattle, 275,977; mules and asses, 2,450; sheep, 135,450; hogs, 109,000. This stock was estimated to be worth $15,561,887 in actual cash value.

In order to promote the interests of agriculture in all its branches, and reap the greatest benefits that may be realized from it, agricultural societies have been organized in various counties.

To the above-mentioned products of the soil, by tillage and pasture, there must be added those which are obtained from the extensive pineries and other heavily-timbered land—a vast amount of business being carried on in Minnesota in felling trees and preparing wood for logs and lumber of every description. The logs scaled last year in the two districts of St. Anthony and Stillwater, official reports aver to have exceeded three hundred and six millions of feet, which is above fifty millions of feet more than the logs scaled there in 1868. The gross amount of the log and lumber business in the State for 1869 is set down at four hundred millions of feet.

The State possesses also mineral wealth, which promises largely to employ the industry of her inhabitants, and by its results contribute in no small degree to her forward progress and general prosperity. Concerning the Vermillion mine, referred to in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, quartz-mills and other machinery have been established there for the purpose of working its ores.

Still greater advantages than may be expected from other minerals, however, will accrue to the State from the working of coal, which is now ascertained to exist within her limits, it having recently been discovered near Red-wood Falls, in Renville County; and the same is probably the case with other localities. The mining operations which have been prosecuted there to a considerable extent, and with steadily-increasing prospect of final success, seem to have placed beyond the reach of doubt the fact that the coal existing near Red-wood Falls is both of good quality and in quantity large enough to become of general use.

What Minnesota needs most for her growth and speedy development is an adequate number of people apt and willing to work out her abundant resources. Were she to depend only on the natural increase of her present population, a long time would elapse in waiting, as such progress is exceedingly slow, and sometimes none. The marriages in the State last year were 3,569, which is twenty-six more than in 1868—about three-fourths of one per cent. of the entire population. With a view to a future rapid growth, she has recourse to the extraordinary means of inviting immigration.

Besides employing agencies, she causes pamphlets to be published and distributed among persons of different nationalities abroad, set-

ting forth the advantages accruing to the settlers upon her soil, the manifold resources of the country, the salubrity of its climate, and the readiness wherewith they may, on arrival, occupy themselves in their several callings. German and other immigration societies have also been established there for the purpose of forwarding and spreading such information among their respective countrymen. In the session of 1868, the Legislature appropriated ten thousand dollars for promoting immigration, and a Board was instituted to see that the money should be properly expended for the purpose intended, the Board consisting of the Governor, the Secretary of State, and the Treasurer, together with the presidents of the several immigration societies referred to above. The money expended for this end in 1869 appears in the report presented by the said Board, as follows:

For Hewitt's English pamphlets, 50,900 copies, printed and distributed	$3,565 00
For German immigration—an agent kept in Germany one year and 500 pamphlets in German, printed and distributed	2,035 00
For Scandinavian immigration—5,000 Swedish and Norwegian pamphlets printed and distributed—two agents kept for three months in Milwaukee and Chicago	1,802 93
For Irish immigration—condensed pamphlets and publications about Minnesota, circulated and sent to Ireland, and published in Irish papers	955 00
For Welsh immigration—pamphlets printed and distributed	369 25
To agent in New York	500 00
For general expenses	200 00
Total	$9,427 18

This report recommended a liberal appropriation for the present year also, and "that a State pamphlet be prepared by the Commissioner of Statistics, to be distributed by that officer, under the direction of the Board."

The most powerful inducement offered the immigrant for settling in Minnesota, seems to be found in the provision of her law which not only forbids any citizen to be imprisoned for debt, or deprived of every thing in his possession, but secures his property to him to a rather comfortable amount, by exempting it from attachment or execution for any debt, except for taxes; so that, in case of failure in business, or other contingencies, he and his family are sure not to be left destitute, but allowed still to live a comparatively easy life. The following extract from the *Minnesota Monthly* enumerates both the kind and the amount of property exempted by law from execution for debt, as follows:

The laws of the State of Minnesota allow to every resident thereof, free from attachment, levy or sale upon execution or any other process, except sale for taxes, the following:

A homestead, consisting of any quantity of land not exceeding eighty acres and the dwelling-house thereon; or instead thereof, at the option of the owner, one lot within an incorporated town, city, or village, and the dwelling-house thereon, with its appurtenances.

A homestead, like other property, may be mortgaged, but the mortgager being a married man his wife must join therein, unless such mortgage shall be given to secure the payment of the purchase-money or some portion thereof, in which case the wife is unnecessary.

Any person owning or occupying any house on land not his own, and claiming said house as a homestead, shall be entitled to its exception.

By recent decision of the Supreme Court, a homestead is declared exempt from operation of a mechanic's lien, and the filing of a lien becomes of no avail as against such homestead.

Also the following property is exempt, and none of the same is liable to attachment or sale on any final process issued from any court in this State, except an attachment issued in action for the purchase-money of the same, or for an execution issued upon judgment rendered for such purchase-money, viz.: One family Bible, family pictures, school-books, or library, musical instruments for use of family, and one sewing-machine, a seat or pew in any house or place of public worship, a lot in any burial-ground, all wearing-apparel of the debtor and his family, all beds, bedsteads, and bedding kept and used by the debtor and his family, all stoves and appendages put up or kept for the use of the debtor and his family, all cooking-utensils, and all other furniture not herein enumerated, to the amount of three hundred dollars in value. There are also exempt three cows, ten swine, one yoke of oxen, and a horse, or in lieu of one yoke of oxen and a horse, a span of horses or mules, twenty sheep and the wool from the same, either in the raw material or manufactured into yarn or cloth; the necessary food for the stock mentioned for one year's support, either provided or growing, or both, as the debtor may choose; also one wagon, cart, or dray, one sleigh, two ploughs, one drag, and other farming-utensils, including tackle for teams, not exceeding three hundred dollars in value. Also provisions for the debtor and his family necessary for one year's support, either provided or growing, or both, and fuel necessary for one year.

Also tools and implements of any mechanic, miner, or other person, used and kept for the purpose of carrying on his trade, and, in addition thereto, stock in trade not exceeding four hundred dollars in value, and the library and implements of any professional man.

During the last session of the Legislature five distinct memorials were resolved upon, requesting the Postmaster-General at Washington to establish, or increase, mail service on specified routes from place to place in different counties; and three more, petitioning Congress "for an appropriation of $100,000 to preserve the Falls of St. Anthony and to protect the navigation of the Mississippi above the falls;" "for the improvement of the St. Croix River;" and "to aid in the construction of the Northern Pacific Railway." The lands already donated by the Federal Government to Minnesota for the construction of her railroads are the following:

Roads.	Acres.
St. Paul and Pacific	66[illegible],000
St. Paul and Pacific	600,000
Branch of the St. Paul and Pacific	750,000
Branch of the St. Paul and Pacific	725,000
Authorized change of route	354,[illegible]
Minnesota Central	290,000
Minnesota Central	720,000
Winona and St. Peter	690,000
Winona and St. Peter	
Minnesota Valley	860,000
Minnesota Valley	150,000
Extends the time for completing said road seven years	

Roads.	Acres.
Lake Superior and Mississippi..... Authorized to make up deficiency within thirty miles of the west line of said road.....	800,000
From Houston, through the counties of Fillmore, Mower, Freeborn, and Faribault, to the western boundary of the State.....	735,000
From Hastings, through the counties of Dakota, Scott, Meeker, and McLeod, to the western boundary of the State.	550,000
Provides for two roads and two branches. (No map filed.).....	2,500,000

Over and above the land-grants exhibited in this list, exceeding 11,000,000 acres, Minnesota has her share in the 47,000,000 acres granted to the Northern Pacific Railroad; besides that, numerous bills have recently been introduced in the Federal Congress by her representatives, proposing to build new roads, or branches of old ones, and asking other land-grants for their construction respectively.

But the direct action of the State in forwarding the progress of her railroads has been so vigorous and efficient, that, during the four years last past, the extent of railway communication within her limits has quadrupled. The number of miles constructed and opened for traffic in 1869 was 224. These belong respectively to ten different lines, the aggregate length of which now in actual operation amounts to 780 miles. Several hundred miles more are now under construction, and others have been contracted for.

The public finances appear to be in a very satisfactory condition.

The aggregate amount of public revenue for 1870 is estimated at $433,224.04, and that of the current expenses at $395,407.12, leaving a probable balance in the Treasury of $37,816.97. The recognized funded debt of the State is $250,000, bearing interest at the rate of 7 per cent. It consists of the war loan of 1862, due in 1872, $100,000; ten-year loans of 1867, $100,000; 1868, $100,000, and 1869, $50,000 for State Institution Buildings.

Public instruction is remarkably well provided for, as both the State government and individual citizens bestow upon it no small share of their attention. The following summary of statements in regard to the number and cost of the common schools in the State, as well as their attendance and condition in 1869, has been taken from the last official report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, and will prove not uninteresting to the reader:

The whole number of persons in the State between five and twenty-one years of age, on the 30th of September last, was 144,414, an increase for the year of 15,311. The whole number of persons attending the public schools during the school year was 102,086, an increase of 20,390 over that of 1868. The percentage of non-attendance in 1867 was 44, in 1868 it was 37, and in 1869, it has been but 29.

In the 2,377 school districts in the State, there was a winter school in 1,793 districts, of an average in months of 336. There was a summer school in 1,980 districts, with an average length in months of 321. It will thus be seen that quite four-fifths of all the districts supported each class of schools at an aggregate average length in months of 6.57.

This exhibit of attendance surpasses that made by many of the older States of the Union.

The whole number of teachers in 1869, in the winter and summer schools, was 3,775. The average wages of male teachers for the year have been $34.20, and of female, $21.92.

The whole amount of teachers' wages for the year was $360,697.50; the value of all the school-houses in the State is $1,339,690.88, the increase for the year being $248,141.46. The cost of the school-houses built in 1869 is $242,039.03; the whole amount expended for school purposes has been $823,571.82.

The permanent School Fund received last year an addition of $238,304.45, the proceeds from the sale of nearly 40,000 acres of school-lands. It amounts at present to $2,371,-199.31; and it is anticipated that from the sale of the remaining school-lands well managed it will be not less than $16,000,000. The interest of this fund, which was last year $148,-520.40, is semi-annually distributed among the counties, in proportion to the number of their children attending school, respectively. The rate in 1869 was $1.15 for each scholar.

The "Teachers' Institutes," and the "Normal Schools," which have been established for the purpose of fitly training and qualifying teachers for the peculiar duties of their arduous work, are steadily gaining in the sphere of their usefulness, and also in the people's favor. The Normal Schools are distributed into distinct departments, styled "normal" proper, and one "model." The attendance in the normal departments last year was 373, while in the "model" it was 444, numbering together, 817.

The State University, whose building was first erected at St. Anthony twelve years ago, is now completely organized. The students at present are about 150, some 50 young ladies being among the number. The male students wear a gray uniform called "university gray." "The attendance in the preparatory department for the year was 146; the aggregate attendance during the fall term was 154. It is hoped that, after the present year, the income from the permanent fund will suffice for the current expenses."

The charitable institutions are provided for by the State with highly-commendable interest. In the Hospital for the Insane the number of patients under treatment during the year 1869 was 238. Some of these died in the course of that time, while others were cured and discharged, in all 77, so that those remaining in the hospital on November 3d were 161: men 81, women 80. The current expenses of the institution for the year 1869 amounted to $40,179,80; and for 1870 they are estimated at $52,000.

The combined Institution of the Deaf and Dumb and the Blind, presents for the year 1869 the following relative statistics: "The inmates in the mute department were 55: males 33, females 22;" and the blind 11: males, 6, females 5. The current expenses

amounted for the year to $14,878.64, there remaining on hand a balance of about $4,000 from appropriations of the two previous years.

The Soldiers' Orphans' Home has a large number of children to provide for, although eight among the counties had made no returns and two only partial ones; there were "1,239 soldiers' orphans in the State, of whom 922 are orphans of soldiers who enlisted from Minnesota — 317 from other States." The Legislature appropriated $10,000 for the relief of the soldiers' orphans, which appropriation the Board of Trustees request, and the Governor recommends to be continued.

In connection with the Soldiers' Orphans' Home, it may be proper to mention here that the interests of the surviving soldiers themselves are not forgotten or neglected by the State. From the report of the Adjutant-General it appears that the Bureau of Claims, now forming part of his office, collected last year the sum of nearly $18,000 due them by the Federal Government "for back-pay, bounty, and pensions." The whole amount collected on such soldiers' claims by that Bureau since its establishment is $398,249.79.

The "State Reform School" has 48 inmates. The State Prison seems to be under very good management and conduct. The number of convicts therein confined in 1869 had increased in a comparatively large proportion above that of the previous year, though this does not invalidate the assertion lately made by Governor Marshall, that "Minnesota has, in proportion to population, fewer criminals than any other State in the Union." The dominant political party in Minnesota is the Republican, by great majorities, although the Democratic also possesses no inconsiderable strength with regard to number as well as influence.

The Republicans held their State Convention at St. Paul on September 9th, for the purpose of nominating the State officers to be voted upon at the election of November ensuing, their nominees being—for Governor, Horace Austin; for Lieutenant-Governor, W. H. Yale; for Secretary of State, Hans Mattson; for Attorney-General, F. R. E. Cornell; for State Auditor, Charles McIlrath, the present incumbent; for State Treasurer, Emil Munch; for Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, C. G. Ripley; and for Clerk of the Supreme Court, Sherwood Hough. Previous to adjournment, the resolutions reported by the committee were read, and all adopted without dissent, except the last one, which was tabled, as follows:

1. *Resolved*, That the Republican party of Minnesota, in convention assembled, reaffirm their devotion to the doctrines of liberty, equal and exact justice to all men, and that the complete triumph of these principles can only be attained by the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

2. *Resolved*, That the retrenchment and economy, together with the gradual extinction of the public debt, which have so signally characterized the present national Administration in the conduct of public affairs, redeem our pledges to the people, and demand their cordial approbation.

3. *Resolved*, That the management of our State affairs, under Republican policy, have been marked by the fidelity of principle and true economy which have given us prosperity at home and consideration abroad, and that the true interests of the State are to be found in maintaining the Republican party in power.

4. *Resolved*, That we denounce all forms of repudiation of the national debt as a national crime, and that the national honor demands the payment of that indebtedness in accordance with the letter and spirit of the laws under which it was contracted.

5. *Resolved*, That the relations of the United States with other nations should be so adjusted in respect to the legal status of our naturalized citizens towards the governments in allegiance to which they were born, that those citizens while abroad shall be considered and protected by the Government of the United States, as fully as if they were native-born citizens of the United States.

6. *Resolved*, That the construction of a Northern Pacific Railway is imperatively demanded by the best interests of the entire country, and that to this end a wise policy dictates that this enterprise should receive liberal aid from the United States.

7. *Resolved*, That the Republican party of the State insist that the five hundred thousand acres of land granted to the State for internal improvements be set apart for the liquidation of the Minnesota State Railroad bonds, and that they be held for that purpose; that, when the holders of said bonds shall agree to take these lands and fully and finally surrender all the bonds to the State, said lands be made over to said holders or their assigns, or trustee, or trustees, as they may elect.

Notwithstanding the unanimity which characterized the proceedings of this convention, a strong conflict of views, and opposition amounting to disruption, seem to prevail in the ranks of the Republican party throughout the State. It occurred in numerous localities that, after the regular county conventions had been held by that party, and county officers nominated, other Republican residents of the same counties met together in separate conventions and nominated other candidates.

The Democratic State Convention met at St. Paul on the 23d of September, when they unanimously adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Democracy of Minnesota desire to act independently of mere forms and theories which have lost their substance, to consign settled questions to the past, and to appeal to the people of Minnesota upon the living issues of the present and future which concern the material interests of every citizen of the State.

Resolved, That the power to impose duties on imports is a power of taxation, which can only be used for the purpose of obtaining revenues, and that the present oppressive tariff laws should be so amended as to reduce the duties on imports to a strictly revenue standard.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the gradual reduction of the public debt by its payment in the lawful currency of the country wherever authorized by law, as fast as it can be done without disturbing the equilibrium of prices and values by too great an inflation of the currency.

Resolved, That we are in favor of the gradual reductions of all taxes under the internal revenue system, and the repeal of that system at the earliest practicable moment.

Resolved, That we are in favor of equal rights to all men, exclusive privileges to none; the bondholding wealth of the country to be taxed equally with the poor man's property.

Resolved, That, while we entertain a due respect for the opinions of those who differ with us, we are opposed to the enactment of sumptuary laws, as a violation of the personal liberty of the citizen.

Resolved, That the proper accountability of public officers to the people is inconsistent with extremely long terms in office by any individual; that the office of State Auditor should frequently receive a new, faithful, and competent incumbent, as the best protection of the State Treasury from spoliation; that transactions in school and other public lands by the State Auditor, or his agents and partners, are incompatible with the honest discharge of duty.

Resolved, That the long possession of power by any party or faction begets corruption, and is apt to transform a free republic into an oligarchy of office-holders, unless prevented by frequent changes in office; that it is the duty of the people in the towns and country, as well as in the State, to defeat the too frequent reëlection of office-holders, and thereby secure purity in the management of town and county affairs, prevent speculation in public funds, and defeat the formation of corrupt rings and cliques at the county seats and the State capital, to which end the Legislature should reduce the fees of office to the lowest rate that can secure the services of competent officers.

On motion to embody in their platform a resolution expressing the views of the party in regard to the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, after some debate, it was resolved to make no mention of the said amendment, but ignore it altogether. As candidates for State officers the Democrats nominated—Hon. George L. Otis, for Governor; J. A. Wiswell, for Lieutenant-Governor; T. G. Fladeland, for Secretary of State; Hon. Seagrave Smith, for Attorney-General; L. A. Evans, for State Auditor; Casper Baberich, for State Treasurer; Hon. Charles E. Flandrean, for Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; and W. T. Bonnivell, for Clerk of the Supreme Court.

A third party sprang up in Minnesota last year, under the title of "State Temperance" party, which, for earnestness and determination of purpose, and the means intended to be used for accomplishing it, would seem to bid fair to become a powerful engine in controlling the government of the State, even in civil matters. In its first organization its members had no intention to engage in the political arena as a separate body. Assuming a strictly neutral attitude, they resolved to stand by that one of the two existing parties which should support the cause of temperance, and to give each of them an official notice of their views.

This appeal was made to both Republicans and Democrats at the time they were assembled in State Convention respectively, but was made in vain. After hearing the proposal and considering the matter, each of these parties adopted an appropriate resolution, expressing its dissent from the views of the Good Templars on principle, and declining to coöperate in carrying them out. Hereupon the temperance men assumed a new position, by erecting their association into a political party, and, as such, held a State Convention at St. Paul on the 6th of October, when they proclaimed their purpose and policy in the following platform:

Whereas, Protection and allegiance are reciprocal duties, and every citizen who yields obedience to the just commands of his government is entitled to the full, complete, and perfect protection of that government in the enjoyment of personal security, personal liberty, and private property; and

Whereas, The traffic in intoxicating drinks greatly impairs the personal security and personal liberty of large masses of citizens, and renders private property insecure; and

Whereas, The existing parties are hopelessly unwilling to adopt an adequate policy on this question: Therefore we, in State Convention assembled, citizens of this free Commonwealth, sharing in the duties and responsibilities of its government, in the discharge of a solemn duty we owe to our country and our race, unite in the following declaration of principles:

Resolved, That we believe fully in the principle of free government, and securing at once the rights of the States severally and their inseparable union, by the Federal Constitution. We would not merely garnish the sepulchres of our republican fathers, but we do renew our solemn pledges of fealty to the imperishable principles of civil and religious liberty embodied in the Declaration of American Independence and our Federal Constitution.

2. That the traffic in intoxicating beverages is a dishonor to Christian civilization, inimical to the best interests of society, a political wrong of unequalled enormity, subversive of the ordinary objects of government, not capable of being regulated or restrained by any system of license whatever, but imperatively demanding for its suppression the passage of a prohibitory law both by State and national Legislature.

3. That in view of this, and inasmuch as the existing political parties either oppose or ignore this great and paramount question, and insolently refuse to do any thing toward the suppression of the rum-traffic, which is robbing the nation of its brightest intellects, and destroying its natural prosperity, and rapidly undermining its very foundations, we are driven by an imperative sense of duty to sever our connection with these political parties, and organize ourselves into a State Temperance party, having for its primary object the entire suppression of the traffic in intoxicating drinks.

Resolved, That we regard the sanctity of the Christian Sabbath as lying at the foundation of civil as well as religious liberty, and any infraction of the Sunday laws we hold to be an injury to the body politic.

Resolved, That we are opposed to any disposition of the 500,000 acres of internal improvement lands for any purpose, except the proposition be first submitted to the people.

Resolved, That the interest of the masses of the people requires a modification of the present exorbitant tariff, and that justice to the agricultural interests of the country demands prompt action, on the part of Congress at the next session, upon the subject.

Before appointing their State Central Committee, and adjourning, they also nominated their candidates for State officers, namely: Rev. Daniel Cobb, for Governor; John A. Stevens, for Lieutenant-Governor; J. H. Thompson, for Secretary of State; J. Ham Davidson, for Attorney-General; J. C. Randolph, for State Auditor; Robert Stewart, for State Treasurer; Hon. Edward O. Hamlin, for Chief Justice of the Supreme Court; and A. P. Connelly, for Clerk of the Supreme Court.

Minnesota seems unusually prolific in politi-

cal parties distinctly organized. Besides the three just mentioned, a fourth, styled "the People's party," had not only come into existence before the close of the year, but acquired sufficient strength of action to endeavor to make its power felt in the community. This may be inferred from the fact that, no sooner had the press made known the candidates named by the Republican State Convention of September 9th, than the People's party, regarding them as not advocates of the people's interests, summoned its members to assemble at St. Paul on the 7th day of October, in order to hold there a State Convention, "for the purpose of placing in nomination a State ticket, by the election of which the people might rebuke the abuses of party mismanagement, and reform the administration of State affairs." A local paper stated that on the previous day "quite a number of delegates from different counties were present in the city, although, upon consulting together at an informal meeting, they decided to hold no convention."

At the polls in November but little notice was taken by the people of the Temperance party candidates, the highest number of votes cast for any of them having been 1,764, given to Daniel Cobb, for Governor; while the votes cast at the same election for each of the Democratic and Republican nominees, through their whole tickets, exceeded 20,000. The Republicans came out of this contest victorious, all of their candidates having been elected by several thousand majorities. The votes, being classed under their respective heads, were as follows:

Chief Justice Supreme Court—C. G. Ripley, 25,899; Charles E. Flandreau, 22,216; Edward O. Hamlin, 1,430. Ripley's majority, 2,253.

Governor—Horace Austin, 27,848; George L. Otis, 25,401; Daniel Cobb, 1,764. Austin's majority, 183.

Lieutenant-Governor—William H. Yale, 29,456; J. A. Wiswell, 21,745; J. H. Stevens, 1,428. Yale's majority, 6,114.

The political complexion of the Legislature for 1870 continues to be Republican. The Senate consists of 14 Republicans and 7 Democrats; while in the Lower House the two parties are almost evenly balanced, it being composed of 26 Republicans and 21 Democrats.

MISSISSIPPI. At the beginning of this year the State of Mississippi was in the hands of the Reconstruction Committee of the national House of Representatives. She had rejected the constitution framed for her under the acts of Congress of March and July, 1867, by a decisive vote, chiefly on account of the harsh and proscriptive provisions which had been embodied in it on the subject of the elective franchise. Although the military commander had made his report on the election, stating this result as the final decision of a majority of the qualified voters, several representatives of the Republican party, including the late candidates for the principal State offices, were at Washington early in the session of 1868–'69, to urge Congress to throw out the vote of several counties and declare the constitution adopted notwithstanding the vote which had been taken. This action was recommended on the ground that the election had not been fairly conducted, and that violence and intimidation had in many parts of the State prevented a full and just vote. A large amount of testimony was taken by the Reconstruction Committee on this subject, and statements were received not only from those who favored the proscriptive policy, but also from the moderate Republicans and the Democrats. An address to the committee was made by several gentlemen who declared themselves to be "the representatives of a very large and most respectable and influential portion of the Republican party of Mississippi," and who entered their "earnest protest against the effort now being made to bring Mississippi back into the Union, under the constitution voted upon in June last, as an act of political suicide." After setting forth their objections to the proposed action at considerable length, they submitted their own plan for completing the reconstruction of the State, which was as follows:

We would therefore respectfully suggest:

1. That Congress shall declare all the offices in the State vacant.

2. Provide for the appointment of a provisional Governor, with power to fill all the offices thus declared vacant—with power also to remove from office his own appointees.

3. Provide that the proposed constitution shall be so modified or amended as to remove from it those features that are more proscriptive than is required by the reconstruction laws of Congress.

4. Provide for an election at the time designated by the proposed constitution for holding the annual election for the ratification of the constitution as amended, and for the election of all State, county, and municipal officers.

The Democrats were represented before the committee by ex-Governor Albert G. Brown. He declared that there was "profound quiet in all parts of the State," and that there was "not a State in the Union where the law is administered more impartially, or where the civil courts have a higher regard for the rights of all men of all parties and of all colors." The people, he said, not only submitted cheerfully to all the legitimate results of the late war, but were ready to acquiesce in the reconstruction policy of Congress, if it were fairly carried out. The constitution was defeated, "not, as these men allege, by fraud and intimidation, but distinctly for the reason that it was more vindictive in its spirit than the people, white or black, would tolerate, and more proscriptive in its provisions than the acts of Congress required; and the candidates were defeated, because they stood as the representatives of the tone and spirit of the constitution, and not because they were trying to reflect the will of Congress." The wishes of those whom he represented were expressed in the following words:

We desire to have Congress take up the rejected constitution of 1868, and so amend it as to make it conform in all its parts to the requirements of the "14th article" and the reconstruction acts, and in that form submit it to the people for ratification, and, my life upon it, the people will accept it with unparalleled unanimity.

Again, I am asked, if this is done, will we accept willingly the officers rejected with the constitution, but who still are claiming to have been elected under it. I answer, no; distinctly no. These men stood as the exponents and representatives of that constitution. They stood pledged to carry out all its vindictive, odious, and proscriptive features; and when the people rejected the one they rejected the other. If they were the choice of the people once, they will be so again. All we ask of them is, to try it.

Several bills were introduced into the House, for the completion of reconstruction in the State, before the accession of General Grant to the presidential chair, but none of them proved satisfactory to a majority of the members. That which occupied the largest share of attention was agreed upon and reported by the Reconstruction Committee, and provided for the reassembling of the Constitutional Convention, to which it delegated the power to appoint a provisional Governor. The Governor thus appointed was vested with authority to appoint and remove all the other State officials, and the convention was to provide for a new election, at which the body of the constitution and the passages to which greatest objection had been made were to be voted upon separately. After considerable debate, this measure was postponed until the next session of Congress.

Soon after the inauguration of General Grant, General Gillem was removed from the command of the Fourth Military District, and General Adelbert Ames, the Provisional Governor of the State, was assigned to that position. Some weeks before this time the following joint resolution had passed both Houses of Congress:

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America, in Congress assembled, That the persons now holding civil offices in the provisional governments of Virginia and Texas, who cannot take and subscribe the oath prescribed by the act entitled "An act to prescribe an oath of office, and for other purposes," approved July 2, 1862, shall, on the passage of this resolution, be removed therefrom; and it shall be the duty of the district commanders to fill the vacancies so created, by the appointment of persons who can take said oath: *Provided*, That the provisions of this resolution shall not apply to persons who, by reason of the removal of their disabilities, as provided in the 14th amendment to the Constitution, shall have qualified for any office in pursuance of an act entitled "An act prescribing an oath of office by persons from whom legal disabilities have been removed," approved July 11, 1868, and, *Provided further*, That this resolution shall not take effect until thirty (30) days from and after its passage: *and it is further provided*, That this resolution shall be and is hereby extended to and made applicable to the State of Mississippi.

On the 23d of March a military order issued from the headquarters at Vicksburg, to carry into effect the provisions of this resolution. After reciting the resolution itself, and the two oaths alluded to, the order proceeds:

IV. All civil offices in this district which have been held by persons whose legal disabilities have not been removed, and who cannot take the oath prescribed by act of Congress of July 2, 1862, are vacant.

V. Present incumbents of civil offices who can take the oath prescribed by the act of Congress of July 2, 1862, or whose disabilities have been removed, and who have not qualified under appointment from these headquarters, will at once take and subscribe the oath prescribed, forward the same to these headquarters, and continue in the performance of the duties of their offices.

VI. Late incumbents of offices rendered vacant by this resolution of Congress will retain custody of the books, papers, and property of their offices, and transfer them to their successors when they shall have qualified.

By command of Brevet Major-General AMES.
JOHN TYLER, 1st Lieut. 43d Inf.,
Brevet-Major U. S. A., A. A. A. G.

On the 7th of April, President Grant submitted a special message to Congress, in which he recommended that provision be made for holding elections in Virginia, Texas, and Mississippi, at which the adoption of their respective constitutions should be submitted to a vote of the citizens, a separate vote being taken "upon such parts as may be thought expedient."

A bill was immediately introduced with this object in view, and on the 10th of April received the approval of the President. It provides that the President may, "at such time as he may deem best for the public interests," submit the constitutions of these three States for ratification by the people, "and may also submit to a separate vote such provisions of said constitution as he may deem best." It provides, furthermore, for choosing members of the Legislature, State officers, and members of Congress, at the same election. The last three sections of the act are as follows:

SECTION 5. That if either of the said constitutions shall be ratified at such election, the Legislature of the State so ratifying, elected as provided for in this act, shall assemble at the capitol of said State, on the fourth Tuesday after the official promulgation of such ratification of the military commander in said State.

SEC. 6. That before the States of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, shall be admitted to representation in Congress, their several Legislatures, which may be hereafter lawfully organized, shall ratify the 15th article, which has been proposed by Congress to the several States, as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

SEC. 7. That the proceedings in any of said States shall not be deemed final, or operate as a complete restoration thereof, until their action respectively shall be approved by Congress.

After the passage of this act the State remained under military rule, though few cases occurred in which it was found necessary to exercise the authority of the commander in the administration of civil affairs. On the 27th of April, the following order was issued, making colored persons competent to serve on juries:

General Orders, No. 32.

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT
(DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI),
JACKSON, MISS., *April* 27, 1869.

It is hereby ordered that all persons, without respect to race, color, or previous condition of servitude, who

possess the qualifications prescribed by article 135, page 499, of the Revised Code of 1857, shall be competent jurors.

For the purpose of giving this order immediate effect, the tax-assessors of the several counties in this State are hereby directed to proceed immediately, in the manner prescribed in article 135, page 499, of the Revised Code of 1857, to make out supplementary lists of the names of all persons found in their respective counties, qualified to serve as jurors, whose names are not now on the jury-lists, and deliver the same to the clerks of the Circuit Courts of their respective counties, on or before the time prescribed by law for the meeting of the next Circuit Court of the county.

The clerks of the Circuit Courts in the several judicial districts of the State are directed, immediately upon the receipt of such supplementary lists, to record and give effect to the same in the manner prescribed by article 136, page 499, of the Revised Code of 1857.

The provisions of this order are not intended to relieve the tax-assessors of the several counties from the performance of the duties imposed on them to make out, annually, the lists of persons qualified to serve as jurors in accordance with the requirements of article 135, page 499, of the Revised Code of 1857. Provided, however, that, in the preparation of such lists, no distinction shall be made on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

By command of Brevet Major-General AMES.

WILLIAM ATWOOD, Aide-de-Camp, Acting Assistant Adjutant-General.

Official: JOHN EGAN, Aide-de-Camp.

A vigorous political canvass of the State was kept up throughout the summer and fall, commencing soon after the act of Congress providing for the new election, and several weeks before the time for that election had been proclaimed by the President. There were, virtually, but two parties, both Republican, the small minority opposed to these organizations, and clinging to the name and traditions of the Democracy, taking no active part in the struggle. The formation of a Conservative Republican party was the result of the opposition of a large portion of the people of the State to the course taken by Mr. B. B. Eggleston, the radical candidate for Governor in 1868, and his associates, who had attempted to have the constitution declared adopted in the face of the official report of the election. The action of these men, forming the "Committee of Sixteen," was, as we have already seen, vigorously opposed at Washington by ex-Governor Brown, and other prominent representatives of the conservative citizens of the State, and with perfect success. On his return to Mississippi, ex-Governor Brown was addressed by several leading citizens, and urged to give his views on the subject of the late act of Congress, and the proper course of the people under existing circumstances. He immediately complied with the request in a letter addressed to the gentlemen making it, dated April 22d, and published in the *Weekly Clarion* at Jackson. After discussing the state of affairs at some length, he sums up his conclusions in the following paragraphs:

First, then, let us have order and a rigid enforcement of the laws to the full extent of meting out equal and exact justice without stint to all men of all opinions, races, and colors; and to this end let every good man resolve to aid the civil and military authorities by every fair means in his power.

Second, let there be no factious or mere partisan opposition to the Administration of President Grant. But, as the President has shown himself kind to us, let us be generous to him. We cannot afford to be illiberal.

Third, we must stand by the issue as our opponents presented it at Washington. The convention, the constitution, and Eggleston and Co., on the one side, the people of Mississippi on the other. The President and Congress sat in judgment, and decided in our favor. We will not allow the issue to be changed.

Fourth, we accept the fifteenth amendment.

Fifth, we pledge ourselves one to another, disregarding color and former political opinions, to deal justly by all men, and to secure perfect equality of civil and political rights to every one before the law.

Sixth, that we set ourselves sternly against all men, of all races, and of every creed and color, who come among us to make mischief, and that we extend a cordial greeting and hearty good-will to all men, of all parties, opinions, races, or color, who come with the genuine purpose of living with us, and sharing in good faith our fortunes, whether they be good or evil.

This may be regarded as the starting-point of the Conservative Republican party of Mississippi. Ex-Governor Brown's suggestions were taken up by several leading newspapers, and conventions and mass-meetings were held in the different counties, to effect a thorough organization of the new party. Early in May the name of Judge Louis Dent, a brother-in-law of President Grant, was brought forward in the public prints as the person best fitted to lead the Conservative movement, and stand as its candidate for Governor. A circular was prepared in the early part of June, and sent to various prominent persons known to be in sympathy with the movement for a new party, inviting them to meet "in the city of Jackson on the 23d inst., for the purpose of taking steps necessary to promote the general interests of the State." The persons signing this circular formed no regularly-constituted committee, but were men who had been prominent in the opposition to the "Committee of Sixteen," and styled themselves simply "members of the National Union Republican party of Mississippi." They said:

Feeling as we do that the organization represented in this State by the "Committee of Sixteen" and the "Executive Committee" is not in sympathy and accord with the Administration of President Grant and the National Union Republican party, we earnestly desire your coöperation, as a Republican, in the contemplated movement. Believing that our State should be reconstructed in accordance with the acts of Congress and the principles enunciated by President Grant, and that toleration, liberality, and forbearance, will command respect, inspire confidence, restore harmony, and bring peace and prosperity, we ask the aid of every patriotic citizen of the State, be he white or black, high or low. The time for proscription has gone by, and, as we trust, forever.

We believe that all discordant feelings, engendered by the late war, should be eradicated; that the onward march of our great party should not be checked in its victorious career by selfish devotion to personal ends, or the display of an acrimonious asperity in the administration of public affairs; and that, "granting to all equal rights and privileges," harmony and fraternal feelings should be encouraged and cemented between men of all sections, races, and colors, of our

common country. We desire, in all sincerity, that "the dead past should bury its dead."

Feeling a deep interest in the welfare of our people, we desire to see such a condition of affairs as will best enhance and promote the material interest and prosperity of our Commonwealth. We do not understand that it is the mission of the Republican party to stir up strife; but, on the contrary, when truly interpreted, its highest aim, by according to every man his due, is to allay dissension, disarm prejudice, and restore law and order, by discouraging every useless and wanton attempt to array one class of citizens against the other. We can and must all live together as friends.

The proposed convention was held in the Senate-chamber, at Jackson, on the 23d of June, and elected Major J. L. Wofford as its president. An executive committee of six was elected and a platform adopted, but it was deemed inexpedient to make any nominations at that time.

The platform, as set forth in the following resolutions, received the unanimous approval of the convention:

Resolved, That this convention now proceed to organize the National Union Republican party of the State of Mississippi.

Resolved, That we express our unfaltering devotion to the great principles of the National Union Republican party, and that we look forward with hope and confidence to the early restoration of our State government in strict accordance with the reconstruction laws of the Congress of the United States.

Resolved, That the repeated failures of all former and existing organizations to restore the State and to meet the requirements of the republican spirit of our institutions, by insisting upon measures of proscription far exceeding the provisions of the Constitution of the United States and of the Reconstruction Acts of Congress, have rendered them unworthy of the respect and confidence of the voters of Mississippi.

Resolved, That, in the language of President Grant, "The question of suffrage is one which is likely to agitate the public so long as a portion of the citizens of the nation are excluded from its privileges in any State;" and, therefore, we sincerely favor the addition of the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States.

Resolved, That we deprecate any attempt to impose upon the people of this State any greater disabilities than the Constitution and laws of the United States already recognize, and that we believe it to be the duty of all good citizens to use every effort to obliterate the animosities of the past, and to unite in the restoration of a State government based on the equal rights, civil and political, of men of every race.

Resolved, That we express our thanks to the President and the Congress of the United States for rejecting the scheme to impose the rejected constitution upon the people of this State, and affirm our unwavering support of the Administration of General Grant.

Resolved, That we announce ourselves unqualifiedly in favor of universal suffrage and universal amnesty upon the restoration of the State to her Federal relations, and pledge ourselves in good faith to urge upon Congress the removal of all political disabilities incurred by participation in the late rebellion.

Resolved, That the State Executive Committee be authorized and instructed to issue, in behalf of this convention, an address to the people of this State, declaratory of the principles and sentiments of the National Union Republican party of Mississippi.

Resolved, That the State Executive Committee be authorized and instructed to issue a call for a State Convention, composed of delegates representing the different counties of the State, to meet at such time and place as they may deem expedient, for the purpose of nominating a State and Congressional ticket.

The address to the people, alluded to in the eighth resolution, was subsequently issued, and the Executive Committee applied to Judge Dent for permission to use his name before the nominating convention to be held in September, as a candidate for Governor. In his reply to this communication, Judge Dent expressed his approval of the platform of the 23d of June, and granted permission for the use of his name "for any posititon within the gift of the National Union Republican party of the State." If it was supposed that the name of Judge Dent would secure the sympathy of the President of the United States for the movement which had been inaugurated, that delusion was dissipated by the following letter:

LONG BRANCH, *August* 1, 1869.

DEAR JUDGE: I am so thoroughly satisfied, in my own mind, that the success of the so-called Conservative Republican party in Mississippi would result in the defeat of what I believe to be for the best interest of the State and country, that I have determined to say so to you (in writing, of course). I know or believe that your intentions are good in accepting the nomination from the Conservative party. I would regret to see you run for an office and be defeated by my act; but, as matters now look, I must throw the weight of my influence in favor of the party opposed to you. I earnestly hope that, before the election, there will be such concessions on either side in Mississippi as to unite all true supporters, in the State, of reconstruction and of the Administration together, in support of one ticket. [Here follows a passage of a private nature. The letter then concludes as follows]: I write this to you solely that you may not be under any wrong impressions as to what I regard, or may hereafter regard, as public duty. Personally, I wish you well, and would do all in my power proper to be done to secure your success, but in public matters personal feelings will not influence me.

With kindest regards, yours truly,

U. S. GRANT.

A reply was made to this letter by Judge Dent, containing the following passage, which is interesting as showing the light in which the radical Republicans of the State were viewed by their opponents:

Is it reasonable to suppose that a people, having the free choice of their representatives, would elect for their rulers a class of politicians whose aggressive and hostile conduct hitherto has rendered them peculiarly obnoxious and disagreeable? This is the charge made by the people of Mississippi against the radicals, or "bitter-enders," as they are called.

This charge is not made because they fought against the South and secession, for many of that class fought on the side of the South. It is not made because they are of Northern birth and education, for many men of Northern birth and education and of the Northern army are with us in antagonism to this obnoxious party. It is not because they are Republicans, for their antagonists were among the first in the South to organize on the Republican platform and to advocate the civil and political equality of all men, were sent as delegates to Chicago, and for their consistency and constancy were rewarded by you with offices of trust and honor.

But this charge is made, as I have said before, because the proscriptive antecedents and aggressive policy of these politicians toward the people of Mississippi have made them the objects of peculiar

abhorrence. That policy consists not only in the continual advocacy of proscription, but, in a time of profound peace, such revolutionary doctrines as excite and direct against the white men of the South and their families a most dangerous animosity, such animosity, indeed, which, with continuation of the same fuel, would inevitably lead to a black man's party and a war of races.

Neither are such doctrines preached with an honest desire to ameliorate the condition of the freedmen, or promote the ends of peace, or strengthen the Republican party in the South, but solely to alienate from the planter the time-honored confidence and affection of this race, in order that the new political element, under the banner of Republicanism, might be entirely controlled and subordinated to their own purposes of power and aggrandizement; and to this class of men, whom you foiled in their attempt to force upon the people of Mississippi the odious constitution, rejected at the ballot-box, you now give the hand of fellowship and support, and spurn from you that other class who, accepting the invitation of the Republican party, in good faith, came *en masse* in Virginia and Tennessee, as they will come in Mississippi and Texas, to stand upon its platform and advocate its principles.

The nominating convention was held at Jackson on the 8th of September, and consisted of 320 delegates, representing forty counties. The principles set forth in the platform of June 23d were reaffirmed, and two resolutions added, to the following effect:

That we announce ourselves in favor of a liberal system of free schools, and of such equitable distribution of the public school funds as may secure the largest degree of harmony and good feeling among all classes of our citizens.

That we cordially invite the immigration of capitalists and manufacturers into our State, and pledge ourselves to such legislation as shall most effectually protect and foster all the industrial pursuits of our State, and thoroughly develop all its resources.

The nominations to State offices were as follows: For Governor, Louis Dent; Lieutenant-Governor, E. Jeffords; Secretary of State, Thomas Sinclair; Auditor of Public Accounts, A. W. Wills; State Treasurer, Joseph McCloy; Attorney-General, Robert Lowry; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Thomas S. Gathright. Mr. Sinclair, the candidate for Secretary of State, was a colored citizen.

The radical Republicans of the State, or, as they styled themselves, "the Republicans of Mississippi," held their first convention on the 2d of July, and adopted a platform of principles consisting of no less than seventeen resolutions, in which they by no means supported the position taken by Mr. Eggleston and his associates in the preceding winter. The first seven declarations of the platform were as follows:

1. Unfaltering devotion to the Union, first, last, and forever.

2. Faith in and fidelity to the principles, objects, and aims, of the great National Republican party, with which, and with the President and Congress, we are in full accord and sympathy.

3. A fair, impartial, just, and economical administration of the Government, national and State.

4. Full and unrestricted right of speech to all men at all times and at all places, with the most complete and unrestrained freedom of the ballot, including protection to citizens in the exercise of the suffrage.

5. A system of free schools which shall place the means of liberal education within the reach of every child in the State.

6. Reformation of the iniquitous and unequal taxation and assessments which, discriminating against laborers and labor, have borne so unjustly and unequally upon the people.

7. That all men, without regard to race, color, or previous condition, are equal before the law, and that to be a freeman is to possess all the civil and political rights of a citizen, are not only enduring truths but the settled and permanent doctrines of the Republican party.

The eighth recognized but two great national parties, under the rule of one of which the "material and industrial resources of the country will languish," while under the other the people of Mississippi will be "rich, prosperous and contented."

The ninth favors the removal of political disabilities as soon as "the spirit of toleration now dawning upon our State shall be so firmly established as to warrant Congress" in declaring them at an end.

The tenth is as follows:

10. That the present modified condition of public sentiment in this State renders it wise and expedient that the Republican party should embrace the opportunity, which is to be presented in the approaching election, of ratifying the new constitution, so far modified, in the franchise and general provisions thereof, as to conform to the Constitution of the United States, and the reconstruction laws; and that, as Mississippi shall be fully reconstructed according to the true intent of the laws, all disabilities imposed upon the late rebels should be entirely removed.

Then, after recommending the adoption of the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, declaring in favor of universal amnesty and universal suffrage, and inviting immigration to the State, the convention gives utterance to its approval of the Administration of President Grant, its confidence in and admiration for General Ames, and its belief that Congress is "the assembled wisdom and expressed will of the nation."

On the 23d of August, the radical Executive Committee issued an address to the people, calling upon them to support these principles and coöperate with the party. Their nominating convention met on the 30th of September, and adopted the following ticket: For Governor, James L. Alcorn; Lieutenant-Governor, R. C. Powers; Secretary of State, James Lynch; Auditor of Public Accounts, Henry Musgrove; State Treasurer, William H. Vasser; Attorney-General, Joshua S. Morris; Superintendent of Public Instruction, Henry R. Pease.

A platform was also adopted, made up of the leading declarations of that already given.

The Democrats did not enter into the campaign as a distinct party opposed to those which had already taken the field, but a large proportion of those citizens who had formerly acted with that party joined the forces of the Conservative Republicans. On the 5th of August an address to the people was published,

signed by a hundred and thirty-five prominent citizens of the State who had been previously identified with the Democracy, urging a hearty coöperation with the National Republican party. The adoption of the constitution was admitted "as a fixed fact." There would be no contest of parties on that question, but, said the signers of the address, there is to be "an issue as to the men who shall be elected to administer the reconstructed State government and represent us in Congress; and on that question we desire to give expression to our views, and to submit our conclusions to the consideration of the people. After stating briefly the character of the two Republican organizations according to their views, they announce it as their "deliberate and matured opinion" that "we should support the National Union Republican party and vote for the ticket which they present." The general views of these gentlemen may be gathered from the following paragraphs, with which their address closes:

All Mississippians agree that reconstruction, on the best attainable basis, and at the earliest possible moment, is essential to the great interests of the State. Reconstruction will bring peace, real peace to the country, and will restore to us pure civil rule, and a destruction of that gigantic military despotism under which we have so long suffered and languished, with all its terrible humiliations and oppressions. The present basis for reconstruction, although no mode of our selection (for we had no power to choose), is certainly as fair and just as we have any reason to hope for hereafter.

Reconstruction once effected, and the blessings of peace and civil rule secured, we shall speedily witness a marked change for the better in all our material interests. Capital, labor, and population, will flow into the State. Our natural advantages, the wonderful productiveness of our rich soil and genial climate, will command prosperity. Our paralyzed industrial pursuits will all revive, whenever we obtain certainty for the future, by the establishment of a fixed, enduring civil government. Our political history hereafter will, of course, be governed by the degree of prudence and wisdom our people may observe in meeting and directing unforeseen future developments.

We take it for granted that no true Mississippian, worthy of that honored name, can think for a moment of adhering to the radical Republican party as it exists in the State of Mississippi. From them we have received nothing but cruel tyranny, unjust persecution, and a degree of oppression and humiliation unequalled, as we conceive, in the sad history of conquered nations. Their odious principles, as ignobly illustrated by their past party history, and not *successfully* disguised even in their cunningly-devised and insincere platform of July last, are condemned by all intelligent and just men, North and South. The conservative sentiments *expressed* in their late platform cannot be confided in, having been forced from them, as a last desperate effort to seize the State government, with its offices and emoluments, after the party had been rebuked at the ballot-box, by the people of the State of both races; after they had been signally repudiated and rebuked by President Grant, and by a Congress composed of a large majority of Republicans.

The question of calling a Democratic Convention was considered by the Executive Committee of that party, and their conclusion was published on the 9th of September in the following resolutions, which had been unanimously agreed to:

1. That it is not expedient to hold a Democratic State Convention or to place a Democratic ticket in nomination.

2. That, in the opinion of this committee, the true interests of the people of the State will be consulted by supporting and electing the candidates of the National Union Republican party, this day put in nomination.

3. That the people of every county in the State who support the State and congressional candidates of this party should immediately meet in county conventions, organize the party by the appointment of all appropriate officers and committees, put Legislative candidates in the field, and enter upon the campaign at once.

Still there were members of the Democratic party bitterly opposed to the adoption of the constitution in any shape, and determined to resist the ratification of the fifteenth amend- to the end. One or two newspapers which represented this element of the party insisted that a convention should be held at Canton, on the 20th of October. A few delegates, who had been elected in response to this call, assembled at the appointed time and place, and, after full consultation, unanimously adopted the following resolutions, and then adjourned, subject to the call of the chairman:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of the State of Mississippi will retain its organization intact, and that the party cannot be, nor has it been, by any competent authority, committed to the support of either wing of the Republican party of this State.

Resolved, That we can offer to the people of Mississippi no suggestion or advice as to the course proper for them to pursue in the present contest; but, remaining firm in our devotion to the great doctrines of State rights, we agree to adjourn this convention, leaving the responsibility for the establishment of a Republican party in Mississippi to rest where it properly belongs.

Resolved, That, in view of the divisions and dissensions now existing among the people of Mississippi—the result, we cannot doubt, of the manœuvres of politicians—we deem it inexpedient for the Democratic party of the State to put a State ticket in the field during the present campaign.

All through the excited canvass, public meetings were held in various parts of the State, and leading men of all parties, including the prominent candidates for office, were engaged in heated discussions, which turned chiefly on the merits of the different men in nomination, and the general character of the two branches of the Republican party. On the 10th of July the President issued his proclamation, fixing the day of election, and specifying the sections of the constitution which were to be submitted to a separate vote. The following is the proclamation:

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of Congress, approved April 10, 1869, I hereby designate Tuesday, the 30th day of November, as the time for submitting the constitution adopted on the 15th day of May, 1868, by the convention, which met in Jackson, Miss., to the voters of said State registered at the date of such submission, viz., November 30, 1869, and I submit to a separate vote that part of section three of article seven, of said constitution, which is in the following words: "That I am not disfranchised in any of the provisions of the acts known

as the Reconstruction Acts of the Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses, and that I admit the political and civil equality of all men, so help me God." Provided that, if Congress shall at any time remove the disabilities of any person disfranchised in the said Reconstruction Acts of the said Thirty-ninth and Fortieth Congresses, and the Legislature of this State shall concur therein, then so much of this oath and so much of this only as refers to the said Reconstruction Acts shall not be required of such person so pardoned to enable him to register, and I further submit to a separate vote section 5 of the same article of said constitution, which is in the following words: "No person shall be eligible to any office of profit or trust, civil or military, in this State, who, as a member of the Legislature, voted for the call of the Convention that passed the ordinance of secession, or who, as a delegate to any Convention, voted for or signed any ordinance of secession or who gave voluntary aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement, to the persons engaged in armed hostility to the United States, or who accepted or attempted to exercise the functions of any office, civil or military, under any authority or pretended government authority, power, or constitution, within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto, except all persons who aided reconstruction by voting for this convention, or who have continuously advocated the assembling of this convention, and shall continuously and in good faith advocate the acts of the same, but the Legislature may remove such disability, provided that nothing in this section, except voting for or signing the ordinance of secession, shall be so construed as to exclude from office the private soldier of the late so-called Confederate States army;" and I further submit to a separate vote section 5 of article 12, of the said constitution, which is in the following words: "The credit of the State shall not be pledged or loaned in aid of any person, association, or corporation, nor shall the State hereafter become a stockholder in any corporation or association." And I further submit to a separate vote part of the oath of office prescribed in section 26 of article 12 of the said constitution, which is in the following words: "That I have never, as a member of any convention, voted for or signed any ordinance of secession; that I have never, as a member of any State Legislature, voted for the call of any convention, and which expressed any such ordinance." The above oath shall also be taken by all the city and county officers before entering upon their duties, and by all other State officers not included in the above provision. I direct the vote to be taken upon each of the above cited provisions alone, and upon the other portions of the said constitution in the following manner, viz.: Each voter favoring the ratification of the constitution, excluding the provisions above quoted, as adopted by the Convention of May 18, 1868, shall express his judgment by voting "for the constitution;" each voter favoring the rejection of the constitution, excluding the provisions above quoted, shall express his judgment by voting "against the constitution." Each voter will be allowed to cast a separate ballot for or against either or both of the provisions above quoted. It is understood that sections 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15, of article 13, under the head of "ordinance," are considered as favoring no part of said constitution.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this tenth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine, and of the independence of the United States of America the ninety-fourth.

[SEAL.]

U. S. GRANT.

By the President:

HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

A military order issued from the headquarters of the district on the 14th of October, directing the election to be held on Tuesday, the 30th of November, and Wednesday, the 1st of December, in pursuance of the President's proclamation. Full directions were given as to the revision of the registration lists, the conduct of the election, and the method of making the returns. It was ordered that a board of three registrars for each police district should meet on the 16th of November to revise the lists of qualified voters, and continue the work for five days. "To the end that the laws may be fairly and justly executed," it was ordered that "two white and two colored persons, of different political parties, registered voters of the county, will be selected by the Board to challenge the right of any person to be registered, who, in the opinion of the person challenging, is disqualified. Upon such challenge being made, the Board will examine the applicant on each point of alleged disqualification. Evidence shall be taken if offered. A careful record of all official action of the Board will be kept for information of these Headquarters."

The Board of Registrars was authorized to strike off the names of such persons as they were satisfied were not entitled to vote, and to add such as should establish their right to that privilege. A certificate of registration was to be furnished to every qualified voter whose name was added to the list, and to all persons previously registered, who should give satisfactory evidence of their identity and of the loss of their old certificates. Power was also given to the Boards of Registration, when in the performance of the duties of their office, to preserve the peace in the vicinity of the place of registration, and, if they deemed it necessary, to organize a special police force for that purpose. They were also authorized to call on the civil and military authorities for aid, if it should be necessary.

The registrars were directed to act as Commissioners of Election, and detailed instructions were given them with regard to their duties as such. Among the regulations for conducting the election were the following:

7. The Commissioners of Election will make such arrangements for voting as will permit all to gain access to the polls and deposit their votes without opposition or resistance. The commissioners, with the persons designated as challengers, shall be the only persons permitted to remain in the room where the voting takes place—nor will persons be allowed to occupy the windows or doors of the room. The voters will be admitted one at a time, to pass out at a door other than the one at which they enter, that there may be no interruption of the balloting.

Interference with the voters as they approach the ballot-box or await their turn, in such order as they may have been arranged, will not be tolerated. The Commissioners of Election and the regularly-appointed peace officers will take particular care to notice any and all such interference, and report all violations to these headquarters, with depositions, etc.

9. Every person presenting his ballot at the polls shall announce his name and exhibit his certificate of registration, and if upon examination it is found he has been registered as a voter, one of the commis-

sioners will take his certificate and across the face of it write his (the commissioner's) name, the date, and the word "*voted*." At the same time the name of the voter in the precinct-book will be checked off in such a manner as to clearly indicate the fact that a vote has been cast on that certificate at this election. (Check-marks, distinct from any heretofore used, will be adopted, and an explanatory note made on the inside of the cover of each precinct-book.) One of the commissioners will receive the ballot, and, without opening it, or allowing it to be opened or examined, will deposit it in the ballot-box.

11. Registration is evidence of the right to vote.

The commissioners will permit two persons from each political party, duly-registered voters, to act as challengers, by or through whom all challenges will be made, but they will be allowed to challenge only so far as may be necessary to prevent repeating or fraudulent personations of duly-registered voters.

If the person challenged is known to any of the commissioners to be the person he represents himself to be, his vote will be admitted; if not so known, one of the commissioners will administer the following oath: "You do swear that your name is ———, and that in such name you were duly registered as a voter in —— election precinct, and that you are the identical person you so represent yourself to be." If challenged for already voting, the commissioner will administer the following oath: "You do swear that you have not voted at this election, at this or any other polling-place." The cause of challenge shall be noted opposite his name. If he refuse to take the oath, his vote shall be rejected.

14. To the end that voters may, in the exercise of the elective franchise, be protected, so far as possible, from all interference or intimidation at the place of voting, the Board of Commissioners will not permit any persons to approach to within thirty feet of the building where the ballot-box is opened, except duly-registered voters, who shall successively approach the ballot-box, complying with such regulations and instructions as the Board may establish.

15. "Electors shall, in all cases, except in those of treason, felony, or breach of the peace, be privileged from arrest during their attendance on this election, and going to and returning from the same." All persons arrested at the polls shall be permitted to vote, if they have not done so, before being taken to a place of confinement.

16. All bar-rooms, saloons, and other places for the sale of intoxicating liquors, will be closed from sunset on the evening of November 29th, until sunrise on the morning of December 2d, and during that time the sale of intoxicating liquors at or near the polls is prohibited — nor will any person be permitted to distribute any gratuitously. The peace-officers will be held responsible for the strict enforcement of this prohibition, and will arrest and hold for trial all persons who may transgress it.

17. The use or exhibition of fire-arms, or other deadly weapons, at or near a polling-place, on the day of election is prohibited. Persons so offending may be brought before a military commission, or other tribunal, at the discretion of the district commander.

18. Boards of Commissioners shall have authority to compel compliance with all orders and directions necessary for a quiet and peaceable election. It shall be their duty to arrest, or cause to be arrested, by persons selected by themselves, or other peace-officers, all persons who shall attempt by force or intimidation to interfere with a free expression of opinion at the ballot-box, or who shall create or attempt to create disturbances during the canvass of the votes after the closing of the polls. Persons thus arrested will be held by the sheriff of the county for trial by a military tribunal, or until instructions regarding the case be received from these headquarters.

19. Sheriffs of counties are called upon to be vigilant and active in their efforts to preserve the peace and compel order. A special deputy will be selected by them to attend at each polling-place at which they cannot be present; and it shall be their duty to aid the Commissioners of Election, to the full extent of their power, in making arrests when necessary and compelling obedience to their instructions in their arrangements made at the ballot-box.

20. Military interference at the election is forbidden except when it may be necessary to keep the peace. Officers in charge of troops are required, should the necessity arise, to coöperate with the Commissioners of Election and civil authorities to that end.

21. Soldiers, citizens of the State, and duly-registered voters, will be permitted to vote, remaining at the polling-place only so long as may be necessary for that purpose.

22. Should the efforts of the Commissioners of Election and their assistants, to secure a full and free exercise of the elective franchise, prove ineffectual in any district—should frauds be committed—should voters be kept from the polls or compelled to vote through intimidation or fear of force—should the ballot-box or poll-lists or books of registration be destroyed, a new election will be ordered for the county of which the precinct forms a part.

When the ballots have all been received, the commissioners were to constitute Boards of Canvassers, and were directed in detail as to how the votes were to be counted, and the returns made to the military headquarters at Vicksburg. Finally, the order gave a list of the offices to be filled, including those of Representatives in Congress, and members of the State Legislature. Full Boards of Registration for all the districts in the sixty-one counties of the State were appointed by a military order issued on the 4th of November.

The election took place on the appointed days, and resulted in the ratification of the constitution, by a vote of 105,228 to 954. The provisions separately submitted were all rejected, with the exception of that which forbids the lending of the credit of the State to any person or corporation. The vote against the section disfranchising citizens for serving the cause of the Confederacy in the late war was almost unanimous. The whole number of votes cast for Governor was 114,283, of which Alcorn received 76,186, and Dent 38,097, giving the former a majority of 38,089. The persons chosen to represent the State in Congress were George E. Harris, J. L. Morphis, Henry W. Barry, George C. McKee, and Legrand W. Perce, all Republicans. The number of State Senators elected was 33, of whom 26 were Republicans and 7 Democrats. The representatives in the State Legislature are 107 in number, 82 Republicans and 25 Democrats.

The military order announcing the result of the election also directs the Legislature to assemble at Jackson on the 11th of January, 1870. Soon after this official announcement, the following military order was issued by General Ames:

HEADQUARTERS FOURTH MILITARY DISTRICT
(DEPARTMENT OF MISSISSIPPI),
JACKSON, MISS., *December* 23, 1869.

I. The following-named persons are hereby appointed to office in the State of Mississippi:

James L. Alcorn, Governor.

James Lynch, Secretary of State, *vice* Henry Musgrove, whose resignation is hereby accepted.

Henry Musgrove, Auditor of Public Accounts, *vice* Thomas T. Swann, whose resignation is hereby accepted.

Joshua S. Morris, Attorney-General.

* * * * * *

Appointees must file with the proper officer such bonds and other recognizances as may be required by the statute-laws of the State of Mississippi, and take and subscribe to the oath of office prescribed by the act of Congress of July 2, 1862.

Official notification from the officer who approves the bonds, that the law imposing has been faithfully complied with, and that the bondsmen are known to him as reliable and responsible men, together with the oath of office, will be forwarded to the Acting Assistant Adjutant-General at these headquarters. Upon their receipt, if satisfactory, they will be furnished with written authority from these headquarters to enter upon the discharge of the duties of the office to which they have been appointed.

* * * * * *

By command of Brevet Major-General AMES.
WILLIAM ATWOOD, Aide-de-Camp,
Acting Assistant Adjutant-General.

General Alcorn declined the position of provisional Governor, "coming from the military authority," he said, "and subject for its support to the military power; the fitness of things appears to me to forbid my acceptance of it while I hold in immediate prospect the position of civil Governor by that sanction most acceptable to my instincts as an American citizen—that of popular choice."

The Legislature assembled on the 11th of January, in pursuance of the order of the military commander, and proceeded to conform to the conditions precedent to the readmission of the State into the Union. Soon after the organization of the two Houses had been completed, on the fifth day of the session, a message was received from General Ames in his character of provisional Governor of the State, submitting the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Federal Constitution for ratification. A vote was immediately taken, resulting in the adoption of the fourteenth amendment, by a vote of 23 to 2 in the Senate, and 87 to 6 in the House of Representatives. The fifteenth amendment passed the Senate unanimously, and received 93 votes in its favor to one against it in the House. The next important duty of the Assembly was the choice of United States Senators. It was determined to elect three, one for the term beginning March 4, 1871, one for the unexpired term beginning March 4, 1869, and finally, one to serve for the residue of the term beginning March 4, 1865, and ending in 1871. The election occupied two days, the 18th and 19th of the month, the contest being altogether on the candidate for the short unexpired term. For the full term, beginning in 1871, General J. L. Alcorn was elected by a unanimous vote in the Senate, and a vote of 91 to 2 in the House. For the unexpired term, beginning March 4, 1869, General Adelbert Ames received 22 votes in the Senate and 72 in the House, and was duly elected. After several ballots for a Senator for the short term, the choice fell upon H. R. Revels, a colored member of the State Senate, who received 81 votes on a joint ballot out of a total of 119. On the 20th of January the Legislature adjourned to the "second Tuesday after the admission of the State into the Union."

A bill to readmit the State of Mississippi into the Union was introduced into Congress on the 12th of February, 1870, and, after considerable debate, in which the question of imposing new conditions was discussed at length, passed into a law on the 17th, and the first colored member of the Senate of the United States was soon after sworn in and permitted to take his seat.

An important incident of the exercise of military authority in the State, during the year, occurred on the trial of Edward M. Yerger, before a military commission, for the murder of Joseph G. Crane, in the streets of Jackson, on the 8th of June. Mr. Yerger was a prominent citizen of Jackson, and had served as a colonel in the Confederate army, acting as a member of the staff of General Breckinridge during the war. Mr. Crane, on the other hand, was a lieutenant-colonel in the United States Army, and a member of General Ames's staff, and had recently been appointed by that officer as acting mayor of the city. It appears that Yerger had refused to pay certain taxes which had been levied on his property for street improvements, on the ground that his property had been injured by the elevation of the street in front of his residence. Thereupon Colonel Crane, as mayor of the city, issued a warrant of distress and levied upon a piano found in the house of Colonel Yerger, and caused it to be removed and advertised for sale. Yerger was absent from home at the time, but on hearing of this occurrence returned to the city, and meeting Colonel Crane on the street began an altercation which resulted in his stabbing that officer several times with a bowie-knife. Colonel Crane died almost immediately, and Yerger was arrested by the military authorities two days after the crime was committed, viz., on the 10th of June; a military commission was organized, with Brigadier-General R. S. Granger as president, and the trial of Yerger began. His counsel protested against the authority of a military tribunal to try him, as he was a citizen of Mississippi, not in the service of the army or navy of the United States, and, therefore, the courts of that State alone were competent to deal with his case on a regular indictment by a grand jury. As all their arguments and objections were overruled, they next applied to the Circuit Court of the United States for the Southern District of Mississippi, for a writ of *habeas corpus*, which was granted, and the prisoner brought before that tribunal by General Granger in obedience thereto. After hearing argument on the question of the jurisdiction of the military commission to try the case, the court decided that the imprisonment was lawful, and dismissed the writ of *habeas corpus*,

thus remanding the prisoner to the military authorities. A petition was then presented to the Supreme Court of the United States, praying for a writ of *certiorari* to remove the cause to that court, and a writ of *habeas corpus* to bring up the prisoner. This was demurred to, on the ground that the Supreme Court, under its appellate jurisdiction, had no power to issue a writ of *habeas corpus*. This question was argued before Chief-Justice Chase, at Washington, on the 14th of July. The decision of the chief justice was rendered on the 25th of October, and affirmed the power of the court to issue the writ, but did not touch upon any other question involved in the case. The hearing of the matter on the merits was postponed until the next session of the Supreme Court, and in the mean time the State passed from the hands of the military authorities into those of the civil officials elected under the new constitution, and on the 28th of February Mr. Yerger was given into the custody of the sheriff of Hinds County. Lieutenant William Atwood, adjutant-general of the Fourth Military District, immediately made affidavit before Judge Cabaness, charging the prisoner with the murder of Colonel Joseph G. Crane, on the 8th of June, 1869, and, his counsel waiving an examination, he was committed for trial without bail. Thus the authority of the military commission, involving the question of the constitutionality of the Reconstruction Acts, escaped a final adjudication at the hands of the Supreme Court.

The people of Mississippi have been so much occupied with the stirring events which have attended the reconstruction of the State, that little has been done to revive their material interests, and no reports have been made regarding the public institutions or the financial condition of the Commonwealth. Considerable attention has, however, been given to the subject of immigration, and several associations have been formed for its encouragement and promotion; and it is quite probable that the energies of the people will be directed, during the coming year, to the development of their resources, and the building up of their commercial and industrial interests.

MISSOURI. The natural advantages of this State, especially with regard to her geographical position, the variety and vastness of her resources, as well as water-power, the facilities of communication by land or water, affording to the inhabitants ample means of easy intercourse among themselves and with other States, are such as to rival other sections of the Union. Several of these advantages were noticed in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868. Her population, which, by the close of that year, was put at one million and a half, seems to have been underestimated; since Governor McClurg, in his message to the General Assembly, dated January 5, 1870, says: "One may reasonably calculate that the United States census of this year will disclose the fact that we number two millions."

The State being interested to maintain a constant tide of immigration flowing in from abroad, as the most effectual means of attaining that end, its authorities have recognized the necessity of placing before the millions of this and other countries correct information as to the climate of Missouri, her soil, agricultural products, minerals, timber, and water-power. A Board of Immigration has been organized to spread such information abroad, and the sum of two thousand dollars is annually appropriated by the Assembly for the purpose of meeting their expenses. Much praise is given the members of this Board for the amount of good which they have succeeded in effecting to the State, by the employment of so little money. As the efficacy of their work, however, depends in a great measure upon enlarging the sphere of their operations, a small increase of outlay for such a purpose would prove an investment making large returns, beneficial to the State beyond all proportion; it has been proposed to add $5,000 to the said appropriation of $2,000, and make it annually $7,000, in order to enable that Board, or any other selected for the work, "to send abroad printed letters, pamphlets, books, and circulars, with reliable information as to the resources of the State, * * with instruction that they should prepare and disseminate such information in the other States of the Union."

The leading object of this recommendation is to invite capital and labor into the State, chiefly for mining and manufacturing purposes. The occupation of the people at present is almost exclusively agricultural; whereas, the working of the minerals, especially coal, iron, and lead, and the establishment of manufactories for the purpose, as well as for using other raw materials, as wool, cotton, and timber, would not only prove of immediate benefit to the State, but would also greatly promote agriculture itself.

The assessed value of taxable property in Missouri, for 1868, was $470,778,119, which sum the Board of Equalization subsequently caused to be increased nearly four millions more. Its amount for 1869 was $508,278,860; and it is estimated that there will be an increase of five per centum per annum, in the future. The assessments on this amount are, "one-fourth of one per centum, under a constitutional provision for the payment of the interest and to form a Sinking Fund for the principal of the State debt, and one-fourth of one per centum for revenue; one-fourth of which is for a 'Public School Fund,' and one and three-quarters per centum of the remainder for a 'Seminary Fund.'"

The State finances are in good condition; at the same time it is urged, that no measure involving an expenditure of public money, though promising beneficial results, should be engaged in by legislative action until the State has paid her debt, and so improved her condition as to be able to lighten the burden of taxes.

The entire debt of the State, at the beginning of 1869, was $18,654,000, over $18,000,000 of which consisted of bonds given in aid of railroads, and maturing in 1872 and 1887, and the intermediate years. The sum of $61,000 was paid on the principal during 1869, for which reason the debt, at the end of that year, was $18,593,000; without including $8,000,000 of bonds of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad, on which that road punctually pays the interest.

From the State Treasurer's statement, it appears that the receipts during the last fiscal year were, in the aggregate, $2,837,002.51; and the cash disbursements for the same period were $2,702,021.92. The State Auditor's report shows that the current expenses of the government, including $92,000, certificates of indebtedness last year, amounted to $1,024,467.23; while the total of warrants drawn on all funds amounted to $2,712,517.97, which includes the payment of interest of the State debt.

The principal of the railroad bonds mentioned above is to be paid at maturity, "in gold or silver," since the State in issuing them promised to do so in express terms. Concerning their interest, which is accruing in the mean time, and the payment of which falls due semi-annually on the first day of January and July, whether this also must be paid in coin, or not, the following letters were exchanged last year between the State Treasurer and Auditor, as State-Interest-Fund Commissioners, and the Attorney-General."

TREASURER'S OFFICE, STATE OF MISSOURI, CITY OF JEFFERSON, *May* 25, 1869.

Hon. Horace B. Johnson, Attorney-General of Missouri.

DEAR SIR: In view of the recent decision of the Supreme Court of the United States in regard to the effect of contracts made prior to the passage of what is popularly called the Legal-tender Act, and in view of the fact that the six per cent. bonds of the State issued to aid in the construction of the Pacific Railroad, the southwest branch of the Pacific Railroad, the Iron Mountain Railroad, the Cairo and Fulton Railroad, the Platte County Railroad, and the North Missouri Railroad, promise to pay the principal of said bonds in gold or silver to the undersigned Fund Commissioners of the State Interest Fund, we have the honor to request your opinion, whether or not the State is legally bound to pay the interest, due semi-annually on the first days of January and July of each year, in gold coin.

An early reply will much oblige your obedient servants,

WM. Q. DALLMEYER, State Treasurer,
DANIEL M. DRAPER, State Auditor,
And *ex-officio* Fund Commissioners.

REPLY.

STATE OF MISSOURI, OFFICE OF THE ATT'Y-GENERAL, JEFFERSON CITY, MO., *June* 1, 1869.

Hon. W. Q. Dallmeyer, and Honorable Daniel M. Draper:

Your letter of the 25th instant, asking my opinion in regard to the legal obligation of the State to pay the principal and interest in gold coin on bonds issued by the State, has been received. After carefully examining the decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, and the various laws under which bonds were issued by the State of Missouri to the Pacific Railroad, southwest branch of the Pacific Railroad, Iron Mountain Railroad, North Missouri Railroad, the Cairo and Fulton Railroad Company, and the Platte County Railroad Company, I have concluded that the State having sold all of said roads under the lien the State held on them for security of principal and interest in said bonds, and the State having by said sales assumed all the obligations of said railroad companies, is legally obligated to pay both the principal and interest of said bonds in coin as they become due. Very respectfully,

[SEAL.] H. B. JOHNSON,
Attorney-General of Missouri.

These letters, it is affirmed, were published directly in New York papers before their existence and purport had been made known in Missouri; whereupon the value of the Missouri State bonds suddenly rose in the New York stock-market, on the persuasion that the payment of their semi-annual interest, falling due after a few weeks then ensuing, would be made in gold. Missouri papers regarded this as a contrivance of speculators to enhance the value of the State bonds for the occasion. In his recent message of January 4, 1870, Governor McClurg declares to the General Assembly: "I am permitted by the Fund Commissioners to state that, from the records in their office, they unhesitatingly say there cannot be State bonds to the amount of more than $60,000 on which the holders are expecting interest in gold. But it is not known in whose hands they are, as the coupons have not been presented since the State resumed the payment of interest in 1867. No demand for interest in gold has been made of the financial agent of the State in New York."

Railway communication in Missouri is quite extensive, numerous lines crossing the State in all directions, and connecting her distant portions with each other as well as with the neighboring States. To her railroads, previously in operation, there was an addition made during 1869 of not less than 360½ miles, begun and completed within the year. At the close of this period, 1,035 more miles were in course of construction. A number of new lines had also been projected, and their actual construction was looked upon as near at hand.

It is expected that the State will reap great advantages from the Illinois and St. Louis Bridge, when finished, as a means of communication. The plan of this vast enterprise has been long maturing, and the 27th day of October, 1869, witnessed the beginning of its construction; the foundation of the eastern pier having been laid on that day, when 12 huge blocks, weighing 8½ tons each, were, by appropriate machinery, placed in their permanent position at the bottom of the river. The bridge is to consist of three arches, besides the abutments and approaches; the middle arch measuring 515 feet in length, the side ones 491 feet each. The materials, whereof the bridge will be composed, are wrought and cast iron and steel for the arches and other accessory parts of various description of work; while the piers will be of masonry-work, with facings of quarry-granite from Virginia. The bridge will be con-

structed of such capacity as to afford independent passage to railway-cars, vehicles of all descriptions, and foot-passengers at the same time.

Public instruction is well favored by the government and citizens of Missouri. The State constitution provides for it as follows: "A general diffusion of knowledge and intelligence being essential to the preservation of the rights and liberties of the people, the General Assembly shall establish and maintain free schools for the gratuitous instruction of all persons in this State between the ages of five and twenty-one years."

The Governor avers that "there is a most healthful school sentiment in the State," although there may have been injudicious and indiscreet taxation in some cases, and perhaps "too much power placed in the hands of school directors; with some other irregularities or defects that might call for a remedy." The people seem to be rather heavily taxed on account of schools. But the free-school system itself is spoken of with disapprobation, on principle, by many citizens, who regard it as inefficient, but only onerous to tax-payers, without their reaping from it the beneficial results which it was intended to produce. A public paper in Jefferson City, in its issue of December 8, 1869, makes some noteworthy statements in regard to the State Free School established in the capital, and the use, or rather no use, made of it by many residents, who, rather than send their children to the Free Public School in the city, prefer to send them to other paid schools. It says:

The Public School, with tuition free, has only 400 scholars. The two other schools, charging from 75 cents to $3 per month, have 237 scholars. The Catholic school 164, the Episcopal 73. Ninety-eight resident heads of families prefer the Catholic school to the Free School; twenty-nine heads of families prefer the Episcopal. Total 127.

We now come to the proof that the present mode of applying school-tax is sheer robbery. Nineteen individuals, sending their children to the Episcopal school, pay a school-tax, going to support the Public School, of $724. Fifty-one individuals, sending their children to the Catholic school, pay a similar tax of $1,204. In short, seventy persons pay $1,928 to a school which they derive no benefit from, and which they will not use. What is a school worth when a man will pay a premium to be exempt from sending to it? It will not do to say that there are denominational causes for this. Among the patrons of the Episcopal and Catholic schools are Unitarians, Lutherans, Presbyterians, Methodists, Baptists, and free-thinkers. Neither will it do to say that their patrons are enemies of the free-school system, for among them we count two of the school directors. The truth is, that all municipal laws, dictating a particular system of education, have no more foundation in good sense than the old sumptuary laws that regulated the length of a boot or the dimensions of a skirt. Parents are more interested in their own children than anybody else, and know more about their wants and necessities. The education of children should be adapted to their future vocations, needs, and capacities. It is for this reason that we say: "Let every parent select the teacher of his own child, and let the school-tax that he pays go to the school that he may select."

With regard to "Normal Schools," the necessity of providing for an efficient corps of teachers by legislative action has become evident.

The permanent Common-school Fund consists of

Six per cent. United States bonds (gold) held by the State Treasurer	$1,567,850 00
Six per cent. Missouri bonds, held by the State Auditor	20,000 00
Money in the Treasury, to be invested,	29,512 67
Total	$1,617,362 67

The sum of $100,000 in six per cent. United States bonds (gold), held by the State Auditor, constitute a permanent "State Seminary Fund." The amount of $218,740.64 was transferred last year to the School Fund, and $11,483.38 to the Seminary Fund.

To the School Fund belong also the swamp-lands, granted by the Federal Government for school purposes, though it has sold a portion of them to the amount of some 400,000 acres. Proof relating to 215,000 of these acres has been already given to the Federal Government in behalf of the State, and that for the rest will follow; the General Government agreeing to indemnify the State on account of the said lands, about one-fourth in scrip, and three-fourths in money. The Registrar of Lands has patented 1,033,000 acres of swamp-lands to the several counties of the State, and some counties have sold them. The Legislature is urged to cause the legality of these sales to be inquired into, as they are subject to strong suspicion of unfairness and malpractice. The sale of 10,000 acres was effected in Vernon County at the rate of one cent per acre.

By an act of Congress dated July, 1862, the Federal Government made a general donation of lands, for the purpose of encouraging and promoting agriculture and the mechanic arts throughout the Union; the leading object of the donation being to aid the States and Territories in the establishment of colleges, in which, "without excluding other scientific and classical studies, and including military tactics," such branches of learning should be taught "as are related to agriculture and the mechanic arts." This grant was made on the condition that "the previous assent of the several States shall be signified by legislative acts;" and further that "any State, which may take and claim the benefit of the provisions of this act, shall provide, within five years, at least not less than one college, as described in the fourth section of this act, or the grant to such State shall cease." By a joint resolution adopted by both Houses of the General Assembly, approved March 17, 1863, the State of Missouri accepted the grant "with all the conditions, restrictions, and limitations," but has not fulfilled the other condition of providing for such a college within the fixed period of five years, which expired March 17, 1868. With a view to replace the State in a condition to partake of the benefits of such a grant, the

Governor requested the General Assembly "to take prompt action, and, when such college is provided, have Congress properly informed that such general legislation may be had as will make valid the selections of land already made under the grant, and entitle the State to select the remainder."

The charitable institutions of the State appear to be in a satisfactory condition and managed by efficient officers, and their interests carefully attended to. The average number of convicts detained in the State Prison, during 1868, was 702; in 1869 it was 734; at the close of the year there were 740 (males), all of them confined at night in cells originally intended for 356. A new cell-building has been in progress of erection, and will be covered this year with a roof. A necessity of enlarging the prison-yard wall, and building an adequate number of workshops within, exists. By this means the establishment will be made self-sustaining through the accumulated earnings of the convicts, as all of them might then be working for compensation, either by hired contractors, according to the present system, or otherwise; whereas, now, only a part of their number can be thus profitably occupied; though the others also have been usefully employed in various works for the State, which, however, does not appear among the figures of income from convict-labor in the books of the Penitentiary. The receipts from the labor of convicts hired by contractors were $33,489.27 in 1868, and $34,716.19 in 1869. The financial condition of the prison on December 6, 1869, as stated in the Factor's report, was: "cash on hand and other assets, $23,588.54; and the amount due to individuals, $59,595.17," leaving the establishment in debt at that time $36,006.63.

A Reform School for the confinement and correction of young offenders seems to be much needed, but not yet established, in the State of Missouri.

Prize-fighting is apparently not favored but rather discountenanced in Missouri. On January 19, 1869, a member of the Lower House introduced a bill "for the suppression of prize-fighting in the State, providing that participators, seconds, umpires, and spectators, shall be deemed guilty of high misdemeanor, and punished by two years' imprisonment at hard labor, or a fine of $1,000, or both such fine and imprisonment." The bill was referred to the Committee on Criminal Jurisprudence, who modified it, especially as to the persons to be punished; these being "the prize-fighters for money or other valuable property," and the penalty, "imprisonment of from six to twelve months, or a fine of from $500 to $1,000, or both." The bill was so reported to the House on February 8th, when it passed with a unanimous vote.

The original seal of the State, which had disappeared from the seat of government in 1861, when those who had it in custody joined the secession, was restored to its proper place last year by ex-Lieutenant-Governor Thomas C. Reynolds, after his return home from Mexico, where he had resided since the close of the war. A correspondence took place on this occasion between him and Governor McClurg, as follows:

ST. LOUIS, MO., *May* 26, 1869.

To His Excellency J. W. McClurg,
Governor of the State of Missouri.

SIR: Any hesitation formerly felt on principles of general public law, or on account of conflicting opinions within the State, to deliver to its existing government the original great seal of the State of Missouri, was removed by the fact that in November last, for the first time since 1860, State officers were chosen in profound peace, at an election held throughout its territory. I therefore to you, as the chief magistrate chosen at that election, herewith transmit it.

Now of no official value, it is still interesting as a relic of the time when civil war had not yet divided the Missourians. May its return be an augury of the speedy oblivion of past strife, and the complete restoration of fraternal feeling among us all!

I remain, sir, with great respect, your obedient servant,

THOMAS C. REYNOLDS.

STATE OF MISSOURI, EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENT,
CITY OF JEFFERSON, *May* 27, 1869.

To Hon. Thomas C. Reynolds.

DEAR SIR: The good old seal of the State and your accompanying letter were received this morning. I believe I will express the feelings and sentiments of every good citizen in saying that it is gratifying to witness not only the return of the old seal to its original and legitimate place from which it had unwarrantedly strayed, but the return of an old and influential citizen to his legitimate duties.

We will preserve and respect the seal as the original government seal of the State of Missouri, and admire it for its value, being founded in law, and will respect you for your manly and honorable expressions, and will reasonably expect from you the reflection of the character of one tried as pure gold in the refiner's fire. Such expressions from such a source, being a virtual candid acknowledgment of the authority of the government, do more for a speedy oblivion of past strife than volumes of abuse.

Be assured the present State administration desires such a restoration of fraternal feeling that the day may be hastened for the restoration of every political privilege consistent with State and national safety.

I have the honor of transmitting the seal to the Hon. Francis Rodman, the Secretary of State, its legal custodian, together with your letter and a copy of this acknowledgment.

I am, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant,
J. W. McCLURG.

Much of the attention of the General Assembly at the last session was given to political matters. The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified, but the act is regarded as defective, by reason that the joint resolution of both Houses adopted for the purpose, "in reciting the words of the amendment, does not include the second section." On this account, the Secretary of State of Missouri, by a letter dated January 4, 1870, requested the Secretary of State of the Federal Government "to cause an official copy of the fifteenth amendment, as passed by Congress, to be transmitted to his office." to the end that the General Assembly might duly

vote on it again, during their session of the present year. The Governor says he will lay an attested copy of the amendment before them "at an early moment," and recommends its ratification.

In behalf of the negroes residing in Missouri, whose number is set down at one hundred thousand, and who are excluded from representation at the ballot-box, Governor McClurg warmly recommends that an amendment to the State constitution "be proposed and submitted to the people for ratification or rejection at the next fall election," although the ratification of the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States would dispense with the necessity of a popular vote upon the former in the State. He insists the more upon the action of the General Assembly in this matter, because for the extension of the elective franchise to the negroes there is no constitutional provision in the State constitution, "and without one, in the absence of Federal legislation, the State Legislature cannot admit them." He suggests that "the amendment might be proposed in such form as to empower the Legislature to admit them after the first day of January, 1871."

On the other hand, he calls, in favorable terms, the attention of the Legislature to the propriety and expediency of removing the political disabilities under which those citizens are now laboring who took part on the side of secession. He says: "As wayward States have been restored by Federal laws to their proper places to support and strengthen the Federal fabric, so it may be desirable, with those who have a right to decide, that it shall not much longer be considered in our State inconsistent with its safety to receive back, as supports, individuals whose ability to uphold was but too well proved by their ability to pull down." For the removal "of such disabilities as are now imposed upon those who are otherwise qualified as voters," no amendment to the State constitution need be proposed, a special provision having already been made in it, enabling the Legislature to remove them by their action, "after the first day of January, 1871." For rehabilitating the citizens here referred to, and practically restoring to them the elective franchise, only the expediency remains to be considered. In this the Governor suggests a preparatory method, saying that the subject can be discussed in the canvass preceding the election of next fall. The present Legislature may invite such discussion if thought best. Candidates for the next General Assembly can in part run upon the issue of favoring or opposing the removal of such disabilities. The Senators and representatives can come here prepared to reflect and to vote the sentiments of their respective constituencies, and a majority can exercise the power already conferred, and suspend or repeal the parts of the constitution referred to."

A more radical measure had been already proposed in behalf of the disqualified white citizens during the last session of the General Assembly. In the Senate a bill was introduced on January 18, 1869, simply "providing for an amendment to the constitution, by striking out all provisions which place white men under disability for acts of disloyalty, the question to be submitted to the people at the general election of 1870," which bill was referred to the proper committee.

An amendment to the State constitution in regard to common affairs is strongly recommended by the Governor to the Legislature at the present session, namely, "striking out what is commonly known as the double liability clause, whereby, as the constitution now is, the stockholders in private corporations 'shall be individually liable for the stock, and a further sum equal to it;'" such a clause being at the same time unjust and greatly injurious to the interests of the State, as it tends to hinder capital from being invested in enterprises which would otherwise be entered into by such corporations to the advantage of the Commonwealth. This matter also had been taken in hand at the last session of the Legislature; a bill was introduced into the House, and referred to the Committee on Constitutional Amendments, "proposing to submit to the people, at the next general election, an amendment to the constitution, changing section 6, article 8, in reference to the double liability of stockholders; the amendment providing that no stockholder shall be liable for a greater sum than the amount of stock owned by such stockholder."

The calling of a general convention of the people, for the purpose of revising and amending the State constitution, seems to have been in contemplation with many citizens. The Governor makes it the subject of a strong appeal to the Legislature, deprecating that any step should be made in such direction, regarding it preferable to tolerate, at least for a time, any objectionable provisons now forming part of the constitution, rather than to attempt to amend them by a convention of the people. This could not be done without a heavy expenditure of money, which the State, in her present financial condition, could not well afford to bear; besides that, according to a provision inserted in the constitution, "all needed amendments can be separately submitted to and voted upon by the people at the next general election, without additional expense."

The registration law, of which we gave an account in the CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, and the manner wherewith it is administered by those in whose hands its execution has been placed, are loudly denounced by a large portion of the people and the press, especially in reference to the voting at the general State election, held in November, 1868. As an evidence of the truth of their charges, they refer to the official lists returned to the Secretary of

State, but kept long unknown to the public. These lists represent the "qualified" voters at that election to have been 166,509, and the "rejected" voters only 11,016; but the accusers point to the fact that fifty counties in the State returned no lists of the "rejected" voters, though the registration law absolutely prescribes it, and that five counties more returned no lists at all. Whatever was the cause of such an omission, they aver that the official lists themselves, if duly returned, would show the "rejected" voters in 1868 to have been not fewer than 20,000. They affirm further, that, besides these citizens excluded from voting after they had been registered, a large number of others presented themselves to be registered, but were refused registration, even for subsequent rejection, and a much larger number did not present themselves for registration at all, only to avoid enduring the insults and mortification which they were sure to meet with had they offered their votes. This last description of citizens is so numerous that, in St. Louis County alone, they are reckoned at from 8,000 to 10,000—so that the citizens of Missouri, who, at the election of 1868, were legally entitled to the exercise of the elective franchise, but, by the working of the registration law and the action of its executors, were unlawfully either refused registration or excluded from voting after registration, or kept from offering themselves as voters at all, are represented to have been at least 80,000.

MORAVIANS. The General Synod of the Moravian Church met at Herrnhut on the 24th of May, 1869, and adjourned on the 8th of July. It was the first session of this body held since 1857. It had been the intention to hold it in 1867, ten years after the last, but the preliminary steps occupied two years longer. By a fortuitous and happy coincidence, the year in which it was actually held was the centennial of the Synod at Marienborn, in 1769, at which the constitution of the Unity of the Brethren was framed. According to the modifications effected in the composition of this body by the Synod of 1857, deputies from the congregations were no longer present, but only representatives of the provinces. Of these there were twenty-seven, nine from each province. Besides these, six brethren from the missions, members of the elders' Conference of the Unity, bishops, and official members, swelled the number of voting members to fifty-four. Among the subjects that were considered by the Synod were the Saviour's government of His Church; the doctrine, the liturgy, church discipline, the ministry of the Word, ecclesiastical orders, the constitution of the Unity and its several provinces, foreign missions, the home-work of the three provinces, etc. Little essential change was made in what was already established.

In reference to church work, the Synod decided that the diffusion of their views in Bohemia and Moravia, the birthplace of this church, is an incumbency of the whole Unity, to be performed as Providence may open the way. The subject of the missions received especial attention, and it was decided that the ultimate aim in all the mission-fields should be to raise up a native ministry, and the establishment of self-sustaining congregations. The Synod sanctioned the establishment of a training-school at Nisky, in Prussia; the erection of a house for the accommodation of visiting missionaries at Kleinwelke, in Saxony, where the children of missionaries are to be educated; and the publication of a missionary periodical for use in the West Indies.

The following are the chief points of Moravian doctrine, as revised by the General Synod of 1869:

We regard every truth revealed to us in the Word of God as an invaluable treasure, and sincerely believe that the loss of life itself would be a trifling evil compared with the denial of any one of them. But most especially is this the case with that truth which the Renewed Church of the Brethren has ever regarded as her chief doctrine, an inestimable jewel which, by God's grace, she still holds fast:

"That whosoe'er believeth in Christ's redemption
May find free grace, and a complete exemption
From serving sin."

From this great truth we deduce the following points of doctrine most essential to salvation:

a. The doctrine of *the total depravity of human nature*—that there is no health in us—and that, since the fall, we have no power to help ourselves out of the bondage of sin.

b. The doctrine of *the love of God the Father*, who "has chosen us in Christ before the foundation of the world," and who "so loved the world that he gave his only-begotten Son, that whosoever believeth in him should not perish, but have everlasting life."

c. The doctrine of *the real Godhead and real manhood of Jesus Christ*; that God, the Creator of all things, was manifest in the flesh, and has reconciled the world unto himself—that "he is before all things, and by him all things exist."

d. The doctrine of *the atonement and satisfaction of Jesus Christ for us*; that he "was delivered for our offences, and was raised again for our justification," and that in his merits alone we find forgiveness of sins and peace with God.

e. The doctrine of *the Holy Ghost and his gracious operations*; that it is he who works in us the knowledge of sin, faith in Jesus, and the witness that we are the children of God, and that without him we cannot know the truth.

f. The doctrine of *the fruits of faith*; that it must show itself as an active principle by a willing obedience to God's commandments, flowing from love and gratitude, and that genuine faith *will* ever be thus distinguishable."

The following are the General Moravian Church statistics for 1868:

	Members.	Congregations.	Communicants.	Total
German Province		20	4,895	7,2[illegible]
British Province		48	3,208	5,44[illegible]
American Northern Province		44	5,680	10,11[illegible]
" Southern Province		10	1,088	1,74[illegible]
Missionaries and their children			305	4[illegible]
			15,176	24,9[illegible]

Seventeen bishops were living at the close of 1869, of whom five were in the United States, four in Great Britain, seven in Continental Europe, and one in Antigua, West Indies.

Sunday-Schools.	Scholars.	Teachers.
British Province	3,912	700
American Northern Province	5,430	558
" Southern Province	529	65
Missions	9,871	1,323

The Moravians have 87 mission stations in various parts of the earth, with 319 missionaries, 1,009 native assistants, having the care of 20,518 communicants, 24,916 non-communicants, and 22,814 baptized children. The increase of the missions, in 1868, was £21,401, and the expense £17,113. The sums raised by contributions of members or by trade in the various stations, and the special donations for school purposes, amounted to about £25,000. The total number of missionaries employed from the commencement of the missions, 136 years ago, was 1,350.

A Home Missionary Society has lately been established in the British provinces, to which there is an auxiliary in Yorkshire. The Irish Scripture-reader's Society also does mission-work in connection with the Irish congregations. There are five boys' and ten girls' schools and boarding-schools in England; seven boys' and ten girls' schools are enumerated on the Continent of Europe. In the United States, besides the theological school at Bethlehem, Pa., there is a ladies' school at the same place; and there are schools at Chaska, Minn.; in Bartholomew County, Ind.; Lancaster County, Pa.; Nazareth, Pa.; and Salem, N. C. Theological institutions are located at Gnadenfeld, Prussia; Fulneck, England; and at Bethlehem, Pa. There are schools for the children of missionaries at Fulneck, and at Kleinwelke, Saxony. A training-school has been established at Nisky, Prussia. The leading Moravian periodicals are, the *Moravian*, at Bethlehem, Pa.; the *Messenger* and *Periodical Accounts* (Missionary), in England; the *Brüder Bote* and the *Herrnhut*, in Germany.

The following is the condition of the principal church funds in the British provinces: ministers' fund, £6,192 7s. 6d.; income, £418 14s. 10d.; sustentation fund, £5,156; ministers' children's fund, £4,998 13s. 4d.; training institution fund, £2,160 7s. 10d.

British societies in aid of the Moravian missions are, the London Association, the Edinburgh Association, and the Glasgow Auxiliary.

MOUSTIER, Léonel, Marquis de, a French statesman and diplomatist, born in Paris in 1815; died in that city, February 5, 1869. He was the eldest son of the Marquis Clemen Edouard de Moustier, Comte de Frotte. He was educated for the diplomatic career, elected member of the Legislative Assembly for the Department of Doubs, May 13, 1849; was ambassador at the court of Berlin from March, 1853, to November, 1859; ambassador at Vienna from December, 1859, to August, 1861; ambassador at Constantinople from August, 1861, to September, 1866; and appointed Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs on the 2d of September, 1866, which place he held up to December, 1868, when he resigned in consequence of his failing health, impaired by his long residence in the East, and was made Senator, and was succeeded by the Marquis de La Valette. While filling the Department of Foreign Affairs, the marquis was supposed, incorrectly it is now said, to represent the war policy of the empire, and, in particular, to have urged an aggressive interference in the affairs of Germany, with a view to preventing the consummation of German unity. His health since the period of his appointment to the Senate, had been steadily and perceptibly declining. His retirement from the Foreign Department was very generally, though perhaps erroneously, regarded as a manifestation on the part of Napoleon III. of his abandonment of a war policy toward Prussia, and the news of it was joyfully received at the Prussian court.

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NAVY, UNITED STATES. The Navy of the United States at the commencement of the political year, on March 4, 1869, consisted of 203 vessels of all classes and in every condition. Their aggregate tonnage was 183,442 tons, and when in commission they were calculated to carry 1,366 guns, exclusive of howitzers. As regards steam or sailing vessels, excepting the iron-clads, which are all steamers, of the wooden ships 32 were sailing-vessels; 53 were steamers with some auxiliary sail-power; 44 were steamers without any efficient sail-power, and 22 were without sail-power of any kind. The whole force effective for immediate service at the beginning of the political year was 43 vessels, including storeships, mounting 356 guns of every calibre, and attached to fleets; six others, mounting 36 guns, were in commission for special service, besides six at the various stations used as receiving-ships, with fourteen tugs and small vessels. The remainder of the navy not in commission consisted of 46 iron-clads and monitors of every class, laid up at the various stations. Of this number 32 have been condemned and ordered to be sold as not adapted to the service, of which 26 have never been in commission. All of these iron-clads would require a thorough overhauling and expensive repairs to hulls, turrets, and machinery, before they could be got ready for service. There are 22 vessels on the stocks unfinished, and 66 laid up in ordinary, or unfit for active service in the future.

The North and South Pacific stations were combined into one, the Pacific station; the

others, known as the North and South Atlantic, the European, and the Asiatic, remain unchanged.

Within the limits of these stations are comprised most of the ports and sea-coasts of the known world. But the force assigned to afford protection to American interests is small compared with that which some other nations send on the same duty. Cruising upon the same seas, and with duties not more various and extensive, France has over 150 ships in commission, of a tonnage of 250,000 tons, while England has crowded into the same area no less than 191 ships, with a tonnage of 328,000 tons, with a flying squadron ready to rēenforce her power whenever occasion may require.

Of the 43 vessels which composed the American fleet, not more than 18 were in a condition for real service. And most of them were steamers without sufficient sail-power. With mere steam-vessels there exist the disadvantages of complicated machinery, worn by constant use, and exposed to derangement on foreign seas, more easily disabled in battle and storm, and they afford no school of seamanship to officers or men. Besides, only a few war-steamers can carry coal for more than ten days' use, and even a portion of this time must be consumed in seeking a new supply. The decay of the monitors has served to increase the weakness of the effective force. Little care has been bestowed upon them. Hulls, turrets, and machinery, the most costly and powerful, have been exposed to the direct action of the elements, and not one of the whole fleet could have been ready in time to resist a sudden attack. In the opinion of the Secretary, the condition of the Navy at the beginning of the year was at a low ebb. Calling into activity the best professional ability in every bureau and department of the service, the task of reorganizing the material, as far as consistent with present laws, was undertaken. Work was renewed at all the navy-yards, and, as fast as possible, the ships in ordinary were put in condition for service. Those in commission, as fast as they could be spared from their stations, were also repaired. More than half of the Pacific fleet have been repaired at Mare Island; and nearly all the vessels of the North Atlantic fleet have, from time to time, been sent home for that purpose. The work was also renewed, and actively pushed, on all the available ships at the several yards. By this means the various squadrons have been rēenforced to some extent. At the same time, to secure the greatest amount of efficiency with the greatest economy, all the steamers which have been repaired have been given full sail-power, and rerigged, so that, without interfering with their speed or effectiveness under steam, they are now entirely independent of it, and are enabled to cruise wherever required, or, if need be, to go round the world without deterioration of boilers or machinery, and without consuming their coal, which is thus reserved for times of necessity and danger. The ship-rig considered the most efficient for cruisers has already been given to 40 vessels of this class. The success which has attended this plan has illustrated its wisdom. The capacity of the vessels for every service is proved by trial to have been greatly improved without loss of speed or efficiency when under steam. Many of the foreign coal-stations have been discontinued, and orders were issued to the commandants of squadrons directing them not to permit the consumption of coal for any purpose which could be as well performed under sail.

The North Atlantic station embraces the entire eastern coast of North America, and that of South America as far as Cape Orange, near the mouth of the Amazon, extending eastward to the 43d degree of longitude west of Greenwich. The squadron on this station consisted, during the year, of the Powhatan, Tuscarora, Severn, Albany, Nantucket, Nipsic, Seminole, Swatara, and two heavy iron-clads, the Saugus and Dictator, with tugs, making 12 vessels, mounting 76 guns, and commanded by Rear-Admiral Hoff, who was relieved on September 15th by Rear-Admiral Charles H. Poor. In consequence of the imperfect condition of the vessels, a limited force was shown in the West Indies.

The present commander of the squadron has been directed, while preserving strict neutrality between the contending powers in Cuba, to permit no injustice to citizens of the United States, to prevent interference with American commerce, and to repel and punish any disrespect or violation of the flag. Some of the vessels cruised among the islands, more particularly in the waters of Hayti and St. Domingo. A part of this island being in a state of revolution, made a more important demand upon the service than it was fully able to meet.

The South Atlantic station embraces the east coast of South America, from Cape Orange to Cape Horn, extending across from the former point to St. Paul de Loando, and along the southwest coast of Africa to the Cape of Good Hope. This squadron consists of the Lancaster (flagship), Quinnebaug, Wasp, and Portsmouth —four vessels, mounting forty-three guns, and under the command of Rear-Admiral Joseph Lanman.

In consequence of the war existing between Brazil and Paraguay, the Navy has been frequently called upon to afford protection to American citizens and interests in that latitude, and the Department designs to send there, as soon as practicable, vessels of light draft, which will be able to ascend the rivers of the Argentine Confederation and Paraguay.

The Pacific station is one of great extent and importance, embracing the entire western coast of both North and South America, extending westward to the 170th degree of west longitude, and thence along the equator south of it

to the 115th degree east, taking in New Zealand, Australia, and New Guinea, together with the Feejee and other groups of the South Pacific Ocean. The naval force on this station is looked to for any needed protection to the interests of the Government and people in all the waters of the Pacific; along the great isthmus and the whole coast of South America; the whaling and fishing fleets in the North Pacific; the growing commerce with the Sandwich Islands, China, and Japan; the newly-acquired interests in Alaska and the adjacent islands; and to the traders, representatives, and missionaries, scattered among the barbarous or half-civilized tribes which people the Pacific groups.

This station was divided into two squadrons, denominated the North Pacific and the South Pacific squadrons, commanded respectively by Rear-Admiral Craven and Rear-Admiral Turner —the North Pacific squadron consisting of eight vessels, mounting in all 78 guns; and the South Pacific squadron, consisting of six vessels, mounting in all 49 guns. Since the coming in of the present Administration, for the purpose of readier communication, and to give to the small force in this extended field greater efficiency and facility for combined action, these two stations have been consolidated into one, with a single fleet of two divisions, each under the immediate command of a commodore, with the whole under the general command of a rear-admiral.

The Pacific fleet, under command of Rear-Admiral Turner, with Commodore William Rogers Taylor and Commodore D. McDougal commanding the respective squadrons, consists of 14 vessels: the Kearsarge, Lackawanna, Ossipee, Mohican, Resaca, Cyane, Jamestown, Saginaw, Dakota, Saranac, Nyack, Onward, and the Guerriere, with the Pensacola as flagship; mounting in all 129 guns.

A ship-of-war has been stationed on the coast of Alaska since that country was ceded to us, and the sloop-of-war Cyane, with a properly-equipped steam-launch, has also been sent there, as additional force during the winter.

An astronomical party was conveyed to Behring Strait in the Mohican, and an interesting account of their observations will be found in the report of the Superintendent of the Naval Observatory.

The rear-admiral commanding the station visited the Sandwich Islands during the summer, for the purpose of communication with our minister, and looking after American interests in that locality. He was also charged with the superintendence and completion of the surveys of the Midway Islands, for which and for the purpose of removing obstructions Congress made an appropriation at its last session.

The naval operations on the Pacific for the year will be found to have been well performed, covering the extent from Alaska to Cape Horn, and including the islands of the Pacific.

The trade on that ocean is constantly and rapidly increasing, and American citizens are found located everywhere on its shores and among its islands. All the groups are visited by whalers, and many Christian missionaries, who are entitled to the protection of the Government, are scattered among them. The regions of the South Pacific have not been visited by an American vessel-of-war since the exploring expedition under Captain Wilkes, and the great Polynesian Archipelago, holding out many inducements to our commerce, has been but partially explored and surveyed.

The sloop-of-war Kearsarge was sent to make a limited reconnoissance of the Pacific islands, with orders to extend her cruise as far as Australia, where she was last heard from.

The Jamestown was subsequently sent with orders to visit the Feejee Islands and the Caroline group, for the purpose of investigating reported outrages on American citizens, and looking after the interests of the United States in that quarter.

The European station embraces the Atlantic, with its connecting waters, north of the equator, and as far as the forty-third degree west from Greenwich, and includes the whole west coast of Europe, the Mediterranean and its communicating seas, and the coast of Africa as far as St. Paul de Loando.

The squadron, under command of Rear-Admiral Radford, has been reënforced by the Juniata and Supply, and the Sabine. It consists now of these vessels, with the Richmond and Plymouth, and the Franklin as flagship—six vessels, mounting 106 guns.

The Asiatic station embraces the eastern coast of Asia, around to Hindostan, and thence to the Cape of Good Hope, taking in Java, Sumatra, Borneo, the Philippine Islands, Japan, and the waters of Western and Southern Asia and Western Africa.

The squadron consists of the Piscataqua (flagship), Oneida, Monocacy, Iroquois, Ashuelot, Unadilla, and Maumee, and the Benicia, Colorado, and Alaska, are also fitting out for that station—making in all 10 ships, mounting 72 guns. It is commanded by Rear-Admiral Stephen C. Rowan. Three of these ships were condemned as entirely unseaworthy, unfit for cruising, except in rivers, and unsafe to be sent to the United States; and, as there was no opportunity of repairing them in those waters, the admiral in command recommended that they be sold on the station. The Department, therefore, directed that, when it shall be no longer possible to use them with safety, their armament and stores be removed and sent home, and the vessels themselves sold to the best advantage. This order has been carried out in the case of the Aroostook, which was also condemned.

During the civil war in Japan the presence of our war-vessels was felt to produce a very beneficial effect. Carefully observing a neutral policy themselves, they gave security to American citizens and prevented much threatened

injury to American interests. Rear-Admiral Rowan was directed to afford every facility at his command to citizens who are endeavoring to obtain from the Chinese Government permission to lay an electric telegraph. Should they obtain the desired permission, an officer was to be detailed to represent the United States in the undertaking.

The state of the active force of the Navy, and the service which it has rendered during the year, are shown in the preceding statements. The views of the Government relative to the future of this arm of national defence are stated in the report of the head of this Department. He says:

The time has come, I think, when we should begin to use the knowledge we have been seeking, and I therefore earnestly urge the propriety of commencing at once the building of seagoing iron-clads, suitable to cruise on foreign stations, and able to protect our commerce and vindicate our principles in any emergency. We should aim to have one or more of these ships on each foreign station, and to be prepared with the necessary reliefs. This will ultimately require no less than ten in all; and, without attempting to build them all at once, we should (admonished of the urgency of the case and of the time necessarily consumed in their construction) commence immediately on no less than four—one for the Asiatic, one for the Pacific, and two for the European squadron; following these, as rapidly as circumstances will admit, with those necessary for the other squadrons and their reliefs. I recommend that plans for the boilers and engines of these vessels be submitted by persons outside of the navy, the best of which may be adopted.

These, with some additions to our wooden vessels and the refitting on the plan adopted, and the proper employment of such effective ships as we now have, and with our monitors and torpedoes for harbor defence, will give us the nucleus of a navy—not, indeed, proportioned to our commerce or approaching the force of other maritime powers, but sufficient to command respect abroad, and to afford time, in case of sudden war, to organize and apply the resources of our country and the energies of our people.

During the year a torpedo corps was established under the Bureau of Ordnance, to make experiments, take charge of the apparatus, and perfect a system for the application of this means of defence to the coasts and harbors.

Enough experiments have already been made to show how valuable, as well as terrible, is this means of defence; and to convince all having knowledge of it that when it shall have been further perfected, and its use systematized, the torpedo will be one of the most effective weapons of marine warfare. The torpedo corps has been selected with care, and the experiments are conducted under the supervision of an officer of scientific ability. As soon as a torpedo is constructed, and the particular locality and manner of its use determined, it can be stowed away as an inexpensive but most effective weapon of war.

This means of defence, properly applied in conjunction with a system of harbor obstructions, backed by monitors and supported by the forts and water batteries which command the narrow entrances to the principal harbors, would defy any power which could cross the ocean to attack them.

These localities have been the subject of careful inspection by both branches of the military service, and both are thus prepared with the knowledge which only actual inspection can give.

There are seven regularly-established navy-yards, of which only four are capable of fitting out more than two or three vessels at a time. A board was appointed during the year to make an examination of their condition, which presented a very complete and instructive report to the Department.

The number of men in the service last year was 8,000. The estimates of the present year are made on a basis of 12,000. The expenditures during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, were $20,000,757.

During the year a board of officers was convened by order of the Department, to take into consideration the subject of assimilated rank between the officers of the various corps of the Navy. They made a report, which resulted in a bill that was laid before the Naval Committee of the House. The views of the Secretary on the subject, expressed in a letter to that Committee, were as follows:

It will be perceived that its provisions for the benefit of the various auxiliary corps of the Navy, while they are considerably more liberal than those of the bill which passed the Senate at the last session, do not include so great a number of officers in the higher grades as was agreed to by the Board of Officers, nor even so many as are suggested in the letter of the vice-admiral. This is a question of much personal interest, and calculated to excite considerable feeling; and he has hesitated long before differing in this point from so many experienced officers, but he felt that their views had been somewhat influenced by deference to the claims of individuals, and a desire to compromise a much-vexed and difficult question. While he was not authorized to yield for such reasons what seemed to him in this respect to be for the public good, he has been constrained, while recommending a much larger number of pay medical and engineer officers of the higher grades than was provided by the Senate bill, at the same time to reduce the number reported by the Board, believing the number to be larger than a fair adjustment of public or personal claims requires or will allow. The bill proposed by him gives the auxiliary corps twenty-eight captains in all, certainly a full proportion; also forty-five commanders ranking with lieutenant-colonels, which, with the thirty-one officers of higher grades, gives them seventy-six officers ranking with or above lieutenant-colonel in the Army. He has retained in the bill eight chief engineers and constructors of machinery, in view of the number required at the various navy-yards and stations, and also followed the recommendation of the Board in regard to officers on the retired list, as this seemed to manifest a proper respect for seniority and confer suitable reward for long-continued service, without doing injury to anybody. The Board made no recommendations in regard to the rank of assistant and past-assistant surgeons, paymasters, and engineers, and he recommends that this remain as it is now fixed by law—namely, with and next after lieutenants and with and next after masters. He has substantially followed the recommendations of the Board in regard to the precedence of the executive officer, because it seemed to him clearly right and necessary to discipline and efficiency. The recommendation of the Board and the bill proposed that this officer shall, as far as practicable, be next in line

of rank to the commanding officer, and confine his precedence to the officers attached to the organization of which he is the representative head, while they are in the discharge of his duty connected with such organization. In addition to other features, the bill recommends a reduction of officers of the marine corps, as well as a change in the proportions and a reduction of the number of line officers of the Navy. Thus, he has recommended a large reduction in the number of lieutenant-commanders and an increase of lieutenants; a diminution of the number of ensigns and an enlargement of the number of masters—endeavoring at once to promote a wise economy and to bear constantly in mind the actual necessity of the service, and the best method of insuring its efficiency.

The Board of Visitors to the Naval Academy at Annapolis made a report of much interest. It stated that the Board assembled on the 20th of May, and attended all the public exercises of the midshipmen. They carefully observed the general tone, bearing, and air of all connected with the institution, in all exercises and at all hours, whether on or off duty; examined into the condition of the grounds, buildings, vessels, apparatus, and appurtenances of all kinds, for evidence as to the thoroughness and vigor of its government. Since the late war the grounds have been enlarged, both by purchase and by filling upon the water-front. The chapel, new quarters, and several other buildings, have been erected. The former residence of the Governors of Maryland has been purchased and converted into a commodious library and superintendent's offices, and the grounds have been greatly improved. In whatever respect it is viewed, the institution exhibits clearly the effects of the interest Vice-Admiral Porter has felt in it, and of his very vigorous and able administration of its affairs.

Upon the inauguration of President Grant, he appointed Adolphe E. Borie, of Philadelphia, Secretary of the Navy, who held the position until June 25th, when he resigned, and was succeeded by George M. Robeson, of New Jersey.

Perhaps it may not be out of place to mention here the boat-race on the river Thames, in England, in which the competitors were students of Harvard College, Massachusetts, and Oxford University, England. The course was from Putney to Mortlake, on the Thames. It has been the scene of annual contest between students of Cambridge and Oxford for many years, with the following results:

Year.	Winner.	Course.	Time.	Won by.
1860..	Cam'ge.	Putney to Mortlake.	26m.	A length.
1861..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	23m. 27s.	48s.
1862..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	24m. 40s.	30s.
1863..	Oxford.	Mortlake to Putney.	25m. 45s.	42s.
1864..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	21m. 48s.	23s.
1865..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	21m. 23s.	13s.
1866..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	25m. 48s.	15s.
1867..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	22m. 39s.	Half l'gth.

The race took place on August 27th, and the Oxford crew were the winners by a length and a half—just 6 seconds. Time 22m. 41½ sec.

NEBRASKA. One of the central States of the American Union, having the Missouri River for its eastern and northeastern boundary, Dakota on the north, Wyoming on the west, and Kansas on the south. Area, 79,995 square miles, or 48,636,800 square acres. Population estimated at 100,000. Capital, Lincoln, Lancaster County. Real estate, in round numbers, $13,000,000. Personal property, $28,000,000. Annual product of skilled and unskilled labor for 1869, $18,000,000. For some years after the establishment of its Territorial government, Nebraska made a very slow growth, its sister Territory, Kansas, for a variety of reasons, attracting most of the immigration. It was not till the commencement of the Pacific Railroad in 1862–'63, that its active development commenced. In 1860 it had a population of only 28,842, and at the beginning of 1862 probably even a smaller number. Since the work of construction was actually commenced on the great trans-continental railway, the growth of the Territory (a State since February, 1867) has been steady and rapid, not only along the line of the railway, but in other sections of the State; and this growth is likely to continue and increase, from the rare advantages which it offers to immigrants in climate, soil, admixture of timber and prairie lands, and accessibility to good markets through its completed and projected lines of railway. Omaha, its principal town, though not now its capital, has had a wonderful growth, and, as the starting-point of the Union Pacific Railroad, must be a place of large business, and probably one of the most considerable cities created by that great thoroughfare. Its population, according to an enumeration made in 1869, exceeds 25,000, and is rapidly increasing, from the extensive business brought there by the Pacific road and other enterprises.

The State is for the most part well watered, not, indeed, with navigable streams, but with rivers which fertilize its soil, and add greatly to the beauty of its scenery and to its manufacturing facilities. The Nebraska, or Platte, with its northern and southern forks, divides the State from west to east into two slightly-unequal parts, discharging its waters into the Missouri, which, as we have already said, forms the entire eastern and northeastern boundary of the State. Besides the Platte, there are in Northern Nebraska two other important affluents of the Missouri, the Niobrara, called by the French *Eau qui court*, "the water that leaps," and the White Earth River. South of the Platte are the Great and Little Nemaha, and the two important tributaries of the Kansas River, the Big and Little Blue, while, farther west, we have the Republican Fork of the Kansas, a stream hardly inferior to the Kansas itself. To these are also to be added the larger affluents of the Nebraska or Platte itself, the Elkhorn, Loup Fork, Carrey's Fork, and Wood River, all fine, large streams. These and their numerous tributaries, with the abundant springs and branches which are found all over the State, make it any thing but a waterless desert, as a portion of it has been described. When it was the home

of the Omahas, the Sioux, and other Indian tribes, and the buffaloes in large herds roamed over its vast plateaus and prairies, the grass was burned almost every season, and the forest-trees were thus prevented from growing, except in the river valleys; but, with the checking of this practice, the trees are springing up over large districts of the as yet uncultivated prairie, and are causing a greater humidity of the climate. The settlers of the State are also planting forest-trees in large numbers.

The soil of Nebraska is very rich and arable. A fine vegetable mould, porous and friable, covers most of the surface, to the depth of two or three feet, and below it is a light and easily-cultivated loam. Beds of disintegrating limestone, plaster, and other lime and sand stones are to be found in different parts of the State. Quarries of excellent building-stone, limestone, magnesian limestone and brown sandstone abound. Southern Nebraska is underlaid, for the greater part of its extent, with coal of the best quality, at a depth never exceeding 500 feet, while the veins crop out near the surface.

Perhaps no State in the Union has so small a proportion of untillable land. There are a few patches of drift-sand and a small tract of what the French called the Bad Lands (*Mauvaises Terres*) in the western part of the State, but even these will yield moderate crops if irrigated. Much of the land is admirably adapted to the growth of cereals; wheat, in particular, yielding from 25 to 30 bushels to the acre, and of a quality so excellent that Nebraska wheat commands a better price in the markets than that grown in any other of the prairie States. Maize, or Indian-corn, is also a crop which will generally yield good returns. The western portion of the State, being considerably higher than the eastern, is a fine grazing-country, and immense herds of cattle from Texas, the Indian Territory, and Kansas, are already driven to its rich and nutritious pasture-lands, to be shipped, when fattened, eastward.

This young State is destined soon to be traversed in all directions by railroads. The Union Pacific Railroad, following, after the first few miles, the valley of the Platte, bisects the State from east to west, almost five hundred miles of its track being within the limits of the State, and furnishing ready communication with all its central counties. From Omaha, railroads extend to Chicago, to Sioux City, to St. Joseph, Mo., to St. Louis, to Hannibal, Mo., to Atchison and Leavenworth, Kansas, and other points south of that city. There are also already completed in the State, a road from Missouri Valley Junction, Iowa, to Fremont, called the Blair cut-off, on the Union Pacific, 37 miles in length, and shortening the distance from the Missouri River to the Union Pacific Railroad about 21 miles; the central branch of the Union Pacific, starting from Atchison, Kansas, and entering Nebraska in the valley of the Republican Fork, and pushing on toward Fort Kearney. It is now completed nearly to the State line. Of the projected or partly completed roads, one line will connect the Pennsylvania Central, through Iowa, across the Missouri at Nebraska City, along the valleys of the Weeping Water and the Wauhoo with the existing great line across the continent. A branch will run from Ashland up the valley of Salt Creek to Lincoln. This road is now in progress, and is to be in operation west to Ashland and Lincoln by the 1st of March, 1870. An extension of the Burlington and Missouri road will cross the Missouri at Plattsmouth, and thence continue through Lincoln westward to some point on the Union Pacific. It is now partly graded, and will be running to Lincoln early in the Spring of 1870. An extension of the Hannibal and St. Joseph Railroad is to cut diagonally across the whole State of Nebraska, passing through Lincoln, across the Union Pacific at Columbus, and eventually over the northwestern section of the State, to the extreme northern boundary-line at the mouth of the Niobrara River. Another line is to cross the Missouri at Brownville and continue on to the Pacific road at a point as far west as may be deemed desirable. Then there are lines projected west from Omaha, and along part of the valley of the Elkhorn into Northern Nebraska.

The State has granted 2,000 acres of land to the mile, to all new railroads, until the lands set apart for that purpose, 425,000 acres, shall be exhausted.

Large and bountiful provision has been made for the encouragement of education in the State, university, college, normal school, and public school lands being granted liberally. A normal school was founded at Peru, Nemaha County, in 1867, and is prospering. The Legislature in February, 1869, passed a very elaborate school law, covering all points of public-school education in its ninety-five sections. It provides for a State School Superintendent, county superintendents, who shall examine the teachers, granting certificates in three grades of attainment, and visit and superintend the schools of the county; and District Boards of three members, serving three years (one to go out of office each year), districts of over 150 children having six trustees in their Board. The district Board to have under their charge the assessment of the school-tax (all schools to be free), the erection of school-houses, and the providing for the schools. The District Boards to be elected by the tax-payers of the district, male and female, over twenty-one years of age. The County Superintendent to be elected by the legal voters of the county, and to hold office for two years. The State Superintendent to be elected at a general election, and hold office four years. Provision was made for holding Teachers' Institutes of high grade, in different sections of the State, besides the

county institutes, to be held by the County Superintendents under the supervision of the State Superintendent, who was also required to apportion school moneys, decide upon the text-books to be used, compile and distribute the school laws and acts relating to school lands, lecture at the Teachers' Institutes, make out an elaborate and complete report of the condition of the schools of the State each year, and perform such other duties as his position required.

There were no elections held in the State during the year 1869, for members of Congress, a Legislature, or State officers. The Legislature was in session at its new capital, and passed a number of excellent acts which cannot fail to promote the future interests of the State. The most important of these, after the school law already referred to, were:

1. An election law, the 29th and 30th sections of which define who may be an elector and how he shall vote; while the 46th makes the only reservation in regard to disqualification of voters. It will be seen that insane persons and idiots are not by this act excluded from suffrage, though this defect is remedied in the registration act. The sections named are as follows:

SECTION 29. Every male citizen of the United States and he who, in accordance with the laws of the United States, files his declaration of intention to become such, and who has attained the age of twenty-one years, and shall have been an actual resident of this State for six months, of the county forty days consecutively, and of the precinct or ward where he intends to vote, ten days next preceding the election, shall be entitled to vote at any election in this State, and the registrars of the several counties in this State, in determining the residence of a person offering to be registered, shall be governed by the following rules so far as the same may be applicable:

1. That place shall be considered and held to be the residence of a person in which his habitation is fixed without any present intention of moving therefrom, and to which, whenever he is absent, he has the intention of returning.

2. A person shall not be considered or held to have lost his residence who shall leave his home and go into another State or Territory, or county of this State, for temporary purposes merely, with the intention of returning, provided that six months' consecutive residence in this State shall be necessary to establish a residence within the meaning of this act.

3. A person shall not be considered and held to have gained a residence in any county of this State into which he shall have come for temporary purposes merely, without the intention of making it his residence.

4. If a person remove to another State or Territory intending to make it his permanent residence, he shall be considered and held to have lost his residence in this State.

5. If a person remove to another State or Territory intending to remain there for an indefinite time, and as a place of present residence, he shall be considered and held to have lost his residence in this State, notwithstanding he may intend to return at some future period.

6. The place where a married man's family resides, shall generally be considered and held to be his residence; but if it is a place of temporary establishment only or for transient purposes, it shall be otherwise.

7. If a married man have his family fixed in one place, and he does his business in another, the former shall be considered and held to be the place of residence.

8. The mere intention to acquire a new residence, without the fact of removal, shall avail nothing, nor shall the fact of removal, without intention.

9. If a person shall go into another State or Territory, and while there shall exercise the right of a citizen, by voting, he shall be considered and held to have lost his residence in this State.

SEC. 30. Each elector shall, in full view of the people assembled at the polls where he offers to vote, deliver in person to one of the judges of election, a single ballot, or piece of paper, on which shall be written or printed the names of the persons voted for, with a pertinent description of the office which he or they may be intended to fill.

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SEC. 46. Every person who shall be convicted and sentenced to be punished by imprisonment in the penitentiary, as herein provided for, or who shall be convicted of, and sentenced for bribery, under the provision of this act, shall be deemed forever after incompetent to be an elector, or to hold any office of honor, trust, or profit, within this State, unless such convict shall receive from the Governor of the State a general pardon, under his hand and the seal of the State, in which case said convict shall be restored to all his civil rights and privileges. No person who shall have been, or who shall hereafter be convicted of any crime in any court of record in the United States, punishable by imprisonment in the State prison or penitentiary of any State or Territory in the United States, or of the United States, shall be eligible to, and is hereby prohibited and disqualified from holding any public office of honor, trust, or emolument, either by appointment or the suffrage of the people within this State, and any person so as aforesaid convicted is hereby disqualified from exercising the right of the elective franchise at any election held in this State, except he produce a full and complete pardon for the offence from proper authority.

2. A registration act, providing for a careful and just registration of voters, before each election, and declaring suitable penalties for fraudulent voting or the violation of its provisions by judges of elections.

3. An amendment of the marriage act providing for marriage licenses and a strict registration of marriages in the Probate Courts.

4. A new law preventing in the more densely-settled counties the running at large of stock, a great evil in all the newer States. The act was intended also to encourage the setting of hedge-rows, live fence, and forest-trees, by requiring that the party complaining of the trespass of stock upon his lands must have constructed a hedge-row not less than ten feet wide on all sides of the land which he desired protected, the first year in which he claimed such protection, and every year subsequently, set out not less than four rods of live fence and ten trees for every acre of land protected.

NESMITH, JOHN, one of the most enterprising and successful of New England manufacturers, born at Londonderry, N. H., August 8, 1793; died October 15, 1869. Mr. Nesmith commenced life a poor boy, and had only the common advantages of education at that time. At fourteen years of age he was placed in a country store, and served an apprenticeship of five years, after which, in connection with his brother Thomas, he went into business for himself. As soon as their cash capital and en-

larged credit would warrant the adventure, the brothers removed to New York and built up an extensive and highly-remunerative trade. In 1831, foreseeing the future importance of Lowell, Mass., as a manufacturing centre, they settled in that place, invested largely in real-estate, and identified themselves with every measure calculated to advance the growth and prosperity of the home of their adoption. Mr. Nesmith's peculiar tastes and talents soon enlisted him in the manufacture of blankets, flannels, printing-cloths, sheeting, and other textile fabrics, and from thenceforth that was his principal pursuit. He became agent for, or as owner was interested in, mills at Lowell, Dracut, Chelmsford, Hookset, and other places, and managed all those enterprises with almost unvarying success. In the celebrated Merrimack Woollen Mills Company he was a large stockholder. Appreciating more than any other man, the natural advantages of the water-power which has made Lowell what she is, he bethought himself of securing the supply of water in Winnipiseogee and Squam Lakes, in New Hampshire, as reservoirs for the Lowell mills in dry seasons, and letting it into the Merrimack by artificial channels. This brilliant conception was at first scouted as impracticable by manufacturers along the river; but Mr. Nesmith, satisfied that they would at last require the additional water, bought the right to use both those lakes for the purpose named, and the manufacturers were before long obliged to purchase it from him. Mr. Nesmith was the first to discern the natural fitness of the site now occupied by the flourishing city of Lawrence, on the Merrimack, for a manufacturing point, and made heavy purchases of lands there on both sides of the river, securing also the necessary charter to control the water-power. About 1844 his bold scheme attracted the attention that it deserved from Boston capitalists, and factories began to rise at Lawrence as if by magic, and that city has since most amply vindicated the wisdom of its real founder. While Mr. Nesmith was carrying on these multifarious and arduous undertakings, he devoted odd hours to philosophical and mechanical studies, in which he became much more than an amateur. Several of his discoveries and inventions were of great importance and value—among others the well-known machinery for making wire-fence and shawl-fringe. Though naturally averse to mingling in politics, and never stooping to the arts by which popularity is often won, he was elected to various offices in the city government of Lowell, where his sound, practical sense and extraordinary business capacity were acknowledged and prized by his fellow-citizens without distinction of party. He was presidential elector in the college which chose Mr. Lincoln for both terms, was Lieutenant-Governor of Massachusetts in 1862, declined a reëlection in 1863, and was afterward appointed United States collector of internal revenue for his district, which office he filled ably and acceptably until his resignation, twenty days before his death. His attachment to the principles of his party was that of the moralist rather than the partisan, and he never ceased to command the respect of his political opponents. The temperance cause in Massachusetts early engaged his hearty support and liberal contributions, and he was for some time a vice-president of the State Alliance. From the large fortune acquired by his tact and industry, he made generous donations to many objects of charity and benevolence which won upon his sympathy, and was invariably hospitable and kind to his friends and neighbors. In his domestic relations he was especially tender and affectionate. His will made handsome provision for the foundation of a "Nesmith Fund" for the aid, support, education, and maintenance of the indigent blind of New Hampshire, and also a public park in the town of Franklin in that State. The secrets of Mr. Nesmith's career may easily be found not more in his high mental endowments than in his unflagging industry, his indomitable perseverance, his strict integrity, and the concentration of all his faculties and energies upon the successive objects in hand, and those temperate and well-ordered habits of life, which, down to its close, preserved his mind in all its youthful strength and buoyancy. He offered a rare illustration of what an active intellect may accomplish, aided by courage and fixity of purpose, and animated by principles of truth, justice, and honor.

NETHERLANDS, The, a kingdom in Europe. King, William III., born February 19, 1817; succeeded his father, March 17, 1849. Area, 13,890 English square miles; population (according to the calculation of the Royal Statistical Bureau), at the close of 1867, 3,592,416; * on December 31, 1868, 3,628,468. The population of the large cities, in 1868, was as follows: Amsterdam, 271,764; Rotterdam, 118,837; the Hague, 90,058. The population of the Dutch colonies was, in 1867, as follows: East Indies, 20,523,742; West Indies, 84,486; coast of Guiana, about 120,000; total, 20,728,228. In the Dutch East Indies there was, in 1867, a European population of 35,845 (of whom 28,941 were born in the colonies); exclusive of 11,873 soldiers and their descendants (1,013). The number of Chinese in the same colonies was 248,347. The budget for 1869 fixes the expenditures at 96,657,781 guilders, and the receipts at 97,181,006 guilders. The public debt, in 1869, was 967,708,913 guilders. The army, in 1869, consisted of 61,775 men; the army in the East India colonies, of 26,922 men. The fleet, on July 1, 1869, consisted of 131 vessels, with 1,303 guns. The imports, in 1867, amounted to 439,030,000 guilders, and the exports to 450,220,000 guilders. The merchant navy, on December 31,

* The results of official censuses from 1829 to 1859.

1867, consisted of 2,159 vessels, together of 510,455 tons. The movement of shipping, in 1867, was as follows:

FLAG.	ARRIVALS.		CLEARANCES.	
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Vessels.	Tonnage.
Dutch.....	3,268	599,087	3,267	626,087
Foreign.....	5,351	1,440,253	5,395	1,495,955
Total.....	8,609	2,039,310	8,752	2,121,992

The Scheldt, at its *embouchure* in the North Sea, is divided into two main branches called the East and the West Scheldt; the space between them, which is traversed by other less important branches of the river, is occupied by the islands of North Beveland and Walcheren—everywhere below the level of the sea, and protected by dikes against the surrounding waters—forming a part of the Province of Zealand. On the East Scheldt, between the island of South Beveland and North Brabant, an important embankment has been formed to carry the Bergen-op-Zoom and Flushing Railway, which unites the latter with the Continental system. The river here is two and a half miles wide; it is subject to all the fluctuations of the ocean, from which it is only a few leagues distant, and yet, in the face of these adverse circumstances, the embankment has been formed in three months. It was commenced in February, 1867, and the works of consolidation and completion have occupied the remaining period. The railway was inaugurated in January, 1869, with much ceremony. The embankment is more than 12,000 feet long, and the quantity of materials consumed amounted to 123 tons per metre, or 500,000 tons in all. The embankment was commenced by laying fascines on the bed of the river; upon this foundation the ballast was thrown, and the whole is protected by solid masonry. The embankment is ten metres in width, and rises five metres above ordinary high-water mark. It was a bold idea thus to make a narrow causeway from two to three miles long between what may almost be called two seas, and the result seems to be satisfactory. At low-water a curious spectacle is presented: the retreating sea leaves the bed of the river almost dry on one side of the embankment, while on the other the water is heaped up and kept back by this artificial barrier. The construction of this railway duct having cut off the means of communication with the Meuse, a canal has been cut for the navigation. This canal is six miles and a quarter in length, and traverses the island of South Beveland between Hansweert and Wemeldange; it is of sufficient width and depth for the largest merchant-vessels. The railway is carried over this canal by means of a swing-bridge.

The Government of the Netherlands is projecting a ship-canal which is to cut though the isthmus of North Holland, and will convert the city of Amsterdam into a North Sea port. Two piers, each 5,000 feet long, are being projected into the sea to form a harbor of refuge, to embrace an area of 7,200 acres. About 1,000 yards inland will be the basin, which is to form the entrance to the canal. It will be 26 feet deep and 197 feet wide—exceeding the dimensions of the Suez Canal. It will be carried through the midst of a sheet of water, or inland lake, the Wyker Meer, which will be dammed up, along with the river, which is so called from the shape of its course (Y), and afterward pumped dry and converted into pasture-land. The cost of these vast works will amount to 27,000,000 florins, and it will be completed in 1876.

NEVADA, a State of the American Union, lying on the Pacific slope, or rather between the Sierra Nevada and the Rocky Mountains, having California on the West and Utah on the East, Oregon and Idaho at the North, and California and New Mexico at the South. Its area is now settled as 112,090 square miles. Its population was estimated in 1869 at 60,000. Carson City is its capital, but Virginia City is the largest town. The assessed value of real estate in the autumn of 1868 was in round numbers $15,000,000, and of personal estate $10,000,000. The manufacturing capital of the State at that time was about $2,500,000, but has since materially increased. The amount of capital invested in quartz-mills, stamping and crushing machines, and smelting-works for the reduction of ores, is over $12,000,000. The great Comstock lode, the most productive of the silver lodes in the State has produced over $80,000,000 since its first opening; its present annual yield is about $16,000,000, and when the great Sutro tunnel which is in progress is completed, cutting the lode, as it will, about 3,000 feet below the mouth of the highest of the present shafts, and effectually draining it, the production must be vastly increased. The mines in the White Pine region, of which some account was given in the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868, continue to prove largely productive, though the great elevation (about 8,000 feet) and the coldness and barrenness of the region make it an undesirable place for a civilized being to live in. What is known as the Base Metal-range in that vicinity, but at a less altitude (two or three miles west of Treasure City), has given indications of lodes equally rich with those of the Eberhardt mine. The Reveille district, 125 miles south of White Pine, in Nye County, is also attracting attention. The ore taken from this lode has assayed over $2,000 to the ton. The Eureka district in the Diamond range, east of the White Pine, on both sides of the Humboldt River, produces ores assaying $1,300 to the ton. All these ores have the same general character. They are mostly chlorides of silver, of the class known as horn silver, and can be reduced easily and unexpensively. The southern portion of Nevada has been but little explored,

and, except for its possible yield of the precious metals, is not a desirable region. The whole State has an altitude of 4,000 feet or more above the sea-level, but most of it forms a part of the great Utah Basin. Except the Virgin River and a few other inconsiderable streams in the South, which flow into the Colorado and thus into the Gulf of California, and some mere rivulets which fall into the Owyhee in the north, all the streams of the State fall into lakes or sinks within the boundaries of the Basin. Some of these are very remarkable—Lake Mono, one of them, fourteen miles long and nine miles wide, is another Dead Sea, whose waters are so acrid and nauseating as to be unfit for drinking, and deadly to all animal life. None but the strongest winds can move its heavy waters, and it is surrounded by a region completely sterile and desolate. The Pyramid Lake, so finely described by Fremont and afterward by the explorers for a Pacific Railroad site, is also in the State. Large tracts of land in the State are covered to a considerable depth with a pure salt, and still larger ones with the alkaline salts, so annoying and distressing to the traveller. It has been ascertained however, within the past year, that by irrigation, whether from Artesian wells or from the mountain-streams, these alkaline lands can be made to produce excellent crops of wheat and other grains. Hitherto not much attention has been paid to agriculture; but much of the land is well adapted to grazing, and the nutritious bunch-grass will grow even where the land seems most sterile. The valleys of the streams are skirted with considerable quantities of valuable timber, and are very fertile. Most of the fruits of the Eastern States do well, especially in the river valleys. Though Nevada can hardly become an exporter of agricultural products to any great extent, it is not improbable that within a few years she may raise a sufficiency for the supply of her own rapidly-increasing population. The climate of Nevada is generally healthful, and is specially commended, for its dry and bracing properties, to invalids of consumptive tendencies. The more mountainous sections are cold, and snow lies long upon them, but for the most part the winter is mild, and the summer not so hot as in the same latitudes in California.

During the year 1869 there were no elections in the State either for Legislature, State, or national officers. The Legislature, which consisted, in the Senate, of 16 Republicans and 3 Democrats, and in the House of 35 Republicans and 3 Democrats, met on the first Monday in January, 1869. Its legislation was not of special interest. The State debt is about $390,000, and includes bonds issued for the erection of a State Insane Asylum. The Legislature ratified the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States on the 1st of March, 1869.

For a new and sparsely-populated State, Nevada has made very creditable provision for education. Its public-school system is well organized and very efficient. It has received from the United States Government 3,661,680 acres of land for educational purposes, and these are carefully husbanded and sold only to actual settlers, on such terms as will eventually give her a very large school fund.

NEW HAMPSHIRE. The first nominating State conventions of the year were held in New Hampshire. The Republican delegates from various parts of the State assembled in response to a call of the General Committee of the party, in Concord, on the 7th of January. The Governor of the State, Walter Harriman, presided, and opened the convention with a speech, in which he congratulated the party for the triumphs of the past, and urged it to earnest effort for the future. Onslow Stearns, of Concord, was unanimously nominated for Governor, and Mr. Samuel D. Quarles, of Ossipee, for Railroad Commissioner. Congressional conventions were held the same day, and Jacob H. Ela was nominated for representative from the first district, Aaron F. Stevens from the second district, and Jacob Benton from the third. The State Republican Committee for the year was organized by the choice of E. H. Rollins as chairman, and Wyman Pattie, of Enfield, as secretary. The platform of the party, as adopted at the Concord Convention, was contained in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the Republicans of New Hampshire, through their delegates in convention assembled, congratulate the loyal people of the country upon the recent glorious triumph of liberty, loyalty, and peace, in the election of Grant and Colfax. On the one side stand arrayed those who had been in armed rebellion against the Union, their Northern sympathizers, who, as far as they dared, had promoted the rebellion, and every man who wished to glorify the lost cause, to force again into political power the worst enemies of the country, and to revive anew the spirit of the rebellion and fan its flames into another civil war. On the other side were marshalled all patriotic citizens, who had sustained every measure designed to put down the rebellion, and were determined that those who had saved should control the nation, and thus make another rebellion impossible. Nine-tenths of the brave soldiers who fought under the stars and stripes rallied under the Republican banner, and declared that Union soldiers, and not rebel leaders, should stand foremost in the redeemed republic. By the combined assaults of Union citizens and soldiers the revolutionary platform of the New York Convention and all its supporters were defeated and utterly destroyed; and, as in Grant's triumph at Appomattox, so, by his election as President, was achieved a victory of the Union, the Constitution, and American liberty, over rebellion, oppression, and the worst forms of despotism.

Resolved, That the people expect and require, as the result of the election, that a patriotic President and a radical Congress shall put an end to the murders of Southern Unionists for no other offence than that of being Republicans and laboring for General Grant's election, and shall discover, arrest, and punish their murderers by military power, if necessary, and that they shall maintain to the fullest extent the right of suffrage to the loyal black man, and continue the disfranchisement of desperate and dangerous rebels, and enact and enforce martial law throughout the South until freedom of speech, of the press, and of political action, shall be secured to every citizen,

white or black; of Northern or of Southern birth, on every foot of Southern soil which has been conquered and dedicated anew to freedom by the valor of the soldiers of the Union.

Resolved, That we are in favor of impartial suffrage for all loyal citizens in the election of members of Congress and presidential electors, and we call upon Congress to secure it by enacting the necessary laws, or by sending to the Legislatures of the States the necessary constitutional amendment.

Resolved, That the very existence of republican institutions is endangered by frauds upon the ballot-box like those by which the electoral vote of the State of New York was wrested from Grant and Colfax and recorded for Seymour and Blair, and that it is the duty of Congress to investigate such frauds, to cause them to be punished, and to enact laws to prevent their future perpetration.

Resolved, That it is the duty of the Republicans of New Hampshire, by a majority on the 9th of March, equal to their unprecedented majority in November, to express their confidence in the Administration of General Grant, and their determination to sustain him in carrying out the principles vindicated by his election, and in endeavoring to economize, purify, and reform the public service, and restore peace and prosperity to the country.

Resolved, That the people have emphatically declared the inviolability and sacredness of the national debt incurred to save the Union, and that they will tolerate no form or device of repudiation; that, for the purpose of lightening the heavy burden of this indebtedness and of restoring the business of the country to a sound basis, the Government should adopt all possible means to make the paper dollar of the United States worth a dollar in gold, and to fund the outstanding obligations of the Government in new bonds bearing a lower rate of interest.

Resolved, That the people unmistakably demand the utmost economy in the administration of their State and national Governments; that all offices made unnecessary by the termination of the war shall be abolished; that all incompetent and corrupt public officers shall be driven out; that only the most limited and imperatively necessary appropriations shall be made for internal improvements, and that the taxation laws shall be revised and modified so as to assure the utmost fairness and justice in the imposition of their burdens.

Resolved, That the interests of New Hampshire require that the earnest attention of its people, of its Legislature, and of the public men, should be directed toward a fuller development of all the resources of the State, of its agriculture, of its mines, and of its manufactures. With the great West constantly increasing its agricultural products, and with the South opened to free labor and to manufactures heretofore excluded, it will be necessary to the continued growth of the New England States that they shall husband and develop their natural resources to the fullest possible extent. To this end we demand liberal legislation to encourage the investment of foreign capital in New Hampshire, the continued progress of our railroads within the State attended with economical management, the cheapest possible fares and freights, and the extension of every possible encouragement to all attempts at the improvement and development of the many natural resources of the State.

Resolved, That we cordially indorse the administration of his Excellency, Governor Harriman; his devotion to the best interests of the State, his efforts for its development, his patriotism as a citizen, as a soldier, and a Governor, merit and will receive the lasting gratitude of the people of New Hampshire.

Resolved, That we present with the utmost union and harmony our candidates for the coming election, Onslow Stearns for Governor, and Jacob H. Ela, Aaron F. Stevens, and Jacob Benton, for reëlection to Congress. We challenge criticism upon their character and fitness for the positions for which they are presented. We have faith in their integrity, their ability, and their patriotism. As the candidates of their choice, the Republicans of New Hampshire propose to elect them by overwhelming majorities.

The Democratic Convention met at Concord on the 20th of January, and selected Ira E. Eastman, of Concord, as its chairman. General John Bedel, of Bath, was nominated for the office of Governor, and General Michael T. Donohoe, of Concord, for that of Railroad Commissioner. The following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That the Democratic party of New Hampshire, in convention assembled, declare their adhesion to certain principles by them hitherto maintained, and which, in victory or defeat, they will never surrender: 1. The paramount and binding authority of the Constitution over all departments of Government and all States of the Union to the extent of the powers therein granted. 2. The exemption of every State from any interference or control not clearly warranted by the Constitution. 3. The right of every State to an equal participation in the Government as guaranteed by the Constitution. 4. The separation and proper independence of the Executive, Legislative, and Judicial Departments, as provided by the Constitution. 5. No privileged classes and no privileged capital. 6. An honest and economical administration of the Government for the good of the people, and not in the interest of monopolists, and thieves, and plunderers of the public treasury and the national domain.

Resolved, That, while all existing contracts entered into in good faith should be fully kept in the letter and spirit of the contract, Congress should impose such just and equal taxation upon all Government bonds and United States securities as will compel their holders to bear their just share of the burdens of the Government, and all bonds hereafter issued should be made subject to State and municipal taxation at the same rates as other property.

Resolved, That the Democrats of New Hampshire hereby pledge their earnest and united efforts to insure the election of the candidates this day nominated.

The election occurred on the 9th of March, and resulted in the choice of the Republican ticket. The whole vote cast for Governor was 67,781, of which 35,777 were for Stearns, and for Bedel 32,004, giving the former a majority of 3,773.

The Legislature of the State assembled at Concord on the 2d of June, and remained in session about six weeks. The 15th amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified on the 1st of July, by a strict party vote of 183 yeas to 130 nays in the House. The subject which occupied the attention of the Legislature more prominently than any other was that of railroads. There are now in the State about 750 miles of railroad, which was built and equipped at a cost of $30,000,000. The value of these roads is stated to have depreciated since their construction by nearly forty-five per cent. of their cost. Nothing has been done by the State to encourage its railroad interest, except to pass a law in 1864, enabling towns and cities to appropriate five per cent. of their valuation to aid in the construction of these important public works, and another in 1868 exempting from taxation

for a period of ten years all railroads thereafter constructed. At the time of the meeting of the last Legislature, about 250 miles more were required to complete the roads already begun or projected, and a strong effort was made to obtain direct aid from the State Treasury for this purpose. This, however, was not accomplished, though several new roads were chartered, among them the Concord and Rochester, and the Peterborough and Hillsborough Railroads. A report upon the condition of the Atlantic and St. Lawrence Railroad represented that line, which is the only one in Coos County, to be badly managed and in a very dilapidated condition. The railroads of the State constructed prior to the exempting act of 1868 paid a tax during the year ending June 1, 1869, of $215,615. The railroad from the foot to the summit of Mount Washington was completed in the early part of the summer. This road makes an ascent of 4,500 feet in a distance of a little less than three miles, the grade in some places being thirteen inches to the yard. The car is driven by an engine placed below it on the road, and having a cogged drive-wheel working in a cogged track. It travels at about the rate of three miles (the entire ascent) in an hour.

An act was passed imposing a tax of one per cent. upon the deposits and accumulations of savings-banks, requiring one-half the loans made by such banks to be to individuals and corporations within the State, and forbidding the payment of more than five per cent. interest to depositors. This act was prompted by the fact that the favors formerly granted to savings-banks led capitalists to invest their funds largely in them instead of employing them in other ways. Provision was also made for imposing a tax of one per cent. upon all the premiums of insurance companies not organized under the laws of the State. The general statutes provide for two parades of militia each year, at the expense of the State, but the operation of this provision was suspended for five years. Among the other propositions introduced was one for the formation of two new counties, to be called Amoskeag and Monadnock. Final action on this was postponed until the next session, to allow the people of the towns to be included in the new counties to vote upon the subject of their formation. Several petitions were received asking for an amendment of the constitution, which should allow women to vote.

A law was passed at this session of the Legislature, to establish a State constabulary force, intended particularly "to repress and prevent crime by the suppression of liquor-shops, gambling-places, and houses of ill-fame," subject, however, to the approval of the people at a special election to be held on the second Tuesday in November. This approval was not granted. A large majority was given against it on a small vote.

The entire debt of New Hampshire on the 1st of June was $3,137,000, which shows a reduction of $350,000 from the figures of the previous years. The State tax for the year 1868-'69 amounted to $625,000.

New Hampshire is chiefly an agricultural State, but there is at present a capital of more than $22,500,000 invested in manufactures within the State, about five-sixths of which, however, is owned elsewhere. The annual amount of local taxes paid by these manufacturing corporations is now about $235,000, and they pay out over $6,000,000 per year in wages to operatives.

With regard to the resources of the State yet undeveloped, the Governor in his last message says: "The great amount of the still undeveloped and unimproved resources of our State is not, I think, fully understood by the people. Thousands of acres of uncultivated land await the labor of the husbandman; large forests of valuable timber cover our hill-sides and skirt our valleys; the greater portion of our immense water-power is still unoccupied; while our mineral resources are as yet practically undeveloped."

Henry Adams Bellows, LL. D., of Concord, was appointed, in August, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, in place of Ira Perley, whose term of office had expired by the constitutional limitation of age.

NEW JERSEY. The Legislature, which assembled on Tuesday, the 12th of January, was Democratic in its political complexion, the vote on joint ballot standing 47 to 34. The legislation of the session was principally of local interest only, the chief measures being the postponement to the next legislature of the consideration of the fifteenth amendment, and the abolition of all railroad transit duties, and the substitution therefor of a tax of one-half of one per centum upon the costs of their respective works, including all their property of every description not otherwise taxed, until the Legislature shall, by general law, impose a uniform State tax, equally applicable to all railroad and canal corporations of the State, providing, however, that no company formerly paying transit duties shall pay a less sum as tax to the State than that paid by it for taxes and duties of all kinds for the year 1868.

The finances of the State, as shown by the report of the Treasurer, are in the following condition:

STATE FUND.

Income		$673,908 73
Disbursements	$563,877 54	
Refunded to war fund	93,270 71	
Balance in bank	2,760 48	
		$673,908 73

WAR FUND.

The receipts of the war fund were:

From State tax	$280,000 00
From United States	27,549 45
Refunded from state fund	93,270 71
Balance received 1868	5,012 97
	$413,833 13
The disbursements were	415,833 13

The outstanding indebtedness of the State (war fund) on the 30th November, 1869, was	$3,096,200 00
From which deduct assets in hands of commissioners	1,044,929 93
Leaving an indebtedness beyond assets of the sinking fund of	$2,051,270 08

SCHOOL FUND.

The receipts of the school fund were		$137,681 11
Distributed to public schools	$100,000 00	
Invested for the fund	28,293 44	
Balance in bank	9,387 67	
		$137,681 11

The aggregate of the school fund, January 1, 1870, was five hundred and seventy thousand three hundred and twenty-one dollars and seventeen cents ($570,321.17), against five hundred and sixty thousand seven hundred and sixty dollars and one cent ($560,760.01) at the same time in 1869.

The receipts from all sources for the support of public education during the year were:

From State	$99,815 85
Township-school tax	423,868 85
District-school tax	915,354 89
Surplus revenue	27,559 46
Tuition fees collected	75,557 69
Appropriation Normal School	11,200 00
	$1,553,335 75

The buildings occupied by the State Normal School of New Jersey are two in number, one of which is devoted exclusively to the Normal School proper, the other to its adjunct, the Model School. The lot includes over four acres of ground. The original cost of lot and buildings was $72,000. They are now valued at $100,000, and are the property of the State. The receipts of the school for the year were $23,350.27, and the disbursements $23,344.18.

The number of pupils attending the Normal School and its adjuncts, the Model School and the Farnum Preparatory School, during the year, was as follows:

SCHOOLS.	Male.	Female.	Total.
Normal School	29	250	279
Model School	229	306	535
Farnum Preparatory School	155	144	299
Total	413	700	1,113

The following tables show the number of patients treated at the State Lunatic Asylum, and the expenses of the institution:

PATIENTS.	Men.	Women.	Total.
Patients in the Asylum November 30, 1868	234	286	520
Patients received since, to December 1, 1869	127	121	248
Patients under treatment during the year	361	407	768
Patients discharged and died	88	113	201
Remaining November 30, 1869	273	294	567

Cash on hand December 1, 1868		$1,942 74
Receipts up to November 30, 1869		145,216 72
Total		$147,159 46
Disbursements		144,911 68
Balance on hand		$2,247 78

There have been admitted to the asylum since it was first opened, 3,499 patients; of that number 542 have died, 1,322 have been restored to mental health, and 931 have been discharged more or less improved. The above statistics show that 65 per cent., or nearly two-thirds of the whole number of patients admitted to the asylum, are either completely cured or greatly benefited by the curative system pursued in the institution.

The valuation of taxable property, together with the amount of the State and county taxes for the various counties in the State, is given in the following table:

COUNTIES.	Valuation.	State Tax.	County Tax.
Atlantic	$4,362,871 00	$3,008 40	$14,000 00
Bergen	23,211,941 00	14,515 79	50,000 00
Burlington	29,069,991 00	18,093 70	149,999 69
Camden	16,914,700 00	11,489 20	120,000 00
Cape May	3,350,000 00	2,298 20	8,500 31
Cumberland	11,170,000 00	7,276 48	60,000 00
Essex	94,378,000 00	58,780 00	427,087 25
Gloucester	12,590,600 00	8,561 73	25,000 00
Hudson	85,133,272 00	54,908 88	350,000 00
Hunterdon	27,312,116 00	18,704 80	60,000 00
Mercer	26,803,050 00	19,664 03	67,616 00
Middlesex	22,053,000 00	15,266 19	140,561 40
Monmouth	27,780,147 00	18,574 93	63,265 32
Morris	23,760,000 00	16,106 40	60,000 00
Ocean	4,348,710 00	3,375 44	9,308 56
Passaic	24,205,000 00	15,198 39	120,000 00
Salem	17,150,394 00	12,085 49	92,914 51
Somerset	15,571,370 00	10,727 42	50,000 00
Sussex	16,435,526 00	11,670 97	35,000 00
Union	23,553,000 00	14,948 60	225,000 00
Warren	22,092,573 00	15,480 43	40,000 00
Total	$533,261,261 00	$350,000 00	$2,188,153 04
Returns for 1868	502,645,949 62	350,000 00	2,157,492 00
Increase in 1869	$30,615,311 38		$30,660 18

The report of the Adjutant-General shows that the entire militia force of the State amounts to 202 officers and 2,442 men.

The State Reform School for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents has proved remarkably successful. The number of inmates during the year was 98, the average number was 67, and the total expenses $19,989.46.

The geological survey of the State was actively prosecuted during the year, great attention being paid to the reclamation of the immense marshes of the State, which comprise 295,474 acres of land, of which 270,000 acres are still unimproved.

The Camden and Amboy Railroad and Delaware and Raritan Canal, after forty years of joint monopoly, have surrendered their reserved rights, and thrown open the carrying-trade from north to south across the State to the competition of rival lines, the Legislature having, as previously stated, repealed the transit duties. The companies have two main lines of railway between the two largest cities of the Union, which, with their lines, cover 165 miles of roadways, 104 of which are double and 61 single track, with 60 miles additional of sidings, and holds controlling interest in 260 miles of auxiliary railroads—in all 485 miles of track. Over and above all this they have ter-

injury to American interests. Rear-Admiral Rowan was directed to afford every facility at his command to citizens who are endeavoring to obtain from the Chinese Government permission to lay an electric telegraph. Should they obtain the desired permission, an officer was to be detailed to represent the United States in the undertaking.

The state of the active force of the Navy, and the service which it has rendered during the year, are shown in the preceding statements. The views of the Government relative to the future of this arm of national defence are stated in the report of the head of this Department. He says:

> The time has come, I think, when we should begin to use the knowledge we have been seeking, and I therefore earnestly urge the propriety of commencing at once the building of seagoing iron-clads, suitable to cruise on foreign stations, and able to protect our commerce and vindicate our principles in any emergency. We should aim to have one or more of these ships on each foreign station, and to be prepared with the necessary reliefs. This will ultimately require no less than ten in all; and, without attempting to build them all at once, we should (admonished of the urgency of the case and of the time necessarily consumed in their construction) commence immediately on no less than four—one for the Asiatic, one for the Pacific, and two for the European squadron; following these, as rapidly as circumstances will admit, with those necessary for the other squadrons and their reliefs. I recommend that plans for the boilers and engines of these vessels be submitted by persons outside of the navy, the best of which may be adopted.
>
> These, with some additions to our wooden vessels and the refitting on the plan adopted, and the proper employment of such effective ships as we now have, and with our monitors and torpedoes for harbor defence, will give us the nucleus of a navy—not, indeed, proportioned to our commerce or approaching the force of other maritime powers, but sufficient to command respect abroad, and to afford time, in case of sudden war, to organize and apply the resources of our country and the energies of our people.

During the year a torpedo corps was established under the Bureau of Ordnance, to make experiments, take charge of the apparatus, and perfect a system for the application of this means of defence to the coasts and harbors.

Enough experiments have already been made to show how valuable, as well as terrible, is this means of defence; and to convince all having knowledge of it that when it shall have been further perfected, and its use systematized, the torpedo will be one of the most effective weapons of marine warfare. The torpedo corps has been selected with care, and the experiments are conducted under the supervision of an officer of scientific ability. As soon as a torpedo is constructed, and the particular locality and manner of its use determined, it can be stowed away as an inexpensive but most effective weapon of war.

This means of defence, properly applied in conjunction with a system of harbor obstructions, backed by monitors and supported by the forts and water batteries which command the narrow entrances to the principal harbors, would defy any power which could cross the ocean to attack them.

These localities have been the subject of careful inspection by both branches of the military service, and both are thus prepared with the knowledge which only actual inspection can give.

There are seven regularly-established navy-yards, of which only four are capable of fitting out more than two or three vessels at a time. A board was appointed during the year to make an examination of their condition, which presented a very complete and instructive report to the Department.

The number of men in the service last year was 8,000. The estimates of the present year are made on a basis of 12,000. The expenditures during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, were $20,000,757.

During the year a board of officers was convened by order of the Department, to take into consideration the subject of assimilated rank between the officers of the various corps of the Navy. They made a report, which resulted in a bill that was laid before the Naval Committee of the House. The views of the Secretary on the subject, expressed in a letter to that Committee, were as follows:

> It will be perceived that its provisions for the benefit of the various auxiliary corps of the Navy, while they are considerably more liberal than those of the bill which passed the Senate at the last session, do not include so great a number of officers in the higher grades as was agreed to by the Board of Officers, nor even so many as are suggested in the letter of the vice-admiral. This is a question of much personal interest, and calculated to excite considerable feeling; and he has hesitated long before differing in this point from so many experienced officers, but he felt that their views had been somewhat influenced by deference to the claims of individuals, and a desire to compromise a much-vexed and difficult question. While he was not authorized to yield for such reasons what seemed to him in this respect to be for the public good, he has been constrained, while recommending a much larger number of pay medical and engineer officers of the higher grades than was provided by the Senate bill, at the same time to reduce the number reported by the Board, believing the number to be larger than a fair adjustment of public or personal claims requires or will allow. The bill proposed by him gives the auxiliary corps twenty-eight captains in all, certainly a full proportion; also forty-five commanders ranking with lieutenant-colonels, which, with the thirty-one officers of higher grades, gives them seventy-six officers ranking with or above lieutenant-colonel in the Army. He has retained in the bill eight chief engineers and constructors of machinery, in view of the number required at the various navy-yards and stations, and also followed the recommendation of the Board in regard to officers on the retired list, as this seemed to manifest a proper respect for seniority and confer suitable reward for long-continued service, without doing injury to anybody. The Board made no recommendations in regard to the rank of assistant and past-assistant surgeons, paymasters, and engineers, and he recommends that this remain as it is now fixed by law—namely, with and next after lieutenants and with and next after masters. He has substantially followed the recommendations of the Board in regard to the precedence of the executive officer, because it seemed to him clearly right and necessary to discipline and efficiency. The recommendation of the Board and the bill proposed that this officer shall, as far as practicable, be next in line

of rank to the commanding officer, and confine his precedence to the officers attached to the organization of which he is the representative head, while they are in the discharge of his duty connected with such organization. In addition to other features, the bill recommends a reduction of officers of the marine corps, as well as a change in the proportions and a reduction of the number of line officers of the Navy. Thus, he has recommended a large reduction in the number of lieutenant-commanders and an increase of lieutenants; a diminution of the number of ensigns and an enlargement of the number of masters—endeavoring at once to promote a wise economy and to bear constantly in mind the actual necessity of the service, and the best method of insuring its efficiency.

The Board of Visitors to the Naval Academy at Annapolis made a report of much interest. It stated that the Board assembled on the 20th of May, and attended all the public exercises of the midshipmen. They carefully observed the general tone, bearing, and air of all connected with the institution, in all exercises and at all hours, whether on or off duty; examined into the condition of the grounds, buildings, vessels, apparatus, and appurtenances of all kinds, for evidence as to the thoroughness and vigor of its government. Since the late war the grounds have been enlarged, both by purchase and by filling upon the water-front. The chapel, new quarters, and several other buildings, have been erected. The former residence of the Governors of Maryland has been purchased and converted into a commodious library and superintendent's offices, and the grounds have been greatly improved. In whatever respect it is viewed, the institution exhibits clearly the effects of the interest Vice-Admiral Porter has felt in it, and of his very vigorous and able administration of its affairs.

Upon the inauguration of President Grant, he appointed Adolphe E. Borie, of Philadelphia, Secretary of the Navy, who held the position until June 25th, when he resigned, and was succeeded by George M. Robeson, of New Jersey.

Perhaps it may not be out of place to mention here the boat-race on the river Thames, in England, in which the competitors were students of Harvard College, Massachusetts, and Oxford University, England. The course was from Putney to Mortlake, on the Thames. It has been the scene of annual contest between students of Cambridge and Oxford for many years, with the following results:

Year.	Winner.	Course.	Time.	Won by.
1860..	Cam'ge.	Putney to Mortlake.	26m.	A length.
1861..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	23m. 27s.	48s.
1862..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	24m. 40s.	30s.
1863..	Oxford.	Mortlake to Putney.	23m. 45s.	42s.
1864..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	21m. 48s.	23s.
1865..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	21m. 23s.	12s.
1866..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	25m. 48s.	15s.
1867..	Oxford.	Putney to Mortlake.	22m. 39s.	Half l'gth.

The race took place on August 27th, and the Oxford crew were the winners by a length and a half—just 6 seconds. Time 22m. 41½ sec.

NEBRASKA. One of the central States of the American Union, having the Missouri River for its eastern and northeastern boundary, Dakota on the north, Wyoming on the west, and Kansas on the south. Area, 79,995 square miles, or 48,636,800 square acres. Population estimated at 100,000. Capital, Lincoln, Lancaster County. Real estate, in round numbers, $18,000,000. Personal property, $28,000,000. Annual product of skilled and unskilled labor for 1869, $18,000,000. For some years after the establishment of its Territorial government, Nebraska made a very slow growth, its sister Territory, Kansas, for a variety of reasons, attracting most of the immigration. It was not till the commencement of the Pacific Railroad in 1862–'63, that its active development commenced. In 1860 it had a population of only 28,842, and at the beginning of 1862 probably even a smaller number. Since the work of construction was actually commenced on the great trans-continental railway, the growth of the Territory (a State since February, 1867) has been steady and rapid, not only along the line of the railway, but in other sections of the State; and this growth is likely to continue and increase, from the rare advantages which it offers to immigrants in climate, soil, admixture of timber and prairie lands, and accessibility to good markets through its completed and projected lines of railway. Omaha, its principal town, though not now its capital, has had a wonderful growth, and, as the starting-point of the Union Pacific Railroad, must be a place of large business, and probably one of the most considerable cities created by that great thoroughfare. Its population, according to an enumeration made in 1869, exceeds 25,000, and is rapidly increasing, from the extensive business brought there by the Pacific road and other enterprises.

The State is for the most part well watered, not, indeed, with navigable streams, but with rivers which fertilize its soil, and add greatly to the beauty of its scenery and to its manufacturing facilities. The Nebraska, or Platte, with its northern and southern forks, divides the State from west to east into two slightly-unequal parts, discharging its waters into the Missouri, which, as we have already said, forms the entire eastern and northeastern boundary of the State. Besides the Platte, there are in Northern Nebraska two other important affluents of the Missouri, the Niobrara, called by the French *Eau qui court*, "the water that leaps," and the White Earth River. South of the Platte are the Great and Little Nemaha, and the two important tributaries of the Kansas River, the Big and Little Blue, while, farther west, we have the Republican Fork of the Kansas, a stream hardly inferior to the Kansas itself. To these are also to be added the larger affluents of the Nebraska or Platte itself, the Elkhorn, Loup Fork, Carrey's Fork, and Wood River, all fine, large streams. These and their numerous tributaries, with the abundant springs and branches which are found all over the State, make it any thing but a waterless desert, as a portion of it has been described. When it was the home

EARNINGS.	
From passenger business	$14,835,689 21
From freight business	31,570 967 74
From other sources	2,886,548 48
Not allotted	64,584 61
Total earnings	$49,377,790 04

PAYMENTS.	
For transportation expenses	$35,737,830 13
For interest	4,771,556 72
For dividends on stock	5,634,800 09
Amount carried to surplus fund	220,524 65
Not included above	1,919,765 24
Total payments	$48,274,476 88

The total number of passengers carried on these roads for the year was 18,484,800; tons of freight, 11,961,592. In addition to these there are nearly 1,000 miles of new road projected.

There were before the Legislature at its last session a large number of propositions for giving the aid of the State to new railroad enterprises. In vetoing one of these schemes embodied in "an act to aid in the completion of the Whitehall & Plattsburg Railroad," Governor Hoffman gives the following summary of the appropriations from the State Treasury, which it was proposed to make for the benefit of railroad corporations by bills then pending:

Whitehall & Plattsburg	Senate	bill	121	$365,000
Albany & Susquehanna	Assembly	"	96	100,000
Ithaca & Tonawanda	"	"	665	150,000
Port Jervis & Monticello	"	"	666	100,000
Buffalo & Washington	"	"	667	250,000
Buffalo, Corning & Pittsburg	"	"	668	250,000
Northern Air Line	"	"	669	175,000
New York Northern	"	"	670	600,000
Gloversville, Mayfield & Northville	"	"	672	150,000
Lake Shore	"	"	673	700,000
Southern Central	"	"	674	400,000
New York & Oswego	"	"	675	600,000
Fonda, Johnstown & Gloversville	"	"	676	75,000
Erie Valley & Genesee	"	"	742	125,000
Walkill Valley	"	"	744	125,000
Rondout & Oswego	"	"	747	150,000
				$4,315,000

His general reasons for disapproving of these appropriations are stated in the following paragraph: "General laws have been passed for the incorporation of railroad companies. Liberal facilities are already extended (whether always wisely or not I need not here discuss) to the people in cities, villages, and towns, by the issue of their corporate bonds, to associate their corporate responsibility with individual capital, to construct their railroads. Under these circumstances it seems to me that almost any meritorious enterprise can succeed without State aid, and that such aid should only be granted, if at all, when the necessity is clearly apparent, and when the well-being of the State at large demands it."

Among the other railroad legislation of the year was the passage of the following:

SECTION 1. Section 3 of the act entitled "An act in relation to the Erie, New York Central, Hudson River, and Harlem Railway Companies," passed April 21, 1868, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

No stockholder, director, or officer, on either the New York Central Railroad Company, the Hudson River Railroad Company, or the Harlem Railroad Company, shall be a director or officer, of the Erie Railway Company; and no stockholder, director, or officer of the latter company shall be a director, or officer of either of the three first-named companies. The board of directors in each of the said companies shall so classify the members of such board, by lot or otherwise, that, as nearly as may be, one-fifth of their number shall go out of office at each annual election; and, at the next election of directors in each of the said companies, directors shall be voted for only in place of those whose terms shall then expire under the classification aforesaid.

Another incident worthy of notice in connection with the railroads of the State is what was known as the "Susquehanna War." This arose out of a contested election for directors of the Albany and Susquehanna Railroad which took place in August, two different boards of directors having been elected by two parties of the stockholders, each claiming the right to control the road. One of these boards of directors had been chosen in the interest of the Erie Railroad Company, which desired to obtain a lease of the Susquehanna and Albany, and the other consisted of the old members. Each obtained injunctions restraining the other from acting, and, in the attempt of both to operate the road at the same time, an open conflict occurred at Binghamton on the 10th of August, resulting in the serious injury of several men employed by the different parties. The Governor of the State found it necessary to interpose and take possession of the road until the rights of the contestants should be settled in the courts. This he did by appointing General James McQuade as superintendent. General McQuade and Mr. Robert R. Banks were subsequently appointed receivers of all the property of the company owning the road, pending the action of the Supreme Court in the matter. The final decision of that tribunal had not been rendered at the close of the year.

The salt springs owned by the State, in Onondaga County, yielded during the year 8,534.661 bushels of salt, valued at $85,531.61. The expense of carrying on the work was $46,311.59, which leaves a revenue from this source of $39,220.02.

The number of insurance companies subject to the supervision of the insurance department was, on the 1st of December, 262, of which many are corporations formed in other States and doing business in this. The total amount of stocks and mortgages held by this department for the protection of policy-holders of life and casualty insurance companies of the State and of foreign companies doing business in the State, is $6,736,092, of which $4,061,142 are held for the security of policy-holders of the life-insurance companies of the State alone.

There are now fifty-seven banks doing business under the laws of the State, of which six have returned to the State system from the national under the ennabling act of 1867. The amount of State bank circulation outstanding

on the 30th of September was $2,639,059, of which $1,396,903 consisted of notes of individual bankers and of banking associations organized under the general banking law, and $1,242,156 the notes of incorporated banks. Of the circulating notes of State banks $315,316 had been returned and destroyed during the year. The total securities held by the Superintendent of the Banking Department at the end of the fiscal year amounted to $3,058,156, of which $2,138,517.23 were held for banking associations and individual bankers; $394,260.73 for incorporated banks, and $525,378.98 for incorporated trust companies.

There are in the State of New York nearly 1,500,000 children of the school-age, of whom 1,000,000 attend the public schools, and over 120,000 attend private schools. There are 11,698 school-houses, which, with the land connected with them, have a value of about $18,000,000. There are also six Normal Schools in full operation, with an aggregate attendance of 4,200 students. The entire sum paid during the past year for teachers' salaries is more than $6,000,000, while nearly $2,500,000 have been expended in new school-houses, sites, repairs, and furniture. The entire school expenditures of the year were $9,884,828.36, and the receipts of the school fund, from all sources, amounted to $11,310,852.22. A law was passed at the last session of the Legislature devoting 20 per cent. of the money collected under the excise law, in the metropolitan district, to the support of charity schools in that district. This measure has met with considerable hostility, owing to the fact that most of the institutions benefited by it are under the control of some religious system, the majority of them being in the hands of persons connected with the Catholic Church.

The public institutions of the State of almost every kind are in need of more extensive accommodation. The State prison at Sing Sing is greatly overcrowded, and riots and the escape of criminals are no uncommon occurrences. The expense of maintaining this institution has been for several years greatly in excess of its earnings, which is partly owing to defects in the contract system of labor now in vogue there. At the last session of the Legislature the Governor submitted a message to that body, in which he called attention to the overcrowded state of the prisons, and to many evils and errors which exist in the present system of management. He did not think it expedient to enlarge the present structures, but recommended the appointment of a commission to select a site for a new prison, report a plan for the construction of the building, with estimates of the cost, and make such suggestions as to the character and management of the institution as they deem wise. An act was passed in accordance with this recommendation, and commissioners appointed by the Governor, who are expected to make a report to the Legislature in the course of the session of 1870. Great need is also felt for establishments for the care of the insane poor. These unfortunate beings are now maintained in the county poor-houses, where no intelligent treatment adapted to their wants can be furnished, and their condition is deplorable in the extreme. The number of insane poor in the State outside of the counties of New York and Kings is not far from 1,500. The Willard Asylum, now in process of construction, will accommodate about 250 patients, and two other institutions of less capacity have been projected; but even when these are completed the want will be still in a great measure unsupplied.

The Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers at Albany has been closed for want of an appropriation by the Legislature for its support. A movement has been set on foot by the benevolent citizens of New York City, for the establishment of a new institution of the kind, which is greatly needed, as many of the veterans of the late war have been forced to seek support at the almshouses in different parts of the State.

Some progress has been made during the year in the construction of a new capitol building at Albany. The excavation and concrete for the foundations have been completed, and the foundations of the main walls laid to a height of seven feet. The stone for this work is obtained from the limestone and granite quarries near Lake Champlain, in the Mohawk Valley, and in the Adirondack region. It is furnished by Learned and Dixon, at the uniform price of $24.40 per cubic yard. It is not yet determined of what material the superstructure will be built. The amount of money already expended on this structure, including the purchase of the site, is $1,363,540, about one-half of which was paid for the land. The commissioners appointed in 1868 to supervise the work, are of the opinion that the building will be "so far advanced in three years as to allow its occupation by at least one branch of the Legislature, and that in two years thereafter it can be completed for all substantial purposes."

The militia of this State, known as the "National Guard of the State of New York," now numbers 25,085 men, including officers and privates. It consists of 3 regiments of cavalry, 1 battalion of cavalry, 4 troops of cavalry, 3 battalions of artillery, 8 batteries of artillery, 47 regiments of infantry, and 3 battalions of infantry. The last Legislature authorized a reduction of the maximum force to 20,000, and three regiments were mustered out of service during the year. About one-half of this militia force is organized in the city of New York.

The Legislature of New York assembled at Albany on the 5th of January, and continued its sessions until the 10th of May. In that time 920 bills were passed, which received the approval of the Governor, and 62 were vetoed. Among the latter were several which proposed

to give State aid to new railroads, and others which provided for the construction of railroads in the city of New York. Much of the legislation of the session had reference to the railroads and canals of the State, and has been already alluded to in connection with those important works. Vigorous and repeated attempts were made by the Democratic members to secure the repeal or modification of the metropolitan excise law, but without success. Among the proposed amendments was one exempting lager-beer from its operation, and another providing that "no arrests shall be made for a violation of the excise law except upon a warrant issued from a court of competent jurisdiction."

In connection with the important railroad legislation of the State, numerous charges of bribery and corruption are made from time to time. Accusations of this kind appeared in several public prints during the session of 1868, in connection with the passage of what was known as the "Erie Bill," and a resolution was passed providing for a committee to make investigations and ascertain "whether any party or parties interested in supporting or opposing any measures relating to railway companies have, either in person or by agent, directly or indirectly, paid or offered to pay any member or members of the Senate, during that session, any money or other valuable thing to influence their vote or action in Senate or committee." By a subsequent resolution this committee was authorized to sit during the recess, and report at the next session. They entered into an extended investigation, occupying several months, and examined as witnesses parties interested upon both sides in the alleged corrupt legislation, members of the "lobby," and the editors of the papers in which the original charges appeared. Their report was made on the 11th of March, 1869, and the conclusions at which they arrived were summarily stated thus:

"1. Large sums of money were expended for corrupt purposes by parties interested in legislation concerning railways, during the session of 1868.

"2. Lobbyists were thus enriched, and in some cases received money, on the false pretence that the votes of senators were to be thereby influenced.

"3. There is no proof of actual bribery of any senator

"4. The newspaper charges made in the instances that were brought to the notice of your committee, were founded upon rumor alone, and have been in no case sustained by the evidence of the writers or other proof."

They expressed their opinion, however, that, under the law as it then existed, it was almost impossible to prove the crime of bribery, because both parties to the transaction were liable to punishment. "True," they say, "the testimony given by one, on the trial of another, cannot be used against the person testifying. But the witness well knows that such testimony necessarily gives the clew to evidence by which he himself can be convicted and punished. The result is either a refusal to testify, or remarkable forgetfulness, or something worse." They therefore recommended a change in the law, by which the giver of a bribe which is accepted shall be exempt from prosecution. A bill had been already introduced by the chairman of the committee, Mr. M. Hale, "for the more effectual suppression and punishment of bribery," which embodied this provision; and also made it an indictable offence for any officer of a company or corporation to use the money of such company or corporation for purposes of corruption. This act subsequently passed both Houses of the Legislature, and received the approval of the Governor.

The amendment to the Constitution of the United States, known as article fifteen, was submitted to the Legislature for approval soon after its adoption by Congress, and a resolution, reported by the Committee on Federal Relations, to whom it had been referred, favoring its ratification, was made the special order of the day on the 17th of March. It met with a spirited opposition, and several substitutes were offered, but the original resolution was finally adopted on the 14th of April by a strict party vote of 17 to 15 in the Senate, and 72 to 47 in the Assembly. This action was not, however, transmitted to the proper authorities at Washington, and on the 30th of August J. C. B. Davis, at that time acting Secretary of State, wrote to Governor Hoffman, requesting him to forward "a certified copy in the usual form" to the State Department. To this request the Governor replied in the following terms:

STATE OF NEW YORK,
ALBANY, *September* 3, 1869.

To the Hon. J. C. B. Davis, Acting Secretary of State, Washington, D. C.:

SIR: I have the honor to acknowledge your letter of the 30th of August, received here yesterday, requesting me to forward to your department "a certified copy in the usual form of the action of the Legislature of New York, upon the fifteenth proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States."

The action of the Legislature was, by concurrent resolution, not submitted to the Executive for approval, nor was he directed or requested to promulgate the same.

In all previous instances of proposed amendments, save one, a formal bill was passed, which, like all other bills, was submitted to the Executive, and in the exceptional instance I find no record in this department of any Executive action.

In accordance with your request, however, I enclose a copy of the resolution, signed by the clerks of the two Houses.

Very respectfully your obedient servant,
JOHN T. HOFFMAN.

At the opening of the next session of the Legislature the majority in both Houses had changed from the Republican to the Democratic side, and on the very first day the following resolution, introduced by Mr. Tweed, of New York, was adopted:

Whereas, at the last session of the Legislature of this State, a preamble and concurrent resolution were adopted in the word and figures following, to wit:

Whereas, at the session of the Fortieth Congress it was resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, two-thirds of both Houses concurring, that the following article shall be proposed to the Legislatures of the several States, as an amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which amendment, when it shall have been ratified by three-fourths of the said Legislatures, shall be valid to all intents and purposes as a part of the said Constitution, namely:

"ARTICLE FIFTEEN.

"SECTION 1. The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States, or by any State, on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.

"2. The Congress shall have power to enforce this article by appropriate legislation.

"*Therefore resolved* (if the Senate concur), That the said proposed amendment to the Constitution be, and the same is, hereby ratified by the Legislature of the State of New York."

And whereas the proposed fifteenth amendment above recited has not been ratified by the Legislatures of three-fourths of the several States, and has not become a part of the Constitution of the United States;

And whereas, the State of New York, represented in the Legislature here now assembled, desires to withdraw the consent expressed in the above-recited concurrent resolution;

Now, therefore, be it resolved (if the Assembly concur), That the above-recited concurrent resolution be and it is hereby repealed, rescinded, and annulled.

And be it further resolved (if the Assembly concur), That the Legislature of the State of New York refuses to ratify the above-recited proposed fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, and withdraws absolutely any expression of consent heretofore given thereto, or ratification thereof.

Be it further resolved (if the Assembly concur), That the Governor be requested to transmit a copy of these resolutions and preamble to the Secretary of State of the United States at Washington, and to every member of the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States, and to the Governors of the several States.

Before the opening of the political campaign and the holding of the party conventions, two organizations, which have acquired some strength in the State, held meetings, at which they attempted to discuss matters of public importance, and passed resolutions expressive of their views and purposes. The New York State Temperance Society held its annual meeting at Rochester on the 15th of January. Among the resolutions which were discussed and adopted were the following:

Resolved, That when the candidates of each of the political parties are favorable to the license system or liquor traffic, it is the duty of the friends of temperance to nominate one who is not favorable to it; and moreover that, if, after a year's further warning and delay, all the political parties shall still persist in the crime of upholding the sale of intoxicating drinks, it will be the duty of the friends of temperance to turn their backs upon such parties, and to organize one which shall go for all political righteousness, and especially for shutting up all dram-shops.

Resolved, That prohibition is a political necessity; that, in order to secure such amendment of our civil law, an independent political organization is demanded at the present time.

On the 1st of June, the State Temperance Convention assembled at Syracuse to consider the relations of the temperance question to civil government, and the duties of its advocates and supporters in the approaching canvass. About one hundred and fifty delegates were present; and, after considerable discussion, the duty of setting forth their views was left to a committee of sixteen. This committee met at Saratoga on the 13th of July, and adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That we earnestly urge the temperance voters of the State, as a sacred duty that they owe the cause, to attend the caucuses of their respective parties and secure the nomination of delegates pledged to vote for such men only as will carry out the wishes of the majority of the temperance people of the State.

Resolved, That we will demand of the next Legislature a law which will enable the majority of the legal voters of any town, city, or village, or ward, to prohibit the sale of intoxicating liquors or beverages therein.

Resolved, That we urge on temperance men to enforce the penalties for violation of the present excise law, and will demand of the next Legislature such an increase of penalties as will tend to prohibit the sale and manufacture of intoxicating beverages in the State.

An address to the people of the State was also issued, and an attempt made to give the cause of temperance some influence in the political campaign, but without much success.

The Woman's Suffrage Association of the State met in convention at Saratoga on the 13th of July, and, after two days of incessant talk, settled upon the following as its "platform:"

The convention of delegates from the State of New York assembled, without distinction of sect or party, in pursuance of a call upon all persons in favor of demanding suffrage for the women of the nation, and the passage of an amendment to the Constitution of the United States by which the ballot can be secured to them, resolve as follows:

Resolved, That the question of woman suffrage is the great moral and political question of the day, and we demand the ballot for women, because equal rights are a part of the great principles of justice, because the laws of justice precede the laws of States, and the rights of humanity underlie the rights of government.

Resolved, That as governments are instituted for the maintenance of principles of justice, and as every human being can do better for himself than another for him, the right of every human being to share in the government under which he lives should be recognized by that government.

Resolved, That we claim for woman the inherent right to share in the government of any country of which she is a citizen, by virtue of her existence as a human being and her natural capacity for self-government; that, while resting the responsibility of woman's present political disability upon man, we deny his right to define woman's sphere; that, as we deny the right of one class of men to define the rights and duties of another class of men, so do we as emphatically deny the right of one sex to define the rights and duties of the other sex.

Resolved, That we gladly recognize the advancement of our just principles, as shown by the action of the Irish Republican National Convention, recently held in Washington and Chicago, in which they demanded that suffrage should be extended to all not guilty of crime, irrespective of color, race, or sex.

Resolved, That we also rejoice at the course of the Methodist Episcopal Church of the United States, recognizing, as a step in the true direction, their recent action admitting women of that Church to vote on lay delegation.

Resolved, That, in recognition and furtherance of the principles of justice, the Constitution of the United States should be so amended as to secure the right of suffrage to the women of the nation, on the same terms that it is held by the men of the nation.

Resolved, That we invite the coöperation of every man and woman, no matter how differing as to party, politics, creed, color, or nationality, in securing such an amendment.

The Democratic Convention assembled at Syracuse on the 22d of September to make nominations for the coming election, and set forth the principles on which the party proposed to conduct the canvass. The highest office to be filled was that of Secretary of State, and the following was the full ticket of nominations as determined upon: For Secretary of State, Homer A. Nelson; for Comptroller, Wm. F. Allen; for Treasurer, Wheeler H. Bristol; for Attorney-General, Marshall B. Champlain; for State Engineer, Van Rensselaer Richmond; for Canal Commissioner, W. W. Wright; for State Prison Inspector, Fordyce Laflin; for Judge of the Court of Appeals (long term), John A. Lott; for Judge of the Court of Appeals (short term), Robert Earl. The following resolutions were adopted without debate:

The Democracy of New York, in convention assembled, report and reaffirm the pledge they have given to the people in regard to questions of public policy, and they point to the history of their connection with the Government from the day of its foundation for the record of their devotion to its interests, their fidelity to its honor, their nationality and patriotism, and their unswerving loyalty to the Constitution; that, as the party which derives its principles from Jefferson and Jackson we are ready to go before the country with the record of our conduct and our principles, and demand to be judged by them.

Resolved, That, in pursuance of these principles and faithful to these traditions, we demand the restoration of all States to their rights in the Union under the Constitution, the amnesty of political offenders, the reduction of the standing army, the abolition of that hybrid institution, the Freedmen's Bureau, the restoration of the rightful authority of the judiciary, and the subordination of the military to the civil power.

Resolved, That we arraign the Administration of President Grant as false to these principles and measures, and to its pledges to give the country peace. It has for partisan purposes prolonged the disunion of the States, and by military dictation and arbitrary penalties is endeavoring to coerce communities and States into assent to its measures; it has failed to protect the masses, and has given countenance and support to class interests, and, turning its back upon the people, has become in turn the pensioner and patron of accumulated wealth, and that, while thus abusing the standard of administration at home, it has lowered the tone of our diplomacy abroad by the character of its appointments; by its vacillations and hesitations in regard to our rights as a nation, its want of sympathy with the people struggling for liberty, and its indifference to the fate of American citizens, victims of foreign despotism.

Resolved, That the protection of American citizens, whether naturalized or native born, in all their rights and wherever they may go, is a sacred duty imposed upon the United States Government, which cannot be disregarded without incurring national dishonor, that protection and allegiance are reciprocal duties, and whenever or wherever the rights of American citizens are assailed, duty and honor require that this Government should promptly employ adequate means for the vindication of such rights; and that we therefore denounce the recent flagrant omission by the Federal Administration to perform its whole duty toward American citizens in Great Britain and Cuba.

Resolved, That the Democratic party is now, as it ever has been, in favor of the fulfilment of all legitimate contracts made with the Federal Government, with the same strictness and honesty that should attend the payment of contracts between man and man; that, in case of loans made to the Federal Government by authority of law, it is the right not only of the lender, but of the American people, from the fruits of whose labor such loans must be paid, that such obligations should be discharged when due in the manner provided for by the law in obedience to which they were created.

Resolved, That the multiplication of taxes, their complexity and uncertainty, and the inquisitorial process by which they are extorted from the people, and, still more, that unequal and unjust system by which a moneyed class is exempt from the burdens of State and municipal government and their share imposed upon their neighbors, is a constantly-increasing abuse; that it is the duty of the statesmen of the country to simplify our taxes, distribute them upon the property of the country, reduce the tariff to a revenue basis, and thus release industry from its heaviest burden, and give freedom to commerce.

Resolved, That the course of the executive and administrative officers of this State in enforcing economy and reforming abuses which have grown up under the fostering care of our political opponents commends itself to the approval of the people, and should be extended to all the departments of the Government; that if the registration and excise laws are to be imposed upon the people, they should at least be uniform in their operation throughout the State; that the canals of the State should remain the property of its citizens; that they should be improved by the enlargement of the channels and the doubling of the locks where necessary; that the tolls should be reduced to such an extent as to command the carrying-trade, and that, as soon as the existing canal debt (now in process of rapid liquidation) shall be paid, the canals should be opened to the navigation of the people of all the States, subject only to a charge to defray the cost of their annual maintenance and repair.

Resolved, That the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, proposed by the radical majority in Congress in a spirit of contempt of the people and of the right of the States to regulate the elective franchise, and in utter disregard of the pledges of the party, and attempted to be forced upon the States as a condition of their restoration to civil government and to their representation in the national Legislature, is intended to place the question of suffrage in the hands of the central powers and by debasing to demoralize the representative system.

Resolved, That the amended constitution of this State in its various schedules to be submitted to the electors does not commend itself to the favor of the Democrats of the State, either by the motives in which it was conceived, or by the manner in which it was presented, or by its intrinsic worth.

Resolved, That his Excellency John T. Hoffman, by his fidelity to the interests of the State, his high-toned assertion of democratic principles, his effective hostility to corrupt and special legislation, and the dignified and impartial manner in which he has dis-

charged his executive duties, has not only commanded the hearty approval of the Democracy of New York, but secured the confidence and respect of a large class of our political opponents who hold the honor of the Empire State dearer than partisan success. Our citizens owe it to themselves, as well as to Governor Hoffman, to elect a Legislature that will aid rather than thwart him in carrying into effect measures of administrative and legislative reform.

Resolved, That the State officers this day renominated command the confidence of the Democratic masses as cordially and as unanimously as they have that of this convention, and that to them and their colleagues on the ticket we pledge a united and enthusiastic and triumphant support.

The Republican Convention met at Syracuse on the 29th of September, and made its nominations as follows: Secretary of State, George William Curtis, of Richmond; Comptroller, Thomas Hillhouse, Albany; Engineer and Surveyor, General John C. Robinson, Broome; Canal Commissioner, Stephen T. Hayt, Steuben; Treasurer, Thomas I. Chatfield, Tioga; Attorney-General, Martin I. Townsend, Rensselaer; State Prison Inspector, Daniel D. Conover, New York. For the Court of Appeals, Judges Woodruff and Mason were renominated.

Subsequently Mr. Curtis and Mr. Hillhouse declined to stand as candidates for the offices to which they had been nominated, and the Central Committee placed the name of General Franz Sigel on the ticket for Secretary of State, and that of Horace Greeley for Comptroller. The platform of the party was embodied in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That the public debt, by principal and interest, shall be paid in coin as the same matures; and that repudiation of any part thereof, either directly or indirectly, or by any device or subterfuge, would bring dishonor upon the nation and demoralization and disaster upon the people.

Resolved, That taxation ought to be equal and simple, and rendered as little burdensome to the citizens as the nature of the case will possibly allow.

Resolved, That the Government is bound by the most sacred obligations to protect its citizens, whether native or foreign born, wherever they may go.

Resolved, That every American citizen, whether naturalized or native, should have an equal right to the suffrage without regard to nation, race, or religion.

Resolved, That the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, as proposed, ought to be adopted.

Resolved, That we deeply sympathize with all people everywhere who are down-trodden and oppressed by a privileged class or by unjust rule.

Resolved, That the great success and prosperity of our Government, under the guidance of Divine Providence, imposes upon us duties toward our Cuban neighbors, who, imitating the example of our fathers, are struggling for liberty against an arbitrary and oppressive government in which they are allowed no representation, and in whose administration they have no share; that whenever the facts in possession of our Government will justify the recognition of Cuban belligerency, we shall heartily approve such recognition, and pledge our cordial support to any action on the part of the Government tending to the final annexation of Cuba, whenever she shall have achieved her independence, and her people desire such action.

Resolved, That we heartily congratulate our countrymen of all parties on the peace, order, and security, almost universally realized under the wise, firm, moderate, and frugal rule of President Grant and his chosen councillors, and we point with pride to the activity and prosperity of our national industry, to our abundant revenue, restored credit, and rapidly-diminishing public debt, as a demonstration of the patriotic wisdom the people evinced in their latest choice of President and Vice-President.

Resolved, That the maintenance of our system of public education and of common schools is essential to the preservation of a republican government, and to the advancement of intelligence and civilization, and that we are opposed to every attempt on the part of our State Legislature to appropriate any money of the people to the support of sectarian schools, or the diversion of the school funds to the maintenance of any sectarian institution.

Resolved, That the Republican party is now, as it ever has been, the true friend of the canals of the State, and we believe that it is the true policy so to increase the facilities for the navigation thereof as to insure to all connected therewith a sure and speedy transmission of property, and, with a consequent increased business, warrant a reduction of tolls to a point which shall simply secure their safe navigation, defray the cost of their proper maintenance, and insure the speedy extinguishment of the canal debt.

Resolved, That we request our next Legislature to pass laws which will secure the right of every legal voter, whether native or naturalized, against invasion and overthrow by such frauds as deprived Grant and Colfax of the electoral vote of the State, and John A. Griswold, and those upon the same State ticket, of the offices to which they were fairly elected.

An attempt was made to have the following resolution inserted in the platform, but without success:

Resolved, That—as the sale of intoxicating liquors is recognized by the laws of civilized countries, as well as by both political parties in this State, as a proper subject of legislative restraint; and, as there is a diversity of opinion in the Republican party as to the extent to which legal restraint ought to be carried, and, as the present State law outside of New York City requires the petition of twenty-five freeholders as a condition of license—whenever a majority of legal voters of any town shall remonstrate against such sale, no license ought to be granted until a similar majority petition therefor, and that this is in harmony with the great doctrine of the right of the majority to rule.

This was laid on the table by a vote of 223 to 153.

One of the issues involved in the State election in November was the adoption of the new constitution, framed by the Convention of 1867. The Legislature had provided for its submission to the suffrages of the people, a separate vote being taken on the provision relating to suffrages, taxation, and the judiciary.

The principal change proposed on the subject of the elective franchise was a removal of the restriction upon the right of negroes to vote, which is contained in the old constitution. The section respecting taxation, which was to be separately voted on, was in these words: "Real and personal property shall be subject to a uniform rule of assessment and taxation." The amended judiciary article introduced some important changes in the organization of the Court of Appeals, and provided for submitting to a vote of the people the question of having the

judges appointed instead of elected. The Court of Appeals is to consist of a chief judge and six associates, to be elected for a term of fourteen years; and a Board of five Commissioners is provided for to determine all causes pending in that court on the 1st of January, 1869. This Commission of Appeals is to be "composed of judges of the present Court of Appeals, elected or appointed thereto, and a fifth commissioner who shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate." No judge is to be allowed to sit "at a general term of any court or in the Court of Appeals, in review of a decision made by him, or by any court of which he was at the time a sitting member. All judges of the Supreme and Superior Court are to be elected for a term of fourteen years, but no person "shall hold the office of justice or judge of any court longer than until and concluding the last day of December next, after he shall be seventy years of age." Judges of the Court of Appeals and Supreme Court may be removed by a concurrent resolution of both branches of the Legislature, if two-thirds of all the members concur, and other judicial officers are removable by a two-thirds vote of the Senate alone, on the recommendation of the Governor. The section relating to an appointment of the judges in the future is as follows:

SECTION 17. The Legislature shall provide for submitting to the electors of the State at the general election in the year eighteen hundred and seventy-three, two questions, to be voted upon on separate ballots, as follows: *First*, "Shall the offices of Chief Justice and Associate Judge of the Court of Appeals, and of Justice of the Supreme Court, be hereafter filled by appointment?" If a majority of the votes upon the question shall be in the affirmative, and said offices shall not thereafter be elective, but, as vacancies occur, they shall be filled by appointment by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate; or if the Senate be not in session, by the Governor; but in such case, he shall nominate to the Senate when next convened, and such appointment by the Governor alone shall expire at the end of that session. *Second*, "Shall the offices of the judges mentioned in sections twelve and fifteen of article six of the constitution, be hereafter filled by appointment?" If a majority of the votes upon the question shall be in the affirmative, the said offices shall not thereafter be elective, but, as vacancies occur, they shall be filled in the manner in this section above provided.

The election took place on the 2d day of November, and resulted in the choice of the entire Democratic ticket, and the rejection of all the revised constitution, except the judiciary article, which was adopted by a vote of 247,240 to 240,442. The vote on the whole constitution was 223,935 for its ratification to 290,456 against it, giving a majority of 66,521 in favor of its rejection. The vote on the provision for equal assessment and taxation was 183,812 in its favor, and 273,260 against it. The amendment in favor of negro suffrage received 249,802 votes, while 282,403 were cast against it; the total vote being 582,205, and the majority against the change 32,601. This same proposition was voted on in 1860, and out of a total vote of 535,487 received 197,503 votes, 337,984 being cast against it. In 1846, 309,742 votes were cast on this question, 85,406 of which were in favor of granting the privilege, and 224,336 against it. The entire vote for Secretary of State at the last election was 641,707, of which Sigel received 310,733, and Nelson 330,974, which gives the latter a majority of 20,241. The Legislature of 1870 consists of 18 Democrats and 14 Republicans in the Senate, and 72 Democrats and 56 Republicans in the Assembly, giving the Democrats a majority of 20 on a joint ballot.

NIEL, ADOLPHE, Marshal of France, Senator and Statesman, born at Muzet, in the department of the Higher Garonne, October 4, 1802; died at Paris, August 13, 1869. At the age of nineteen he entered the École Polytechnique, and two years later was admitted to the École d'Application of Metz. In 1827 he received a commission as lieutenant of engineers, and four years afterward attained the rank of captain. During the Algerine War he distinguished himself at the siege of Constantine, and for his services on that occasion was promoted to the rank of major, became lieutenant-colonel in 1842, and colonel in 1846. In the expedition to Rome, in 1849, he acted as chief of the staff of engineers, and rendered such valuable services that he was appointed a general of brigade, and sent on a mission to Gaeta to carry the keys of the city to the Pope. On his return to Paris he was assigned to the head of the engineering department in the bureau of the Minister of War, and was also a member of the superior committees upon engineering and fortification, as well as one of the Council of State, and in 1853 was promoted to be a general of division. The Russian War next offered an opportunity for the employment of his abilities in military engineering operations. He commanded the engineers at the capture of Bomarsund, then went to the Crimea and reported upon the condition of the army and the state of the siege of Sebastopol, and finally took command-in-chief of the engineers and directed the siege. Soon after the final assault he received the insignia of the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor and was created a Senator in 1857. The following year he published an illustrated quarto volume, entitled the "Siege of Sebastopol." On the outbreak of the Italian War, in 1859, he was appointed to the command of the Fourth Corps of the Army of the Alps; and after the victory of Solferino, June 24, 1859, he was made a Marshal of France. In 1867, Marshal Niel became Minister of War, and retained that position until his death, notwithstanding great changes in the Cabinet. His administration of military affairs was characterized by vigor and ability. In a short time he succeeded in removing the disadvantages under which the French army labored, and rendered it equal if not superior to any force

in Europe in point of arms and organization. In the Senate he ably and consistently sustained the policy of the Emperor, and, although openly opposed to Prussian ascendency in European politics, he yielded to the Emperor's decision against war. One of his latest measures as Minister of War was the intimation of his desire that no non-commissioned officer should be promoted to the rank of officer after the age of twenty-eight. This regulation was intended to secure greater efficiency in the army, as it was based on the opinion that the cases must be rare in which a man having served in the ranks for eight or nine years without having been marked as fit for a commission would make an efficient officer.

NORTH CAROLINA. The State government of North Carolina having been reorganized and restored to the civil authorities under the constitution adopted in the summer of 1868, there has been comparative quiet in public affairs during the past year. The Legislature in session at the beginning of the year continued its sittings until late in the spring, but the measures adopted were not of general importance. The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified on the 4th of March, by a vote of 40 to 8 in the Senate, and 87 to 20 in the House. An attempt was made to secure the passage of a bill requesting Congress to remove the political disabilities from all the citizens of the State; but, as the majority of the Legislature were of opinion that the time had not arrived when that policy could be adopted with safety to the interests of the State, the measure was defeated.

The question involving the constitutionality of the homestead law, which exempts "from sale under execution for any debt," real and personal property, to the value of $1,500, came before the Supreme Court during the year, and a decision was rendered in favor of the validity of that law. The question at issue was, whether this provision in the State constitution was not in violation of that clause in the Constitution of the United States, that "no State shall pass any law impairing the obligation of contract." The majority of the court held that the parties to contracts made before the passage of the homestead law were not entitled by law to "any particular or specific remedy, but only a substantial and convenient one;" and that this remedy was not changed by the homestead exemption. A dissenting opinion was delivered by Chief-Justice Pearson, who defined the obligation of a contract to be, "the means of compelling performance according to the laws in force, at the time the contract is made; by these laws the parties agree to abide, by these laws their rights are fixed. This is the obligation which must not be impaired by a State, whether acting in convention or in General Assembly." The Chief Justice was of opinion that a destruction or change of the remedy impaired the obligation of the contract, and that, as the remedy in preëxisting contracts was changed by the operation of the homestead law, he believed it to be unconstitutional. By another important decision rendered by the Supreme Court, the intermarriage of white and colored citizens was held to be unlawful. Intermarriage between the two races in North Carolina had been prohibited by law prior to the recent adoption of the State constitution, and in that instrument it was provided that "the laws of North Carolina, not repugnant to this constitution, or to the Constitution and laws of the United States, shall be in force until lawfully altered." It was, however, claimed that the law on this subject had been changed by the operation of the Civil Rights Bill of Congress, and that such marriages were valid. In pronouncing against this theory, the court said: "It is not necessary that we should decide whether the operation of that bill ended with the cessation of our provisional relations with the United States, or whether it is operative now, for by its terms it has no application to the social relations. Its object was, and its terms are, to declare equality between all citizens without regard to race or color, in the matters of making business contracts, suing in the courts, giving evidence, acquiring property and protection of persons and property. And this is nothing more than our own State constitution has done. But neither the Civil Rights Bill nor our State constitution was intended to enforce social equality, but only civil and political rights."

During the year a controversy arose between a portion of the members of the bar and the justices of the Supreme Court, which attracted much attention throughout the State. This difference was occasioned by the publication of a protest, signed by a hundred and ten lawyers, (about one-fifth of the whole number in the State) in which the judges of the Supreme Court were denounced for an alleged "active and open participation in the strife of political contests." The occasion referred to was the canvass for the presidential election of the preceding year; but for some unexplained reason the publication of the protest was not made until the month of April, 1869. The indignation of the remonstrants was expressed in unmistakable language. "Many of us," they said, "have passed through political times almost as excited as those of to-day; and most of us, recently, through one more excited; but never before have we seen the judges of the Supreme Court, singly or *en masse*, moved from that becoming propriety so indispensable to secure the respect of the people, and, throwing aside the ermine, rush into the mad contest of politics under the excitement of drums and flags. From the unerring lessons of the past, we are assured that a judge who openly and publicly displays his political party zeal, renders himself unfit to hold the 'balance of justice,' and that, whenever an occasion may

offer to serve his fellow-partisan, he will yield to the temptation, and the 'wavering balance' will shake.

"It is a natural weakness in man, that he who warmly and publicly identifies himself with a political party, will be tempted to uphold the party which upholds him; and all experience teaches us that a partisan judge cannot be safely trusted to settle the great principles of a political constitution, while he reads and studies the book of its laws under the banners of a party."

This attack upon the honor and dignity of the highest judicial tribunal of the State was regarded as having a pernicious influence, and as tending to "impair the respect due to the authority of the court," and an order promptly issued from the Supreme Court disabling the offending members from appearing as attorneys before the court unless they should appear on a specified day and show cause to the contrary. A number of the proscribed attorneys filed answers denying the authority and jurisdiction of the court in the premises.

The case of B. F. Moore, whose name headed the list of protestants, was first called, and argued on behalf of that respondent by a number of gentlemen distinguished for their legal attainments, and the satisfactory adjustment of this case suggested a happy solution for the entire difficulty. Among other defences set up in his answer, Mr. Moore not only disavowed, "in signing and publishing said paper, any intention of committing a contempt of the Supreme Court, or of impairing the respect due to its authority, but, on the contrary, he avows his motive to have been to preserve the purity which had ever distinguished the administration of justice by the courts of the State."

The court, moved by these sentiments, asserted that this frank avowal removed the only obstacle preventing a restoration of the most friendly relations between the court and the eminent gentlemen of the bar, and that the order would be withdrawn on the payment of costs by the respondent. That gentleman was gratified at the clemency of the court. Whereupon the court was moved to say: "We concur with his counsel in according to Mr. Moore high encomium for his ability, legal learning, integrity, devotion to the Constitution, unwavering love of the Union, and *hitherto* a most consistent and influential supporter of the judicial tribunals of his country."

The privilege was extended to all those who signed the protest, of regaining their rights by a similar disavowal.

The good order and peace of the community have been much disturbed during the past year by deeds of violence, committed by lawless men, against whose outrages the civil authorities failed to afford complete protection to peaceful citizens. These disturbances, however, were confined chiefly to four counties—Lenoir, Jones, Orange, and Chatham—each of which contained about an equal number of white and colored citizens. These localities were made the scenes of many bloody acts, committed by a secret organization of men in disguise, who inflicted outrages upon peaceful citizens, and in many instances wrested colored criminals from the custody of the civil authorities and subjected them to the most summary and cruel punishment. As these evils continued, despite the efforts of the civil authorities for their suppression, Governor Holden, on the 20th of October, issued a proclamation of "admonition and warning to all the people of the counties mentioned," calling upon them "to aid the civil power in a fearless enforcement of the laws." The condition of affairs in the disorderly districts was set forth in the proclamation as follows:

> Notwithstanding the existence of peace and good order in other portions of the State, I regard it as my duty to announce that in four counties, to wit, Lenoir, Jones, Orange, and Chatham, there is, and has been for some months past, a feeling of insubordination and insurrection, insomuch that many good citizens are put in terror for their lives and property, and it is difficult, if not impossible, to secure a full and fair enforcement of the law. Information has reached, and continues to reach the Executive, that in the above counties a state of feeling exists which is totally incompatible with the free exercise, by the friends of the Government, of that independent expression of opinion, and that freedom of action, which is the birthright of every American. In Lenoir and Jones, various thefts and murders have been committed; jails have been forcibly opened, and the prisoners taken thence have been murdered; an officer of the law has been waylaid and slain on the public highway, and another officer of the law has been slain in the open day while engaged in his ordinary avocations. Private dwellings have been entered and the occupants terrified, and some of them whipped or murdered; others have been shot, or hanged, or cruelly beaten; and the result is, that thus far the civil law, though firmly asserted and maintained, has not been adequate to bring the insubordinate and the wicked to condign punishment. In Chatham the jail has been forcibly opened, and a prisoner, confined under sentence of a court of the United States, has been liberated, and is now at large. In Orange the jail has been forcibly opened, and two prisoners (colored men) taken out and shot, one of whom has died of his wounds. Three other colored men have been hanged until they were dead, one has been cruelly mutilated, and others have been whipped. White citizens have been injured, insulted, and terrified. The university of the State, sacred to the cause of learning, has been repeatedly invaded by bands of armed men in disguise on horseback, and acts of violence have been there perpetrated on unoffending citizens and officers of the law. Many of the colored people in these counties, and no inconsiderable portion of the white people, though obedient to the law and good citizens, are living under constant apprehensions that they may fall victims at any moment to the malice of their enemies.

Before closing the proclamation, the Executive announced the course which he would pursue in case his admonition should be unheeded:

> I now give notice in the most solemn manner, that these violations of law, and these outrages in the aforesaid counties, *must cease*; otherwise, I will proclaim those counties in a state of insurrection, and will exert the whole power of the State to enforce the law, to protect those who are assailed or injured, and to bring criminals to justice. In a matter like

this there should be no party feeling. It is my fixed purpose to protect every citizen without regard to his antecedents, his color, or his political opinions; but to do this the law must be sacred, must be spread over all alike, and must be inflexibly maintained.

This action on the part of the Executive did not produce the desired effect of restoring order and tranquillity in these counties, and, after the assembling of the Legislature, Governor Holden applied to that body for "such amendments to the militia law as will enable the Executive to repel violence and disorder in certain localities in this State, and to protect the persons of citizens, their lives, and their property." In conformity to this suggestion, a bill "to secure the better protection of life and property" was introduced by Mr. Shoffner, which, among other things, provided for a suspension of the writ of *habeas corpus*. Amendments were, however, made, which eliminated this feature of the bill. As altered, it contained the following sections:

SECTION 1. The General Assembly of North Carolina do enact, That the Governor is hereby authorized and empowered, whenever in his judgment the civil authorities in any county are unable to protect its citizens in the enjoyment of life and property, to declare such counties in a state of insurrection, and to call into active service the militia of the State to such an extent as may become necessary to repress such insurrection. And in such case the Governor is further authorized to call upon the President for such assistance, if any, as in his judgment may be necessary to enforce the laws.

SEC. 2. That, upon motion of the solicitor of a district, it shall be the duty of the judge thereof to remove the trial of any person who has been, or who may hereafter be, indicted for murder, conspiracy, and for violation of an act ratified the 12th day of April, 1869, from the county where such offence may have been committed to such other county in his district or adjoining district as the solicitor may designate. And any judge before whom such case is pending may, upon his own motion, make such removal.

This measure met with bitter opposition from some members of the Legislature, who denounced it as being an invasion of the liberties of the people, by placing despotic power in the hands of the Executive, and contended that there was no necessity for such extreme measures, since order could be maintained anywhere in the State by the civil authorities. The opponents of the measure, however, were in the minority, as a majority of the Legislature asserted that the evils complained of had been increasing, and that unless these outrages were summarily repressed by prompt action on the part of the Executive, other sections of the State would be infected and the disorders become general. A final disposition of the bill had not been made at the close of the year, but the sentiment of the Legislature was in favor of its adoption.

The regular session of the Legislature commenced at Raleigh on the 15th of November, and proceeded without delay in the transaction of business. The members of this body had been chosen at the election of the preceding year, and were classified as follows:

	Senate.	House.	Joint Bal.
Republicans	41	82	123
Democrats	8	38	46
Republican majority	33	44	77
White	46	104	
Colored	3	16	
White majority	43	88	

A question arose early in the session as to the tenure of office of the members. They had been elected under a provision of the constitution which declared that the term of the members chosen in April, 1868, should "terminate as if they had been elected at the first ensuing regular election." By a further provision of the constitution, the terms of the members of the General Assembly were made biennial; and the first election was ordered to be held on the 1st Thursday of August, 1870. The language of the constitution was construed by some to extend the term of the present members to the year 1872; while, on the other hand, it was claimed that the period for which they had been elected was two years. After the matter had been discussed at some length in the Legislature, the question was referred to the justices of the Supreme Court for their opinion.

Upon the opening of the General Assembly the following joint resolutions were offered as expressing the policy of the Government in regard to the State debt, and were ordered to be printed:

Resolved, the Senate concurring, That, in order to remove any and all doubts as to the disposition and purpose of North Carolina to meet and discharge all her legal and just obligations to her creditors, whether at home or abroad, it is hereby solemnly declared to be the sentiment of the General Assembly of the said State, that honor and good faith, as well as sound policy, demand the payment of every dollar of the regularly-contracted State debt that has recently been pronounced by our highest judicial tribunal in accordance with the true intent of the constitution of the State.

Resolved, That the decisions of the said court are regarded as final, and are conclusive, not only as to the validity of the special tax debt, but equally conclusive on the other hand that the bonds pronounced illegal and irregular by said court have no binding force whatever.

Resolved, That North Carolina would regard the repudiation of a single dollar of her regular indebtedness as a violation of every principle of plighted faith, and as one of the greatest misfortunes that could befall her people.

The policy favoring a removal of the political disabilities imposed upon certain citizens of the State, gained strength during the year; for a resolution passed the House, by a vote of 59 to 24, requesting Congress "to remove from all citizens of this State the political disabilities imposed by the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution." In the preamble, it was stated that "the time has fully come when, in the opinion of this General Assembly, political and civil equality before the law ought to prevail among all the men of North Carolina, without regard to race or to past political offences." The Senate, however, favored an

amendment of the measure, to the effect that Congress be urged to pass a general amnesty act. The prevailing sentiment of the community on this subject may be considered as expressed in the following passage from Governor Holden's last message to the Legislature:

By the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, certain persons in the recently insurgent States are debarred the privilege of holding office at the hands of their fellow-citizens; but the Congress may, at pleasure, remove such disability. There are many citizens of States which did not engage in rebellion, who are technically exempt from this disability, but who were not more loyal to the Government, and are not now more loyal, than many citizens of this State who are only technically excluded from holding office. I am not able to perceive that a citizen of a State that did not engage in rebellion, who sympathized with the pretended Confederacy, and did all he could to discourage volunteering and to paralyze the national arms, is more loyal or more deserving of consideration than the Southern Unionist who occupied some small office, not with a view to aid the rebellion, but merely to escape conscription. There are several thousands of persons in this State of the latter class, who were at one time supremely attached to the national Government, and who endeavored in every conceivable way to avoid fighting against the Government of the United States, but who are now soured and distressed, because, by the fourteenth amendment, the very means they adopted to avoid doing violence to their judgments and consciences, have been used to exclude them from office. Every citizen of this class, and every loyal citizen, is entitled to be at once relieved by the Congress. There are several thousands of others in the State, who are either indifferent to the Government or opposed to the acts of Congress by which the State was reconstructed. These persons have been sorely punished for their acts of rebellion. Even if disposed to thwart the action of the Federal or State governments, they are powerless to do so. They are chafed by the reflection that their former slaves can hold office, while they are excluded, and this reflection is magnified in their minds into the belief that the national Government is disposed to pursue and punish them, simply because they had taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States before they engaged in rebellion, while the obligation to support that instrument was equally binding upon all, and thousands upon thousands who never took that oath, but who were as deeply and as bitterly immersed in the rebellion as they were, are not banned or excluded. The nation can afford to be magnanimous. After nine years of rebellion, and strife, and civil discord, and social disruption and bitterness, a very large majority of the people of North Carolina long for peace, and harmony, and good-will, and security for life and property.

The total debt of North Carolina is stated at $34,095,045, all which bears interest at six per cent., payable half-yearly. Of this amount the sum of $17,215,045, known as the "old debt," is chargeable, principal and interest, on the general revenues of the State, and consists of ante-war bonds to the amount of $8,378,200, and post-war bonds amounting to $8,836,845. The post-war bonds are such as have been issued since the late war under funding acts, or such as were authorized by law before the war. The condition of the treasury has not warranted the payment of the interest on the "old debt," and it has been found necessary to fund the interest due thereon. Since October 1, 1868, the following bonds have been issued to railroad companies; and the payment of the interest accruing thereon provided for by special taxes:

Williamston and Tarborough Railroad..	$300,000
Western Division of the West North Carolina Railroad.....	6,367,500
Eastern Division of said road.....	273,000
Wilmington, Charlotte, and Rutherford Railroad.....	1,500,000
Northwestern North Carolina Railroad	1,060,000
Western (Coalfield) Railroad.....	1,320,000
Atlantic, Tennessee, and Ohio Railroad.	1,760,000
	$12,600,000
Bonds to be issued.....	4,280,000
Total.....	$16,880,000

The legislation of the State has been such as to make the new issue of bonds since October 1, 1868, a preferred charge on the entire assessable property of the State. The holders of the first class of bonds must rely on the future development of the industrial resources of the State for the means to meet the interest thereon, while those who hold the second class will receive prompt payment, if the valuation of the assessable property amounts to enough to cover the whole issue. The special tax authorized to be levied by the several acts of the Legislature is equal in the aggregate to 47.08 of one per cent. on the whole assessable property of the State, which amounts, on a close estimate founded on the last census, to over $250,000,000. The sum that will be applicable to the interest on the gross amount of special tax bonds is $1,777,000, while the interest is only $999,600, leaving a large surplus as a sinking fund.

The system of public schools contemplated by the constitution is not yet in complete operation. In most of the counties the requisite school-officers have been elected and qualified, and a few schools have already been opened. An apportionment of the school fund has been made for the year 1870, by the Superintendent of Public Instruction, to the amount of $165,290.50; and teachers will be engaged and schools opened as soon as the township and county authorities are notified of this apportionment. The sum of $100,000 was appropriated for school purposes by the General Assembly, in session, at the opening of the year, which amount is to be added to the capitation tax and apportioned among the counties of the State. The number of children among whom the school-money must be distributed is 330,581.

The Board of Public Charities appointed under an act of the Legislature have made diligent inquiries into the condition of the reformatory and charitable institutions of the State, in order to ascertain the wants of those institutions and the measures necessary for their improvement. A site for the penitentiary has been chosen near the city of Raleigh, and the necessary buildings are in process of construction.

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OBITUARIES, AMERICAN. *Jan.* 1.—BATES, MARTIN W., formerly United States Senator from Delaware; died at Dover, Del., aged 83 years. He was born in Salisbury, Litchfield County, Conn., February 24, 1787, was educated for the medical profession, but subsequently devoted his attention to the study of law, and removed to Delaware, where he served several terms in the State Legislature, and in 1850 was a member of the State Constitutional Convention. After the death of John M. Clayton, he served in the United States Senate from 1857 to 1859.

Jan. 1.—WEBSTER, WILLIAM GREENLEAF, only son of the late Noah Webster, a resident of New Haven, and compiler of several of the dictionaries, spelling-books, etc., published in his father's name; died in New York City.

Jan. 5.—KIRKPATRICK, Rev. DAVID, a Presbyterian clergyman; died at Poke Run, Pa. He was born in Ireland in 1795; graduated at the University of Glasgow, studied theology in Belfast, and came to this country in 1819. In 1822 he became principal of Milton Academy, in Northumberland County, Pa., retaining that position for a period of twelve years, and preaching regularly during the whole time. Subsequently he was for thirty-two years pastor of the Presbyterian Church in Poke Run, and resigned his charge, on account of his health, a few months previous to his decease.

Jan. 6.—BRITTIN, Colonel WILLIAM, a prominent Whig politician; died in Madison, N. J., aged 91 years. He was for many years a leader of the old Whig party, filling various important offices under its auspices, as magistrate, member of both Houses of the Legislature, and for many years judge in the Court of Common Pleas.

Jan. 10.—CASSIN, JOHN, a distinguished naturalist; died in Philadelphia. He was born near that city, September 6, 1813. In 1834 he became a resident of Philadelphia, where for some years he was engaged in mercantile pursuits, but, having in his youth formed a decided taste for the study of ornithology, his later years were devoted mostly to that science. He contributed descriptions of new species of birds and synoptical reviews of various families to the Philadelphia Academy of Natural Science. His more elaborate publications are "Birds of California and Texas," a handsome octavo volume, containing descriptions and colored engravings of fifty species not given by Audubon; a "Synopsis of the Birds of North America;" "Ornithology of the United States Exploring Expedition;" "Ornithology of the Japan Expedition;" "Ornithology of Gillis's Astronomical Expedition to Chili;" and the chapters on rapacious and wading birds in the "Ornithology of the Pacific Railroad Explorations and Surveys." His works are the result of careful research, and are especially valuable for their descriptions and classification of many birds not given in the previous works of Wilson and Audubon. Mr. Cassin served many years in the city government, and was once the Democratic candidate for Congress from the first Pennsylvania district.

Jan. 11.—DUNNING, Rev. HALSEY, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman; died in Baltimore, Md., aged 50 years. He was born in Wantage, Sussex County, N. J., and graduated at the University of the City of New York, and also at the Union Theological Seminary. Upon leaving the latter institution he was appointed chaplain to the State Prison at Sing Sing, and subsequently removed to Richmond, Va. For the fourteen years preceding his death he was pastor of the First Congregational Church in Baltimore, where he was highly esteemed for his ability, and for his genial and kindly nature.

Jan. 11.—LAW, Commander RICHARD LYMAN, U. S. N., a gallant naval officer; died in Philadelphia, aged about 46 years. He was appointed to the Navy from Indiana, February 17, 1841, and was in the service twenty-eight years, seventeen of which he spent at sea. At various times he was attached to the different American squadrons, and for two years and a half was employed upon the coast survey. During the late war he served upon several war-vessels, and participated in numerous engagements with credit to himself, and to the satisfaction of his superior officers. At the close of the war he was assigned to the command of the steam-sloop Suwanee, which was lost during a cruise between San Francisco and Alaska. In 1866 he was retired from active service, but was soon after restored to the list, and in September of that year received his commission as commander. His last cruise was completed in September, 1867.

Jan. 15.—KEY, THOMAS MARSHALL, an eminent lawyer and politician of Ohio; died at Lebanon, Ky., aged 50 years. He was a native of Kentucky, graduated at Yale College in 1838, studied law, and, having made his home in Cincinnati, rose to a high position as a member of that bar. He was repeatedly elected to the Ohio State Senate, where he wielded a powerful influence. Though at first strongly opposed to the late war, he became convinced that the Government should be supported, and from that time devoted himself to the interests of his country, being sent by Governor Denison as a commissioner to Governor Beriah Magoffin, of Kentucky, to persuade him not to render aid and comfort to the Confederates. After the appointment of McClellan as major-general, he accepted a position upon his staff. He was

the author of the first congressional bill for the emancipation of slaves in any part of the United States, and with his own hand wrote the bill for the emancipation of slaves in the District of Columbia, and urged it upon the attention of Congress. After the war he returned to Ohio, and took a prominent part in the political campaigns of that State. His death was the result of pulmonary disease.

Jan. 15.—LEONARD, JAMES, Inspector of Police in New York City; died suddenly at his residence, of rupture of an aneurism of the aorta. He was born in Plattsburg, N. Y., August 19, 1820. In 1845 he became connected with the police force, and in 1848 was appointed Captain of Police of the Second Ward. While here he became identified with the Democratic organizations of the ward, and was looked upon as a leader of great strength. Subsequently, under the police law, he was appointed to the position of inspector, which he filled with marked ability. In 1851, on the occasion of the World's Fair in London, he was, at the request of Sir Richard Mayne, Chief of the London Police, sent over to look after criminals from this country, and received a handsome reward for his services. To his duties as inspector was added the supervision of the School of Instruction for the Police, and to his capacity as instructor New York is mainly indebted for the efficiency of the present police force. He had just organized a class for sergeants, and superintended the exercises as usual on the day of his decease.

Jan. 17.—BLAND, HUMPHREY, a well-known actor and theatrical manager, died in New York City, aged 57 years. He was a native of England, and in that country won some distinction as a representative of the young heroes of tragedy and comedy. After coming to this country he achieved considerable success, and at the time of his death was manager of Wall's Opera-House, in Washington. He was a diligent and devoted student of his art, and a faithful, conscientious actor.

Jan. 17.—VOSE, Judge HENRY, an able jurist, died in Boston. He was born in Charlestown, in 1817, graduated at Harvard College in the class of 1837, studied and practised law in Springfield, Mass., and represented that city in the Legislatures of 1857 and 1858. He was appointed Judge of the Superior Court on its organization in 1859, and remained on the bench till his death. He was a man of sterling qualities, and greatly beloved and respected in all the relations of life.

Jan. 18.—PERCE, ELBERT, an author and inventor, died in Brooklyn, L. I., aged 37 years. He was born in New York, August 17, 1831, but the early part of his life was spent in Buffalo. Returning to New York, he devoted himself to literary pursuits, and in 1851 published "Gulliver Joi," in the succeeding year, "Old Karl, the Cooper, and his Wonderful Book," and many translations from the Swedish novelist, Madame Carlen. In these he met with remarkable success, and subsequently compiled "The Battle Roll," a work giving statistics of all the important battles ever fought. He added to his literary taste and ability a decided genius for mechanics, and was the inventor of the Magnetic Terrestrial Globe which bears his name. He was a man of fine literary ability and wide popularity.

Jan. 20.—RODNEY, HENRY F.; died at Lewes, Delaware, aged 69 years. He was repeatedly chosen a member of the State Legislature, and was a delegate to the Constitutional Convention of 1832, in which he advocated the right of colored citizens to suffrage.

Jan. 21.—CALLIGHAN, Rev. JOSEPH, S. J., a Roman Catholic priest, rector of the novitiate of the Society of Jesus at Frederick, Md.; was killed by the disaster to the steamship Pereire, off Brest, France, aged 45 years. He was a native of Boston. He was for four years president of Loyola College, Baltimore, and, at the time of his death, was returning from Rome, whither he had gone as a representative of the Roman Catholic Societies of Maryland.

Jan. 23.—LEACH, Rev. BEBIAH N., D. D., a Baptist clergyman, died in Middletown, Conn., aged 67 years. He was a native of Vermont, graduated at Hamilton Literary and Theological Institution, now Madison University, Hamilton, N. Y., in 1828. He had been forty years in the ministry, and was the author of several religious works.

Jan. 24.—OLDS, Dr. EDSON B., member of Congress from Ohio; died at Lancaster, Ohio, aged about 66 years. He was a native of Vermont, and was a Representative in Congress from Ohio, from 1849 to 1855, in the Democratic interest. He had also been for six terms a member of the Ohio Legislature, and one term Speaker of the State Senate. He had taken strong ground in his denunciations of the Government while in the Ohio Legislature, and in 1862 was arrested for disloyalty, and imprisoned for a few months in Fort Lafayette. A short time previous to his death, he erected a new church, with the understanding that it should be free from "the heresy of regarding slavery and rebellion as sins."

Jan. 26.—WRIGHT, F. M., a prominent and popular politician of Central Ohio; died at Urbana, Ohio. He was Auditor of the State from 1856 to 1860, under the Chase administration, and in 1862 was appointed Collector of Internal Revenue for the Fourth Congressional District of Ohio. He was very much beloved in Urbana and its vicinity, and had a high reputation for business ability.

Jan. 27.—WALBRIDGE, HENRY S., formerly member of Congress from New York; was killed on the railroad in Bergen tunnel, Hoboken, N. J., aged about 60 years. He was a brother of General Hiram Walbridge; was a Representative in Congress from New York, from 1851 to 1853, and had also been a Judge of the Supreme Court of that State.

Jan. 29.—MCMAHON, Colonel JOHN H., a

prominent editor of West Tennessee; died in Memphis, aged 59 years. He was a strong Whig during the old political struggles, and was editor at different times of the West Tennessee *Whig*, the Memphis *Eagle and Enquirer*, and other papers in the same State. Before the late war broke out, he defended the Union against the more violent secessionists, but finally joined the Southern cause. When the Memphis *Appeal* was revived after the war, he became editor-in-chief, holding that position about one year, when he retired from editorial life.

Jan. —.—STOUGHTON, EDWIN H., Brigadier-General Vermont Volunteers; died in Boston. He was a native of Vermont, and appointed from that State to the Military Academy. He graduated at West Point with the class of 1859, seventeenth in a class of twenty-two, and was immediately assigned to the infantry service. He served in New Mexico for two years, but resigned in March, 1861. In the summer of the same year, Governor Fairbanks, of Vermont, commissioned him colonel of the Fourth Vermont Volunteers, with which organization he forthwith joined the Army of the Potomac. He commanded his regiment throughout the Peninsular campaign under General McClellan, rendering such efficient service as to secure for him the commission of a brigadier-general. He was assigned to the command of the Second Vermont Brigade, with which command he was stationed for some time at Fairfax Court-house. While here he was captured by Mosby, the guerrilla, March 8, 1863, who made a night raid upon the camp, apparently for the express purpose of effecting the general's capture. After being confined for some weeks in Libby Prison, General Stoughton was released, his commission having expired by constitutional limitations four days before his capture. He resigned his connection with the Volunteer Army on his release. He then entered upon the practice of the law in New York City, and continued to follow his profession until his disease compelled him to retire to Boston, where he died.

Feb. 3.—CAULKINS, Miss FRANCES MANWARING, authoress and antiquarian; died at New London, Conn., aged 73 years. She was born in New London in 1796, and had spent most of her life in that city and Norwich. She was highly educated, and early manifested a taste for literary and antiquarian pursuits. She had published excellent histories of the two cities (New London and Norwich), as well as some other historical works. She had also for some years edited the *Christian Almanac*, and some other publications of the "American Tract Society."

Feb. 6.—HUBBARD, JOHN, M. D., LL. D.; died in Hallowell, Me., aged 78 years. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1816, studied medicine, and graduated M. D. at the University of Pennsylvania in 1822. In 1849 he was elected Governor of the State, by the Democratic party, and remained in office by annual reëlection till 1852. He was a hearty supporter of the law prohibiting the sale of ardent spirits as a beverage, generally known as the "Maine Law." His death was the result of disease of the heart.

Feb. 7.—ANGELL, WILLIAM PITT, a prominent politician of New York; died at Morrisania, N. Y., aged 56 years. He was born in Otsego County, February 2, 1813, studied law in the village of Cuba, and was admitted to the bar in 1830. A few years after, having removed to Cattaraugus County, he was chosen District Attorney of that county. In 1845, President Polk appointed him Indian Agent, and he filled that office with credit for four years. In 1849 he was elected State-Prison Inspector, and at the end of the three years' term was chosen a member of the New York Legislature from Cattaraugus County. In 1856 he supported General Fremont for the presidency, and in 1860 and 1864 Mr. Lincoln. In 1865, however, he supported President Johnson, and returned to the Democratic ranks, but held no office.

Feb. 7.—BURRILL, ALEXANDER M., an eminent lawyer and legal writer; died at Kearny, N. J., aged 62 years. He graduated at Columbia College, N. Y., in 1824, with the highest honors of his class, after which he entered the office of Chancellor Kent, and devoted himself for several years to the study of law. He was remarkable for his scholarly precision and discrimination in the use of language, and was the author of several valuable legal works, among which may be mentioned "Circumstantial Evidence;" "Assignments;" "Practice;" and a "Law Dictionary." He also aided in the compilation of Worcester's Dictionary.

Feb. 7.—HAYDEN, General WILLIAM, an eminent and respected citizen of Hartford, Conn.; died there, aged 75 years. Originally by profession a builder, he had identified himself with many of the public buildings of the city and State. He had also been brigadier-general of the Connecticut militia, Chief of the Fire Department, Collector of the Port, a member of the Legislature, and for a long time a member of the Municipal Council.

Feb. 8.—DUNCAN, JAMES H., LL. D., an eminent citizen of Massachusetts; died at Haverhill. He was born in that town, December 5, 1793, graduated at Harvard College in 1812, studied law, and in 1815 was admitted to the Essex bar, entering upon the practice of his profession in his native town. He served four years in the State Legislature; was State Senator from 1828 to 1831; State Councillor in 1840 and 1841; and a Representative in Congress from 1849 to 1853, all of which offices he filled in a manner highly satisfactory. He was also for a long period an active member of the Executive Committee of the American Baptist Missionary Union, and chairman of its Board of Managers, and was a trustee of the Newton Theological Seminary. At the

time of his death he was the senior member of the Board of Fellows of Brown University, which Board, in 1861, conferred on him the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

Feb. 8.—SMITH, JOTHAM, a scholar and journalist; died in Yonkers, Westchester County, New York, in the 55th year of his age. He was born in Bedford, Westchester County, N. Y., graduated from the College of New Jersey, in 1833, was admitted to the bar in 1836, and acquired a high reputation as a writer in New York City. In 1854 he became assistant editor of the N. Y. *Courier* and *Enquirer*, and during General Webb's absence was its managing editor till it was merged in the *World* in 1864. He then became editor of the *Yonkers Statesman*, which he conducted till his death.

Feb. 9.—HILL, Mrs. LUCY ELIZABETH (Shepard), wife of Rev. Thomas Hill, D. D., late President of Harvard College; died at Waltham, Mass., aged 81 years. Mrs. Hill, from early girlhood, was held in high esteem for her intellectual powers and her rare acquisitions as a scholar. She was an accomplished and singularly successful teacher, first as an assistant in the Dorchester High School, then at the Eagleswood Institution, in New Jersey, and, more recently, after spending a year as professor at Antioch College, in the High School in Cambridge. In these important positions she became really eminent for the extent and accuracy of her learning, especially as a linguist and mathematician, and for her influence in inspiring an ardor for knowledge in her pupils. Young as she was, there are those now in their manhood and womanhood, ready to confess their indebtedness to her as an efficient and thoroughly competent instructor in the highest branches. Her marriage with President Hill interrupted her work as a teacher. But, as the wife of the learned president, she took a deep interest in his favorite studies, and marked out for herself a very extended course of learning. Her strength was not, however, equal to her aspirations, and her health and mental powers gave way under the too severe pressure, and, after some months of suffering, death came as a relief. Her graces of character were not inferior to her intellectual endowments, and won the respect and love of all whose privilege it was to form her acquaintance.

Feb. 9.—LORD, JAMES COOPER, a philanthropic merchant and iron manufacturer of New York, the founder, in 1860, of the "First Ward Industrial School," who had more recently established a free reading-room, founded a library, and erected two churches for the benefit of the workmen at his iron-works in New Jersey, and their neighbors.

Feb. 9.—MCCONNELL, MURRAY, an eminent lawyer, was assassinated in his office at Jacksonville, Ill., aged 72 years. He was one of the oldest citizens of Central Illinois, and was thoroughly identified with the political history of that State. He participated in the Black Hawk War, and shortly after was elected a representative in the State Legislature. From 1864 to 1868 he was a member of the Senate. Under the Administration of President Buchanan (1857–'61), he held the office of Fifth Auditor of the Treasury. General McConnell was a man of decided ability, ready wit, and considerable scientific and literary attainments, and possessed a large fortune.

Feb. 10.—WISE, Rev. HENRY ALEXANDER, Jr., an Episcopal clergyman, son of Governor Wise, of Virginia; died in Wilmington, Del. He was a popular preacher, and had been a rector in Richmond, Philadelphia, Harrisonburg, and Baltimore.

Feb. 12.—BARNES, Major-General JAMES, U. S. Vols.; died at his residence in Springfield, Mass., aged about 60 years. He was born in Massachusetts, and became a cadet at West Point in 1825, graduating in 1829, fifth in a class of forty-six, and that one of the most remarkable classes of the Military Academy. He remained in the army seven years, advancing to the rank of first lieutenant of the Fourth Artillery, when he resigned and became a railroad engineer and superintendent on the Western Railroad of Massachusetts from 1836 to 1848, and chief engineer of the Seaboard and Roanoke Railroad from 1848 to 1852. He also constructed, either wholly or in part, the Rome and Watertown, the Sackett's Harbor and Ellisburg, the Buffalo, Corning, and New York, the Terre Haute, Alton, and St. Louis, and the Potsdam and Watertown Railroads, between 1848 and 1857. During the late war, he was colonel of the 18th regiment Massachusetts Vols., from July 26, 1861, to November 29, 1862, participating in most of the battles of the Army of the Potomac during that period. He was promoted to be Brigadier-General of Volunteers, November 29, 1862, and was at Fredericksburg, Chancellorsville, the skirmishes of Aldie and Upperville, and the battle of Gettysburg, where he commanded a division and was wounded severely. Subsequently he was on court-martial duty or in command of posts to the close of the war, and was brevetted Major-General of Volunteers, March 13, 1865. He was mustered out of the service January 15, 1866. His health was broken by his wounds, and though he interested himself somewhat in railroad matters, he was unable to engage in any active business.

Feb. 12.—LEAVENWORTH, Rev. ABNER JOHNSON, an eminent Presbyterian clergyman and teacher; died at Petersburg, Va., in the 66th year of his age. He was born in Waterbury, Conn., fitted for college in part at Amherst Academy, and graduated at Amherst College in 1825, studied theology at Andover, Mass., completing his theological course in 1828, and from 1829 to 1838 was pastor at Bristol, Conn., and at Charlotte, N. C., and in the latter town was principal of the Young Ladies' Seminary. In 1838 he removed to Warrenton, Va., and, in 1840, to Petersburg, Va., where for twenty-nine years he was the prin-

cipal and proprietor of the Leavenworth Academic and Collegiate Seminary for Young Ladies, which had a high reputation throughout the South. His scholarship was of a high order, and his qualifications as a teacher rare and peculiar; he was thoroughly devoted to the cause of education. He was a vigorous and ready writer, and as Corresponding Secretary of the Virginia Educational Association exerted a powerful influence for good upon the Southern educational institutions.

Feb. 14.—HUNT, L. ALVIN, a New York journalist; died at Unadilla, Otsego County, N. Y., aged 28 years. He was born in Jefferson County, N. Y., and was originally a compositor. His editorial career was commenced upon the *Argus*, and, when that journal and the *World* were consolidated, he accepted the position of night editor upon the new paper, and continued to hold it four years, resigning on account of his health. For many years he was the New York correspondent of the London *Morning Herald*, and the *Standard*.

Feb. 14.—SMITH, SOL, an actor and stage manager; died at St. Louis, Mo., aged 68 years. He was born in Oswego County, N. Y., in 1801, learned the printer's trade, and while yet a young man joined a company of strolling players, at Louisville, Ky. He was so well adapted to the business, that he soon became a leading actor, then a star, and finally a manager in many of the Western theatres. He was the author of an autobiography and reminiscences of the stage, published by Harper & Brothers in 1868.

Feb. 14.—WASHINGTON, JOHN NICHOLSON, a kinsman, in the fourth remove, of General Washington; died at Newbern, N. C. He was born in Spring Bank, Wayne County, N. C., November 19, 1819, graduated at Yale College in 1841, and, after a course of study in the Law School at New Haven, Conn., returned to his native State and practised law successfully till 1854, when he visited Europe, and, after his return, lived in retirement, in the enjoyment of a large fortune. During the late war he was for a time an officer in the Confederate army, and subsequently removed to Pittsborough, Chatham County, Va., where he taught a private school. Immediately after the surrender of Lee, he returned to Newbern, and in the summer of 1865 was elected mayor of the city, and, after the expiration of his term of office, resumed the practice of his profession.

Feb. 15.—HICKEY, Rev. JOHN F., a venerable Roman Catholic priest and teacher; died at St. Agnes Hospital, Baltimore, Md., aged 81 years. He was born in Georgetown, D. C., in 1788, studied at St. Mary's Theological Seminary, Baltimore, and in 1814 was ordained to the priesthood. After ministering for a time in Emmettsburg, he taught some years at St. Mary's College. Subsequently he acted as assistant in the Cathedral, and St. Vincent's and St. Peter's parishes, in New York City, until ill health compelled him to retire to St. Agnes Hospital.

Feb. 16.—MOORE, General WYMAN B. S.; died in Lynchburg, Virginia. He was born in Waterville, Maine, November 3, 1814; graduated at Waterville College (now Colby University); studied law at Cambridge, and was admitted to the bar in 1834. He was a member of the Maine Legislature in 1839; Attorney-General of that State from 1844 to 1848; and, by appointment, succeeded John Fairfield as a Senator in Congress, serving from January to June, 1848. He subsequently devoted much attention to the railroad interests of his State, and, in 1857, was appointed by President Buchanan Consul-General to the British-American Provinces, continuing in that office till 1861. His health had lately been very poor, and he had visited Virginia in the hope of benefiting it.

Feb. 19.—JONES, THOMAS, Jr., a politician and editor; died in New York, aged 45 years. He was born in Oneida County, studied law and was admitted to the bar, but never engaged actively in the practice of his profession. For some years he served in the State Legislature. Having had some practical experience in the insurance business, he afterward became an agent for the Mutual Life Insurance Company of New York, and removed thither for a residence. In 1853 he established a publication called the *Insurance Monitor* and *Wall Street Review*, now the oldest and most widely-circulated paper of the kind in this country.

Feb. 22.—VAILL, Rev. JOSEPH, D. D., an eminent Congregationalist clergyman; died at his residence in Palmer, Mass., in the 79th year of his age. He graduated at Yale College in 1811, and soon after completing his theological studies entered upon the work of the ministry, in which he was actively engaged for a period of fifty-five years; preaching in Brimfield, Mass., Portland, Me., and Palmer, Mass. In the fall previous to his death he was elected a member of the Massachusetts Legislature. He retained in full vigor his powers, both of body and mind, until his death. Dr. Vaill was for several years financial agent of Amherst College, and during a period of great embarrassment, in 1841–'45, raised for its endowment the sum of $100,000. He received the degree of D. D. from Amherst College in 1851.

Feb. 24.—DINSMOOR, SAMUEL, LL. D.; died at Keene, N. H., aged 70 years. He was a native of Keene, New Hampshire, graduated at Dartmouth College in 1814, and was admitted to the bar in 1818. He visited Arkansas in 1819, and spent some time there. From 1826 to 1831 he was Clerk of the N. H. Senate. He was elected Governor of New Hampshire in 1849, and reëlected in 1850 and 1851. His integrity and his amiable and genial temperament caused him to very generally esteemed.

Feb. 25.—ROBB, Rev. JOHN, a Methodist local preacher, and Clerk in the Treasury Department; died in Washington, D. C., aged 78 years.

He served on the staff of General Jackson at New Orleans, and under his Administration was Chief Clerk of the War Department, and frequently, in the absence of Secretary Cass, acted as Secretary.

Feb. 25.—TOWNSEND, Rev. C. C., an Episcopal clergyman and philanthropist; died at St. Luke's Hospital, New York City, aged 60 years. He was a native of Connecticut, and we believe a graduate of Trinity College. Soon after his ordination his attention was attracted to the condition of poor, orphan, and vagrant children, and he resolved to devote all his energies to the amelioration of their condition. He established an Orphans' Home in Iowa, and houses for their temporary reception in New York and other large cities, and had collected large sums for their support. He was the means of rescuing very many from ruin and lives of crime, and accomplished great good; but he was unfortunately lacking in business tact and methodical habits; and thus, though he was conscious of his integrity and strict honesty in the expenditure of the moneys and goods received, he often was unable to give a clear and intelligible statement in detail of his disbursements. Some of the papers had, in consequence, very unjustly denounced him as a swindler, which he certainly was not, and this accusation, operating upon a sensitive and really upright nature, so distressed him as to bring on an attack of erysipelas, from which he died.

Feb. 25.—VALENTINE, DAVID THOMAS, Clerk of the Common Council of New York, and an author; died at his residence, in the 68th year of his age. He was born in Westchester County, and when sixteen years of age removed to New York, and took a position as clerk in the grocery business. Remaining in this place for six years, he was then appointed to the Marine Court. Soon after this he acted as deputy to General Morton, who was then Clerk of the Common Council. At the expiration of six years he superseded General Morton, and for thirty-six years filled that important position with honor and fidelity. In 1840, pursuant to a resolution of the Senate and Assembly, he commenced the annual publication of a Manual of the Corporation of New York. These Manuals, twenty-five in number, as containing many of the antiquities of that city, are highly valuable and interesting. In 1853 he published a work, styled "The History of New York," which traced the progress of the metropolis from its earliest development, through the various stages of hamlet, village, and city—a work of great value to the student and to the public generally.

March 3.—MCWILLIE, WILLIAM, a political leader in Mississippi, and for some years Governor of the State; died at his residence in Kirkwood, Madison County, Miss., aged 71 years. He was born near Liberty Hill, Kershaw District, S. C., November 17, 1795. His early education was acquired in that vicinage, and he was at school in Camden, preparing to enter college, when the regiment of volunteers from that vicinity, for the War of 1812, commanded by his father, Colonel Adam McWillie, was ordered to Haddrell's Point. He accepted the office of adjutant, and served in that capacity to the close of the campaign, with the approbation of his superiors and the affection of his subordinates. Upon the disbanding of the regiment he immediately resumed his studies, entered South Carolina College in October, 1815, and graduated with distinction in December, 1817, was admitted to the bar in 1818, and at once commenced a successful career as a lawyer. Mr. McWillie was frequently in the House of Representatives from Kershaw District, S. C., and had been for many years State Senator, when, in 1845, he resigned his seat and removed to Mississippi, where he had established a large planting interest ten years before. He was elected to Congress in 1849, and was chosen Governor of Mississippi in 1857. His term of office expired in 1860, and, though advanced in life, he plunged heart and soul into the contest, of which he was a prominent and active leader throughout the war.

March 4.—LEFEVRE, Rt. Rev. PETER PAUL, D. D., Roman Catholic Bishop of Detroit; died in that city, aged 65 years. He was a native of Belgium, and had been twenty-eight years the bishop of that diocese.

March 4.—SEWALL, WILLIAM BARTLETT, an eminent lawyer and editor of Maine; died in Kennebunk, Me. He was born in York, Me., December 18, 1782. He was educated at Harvard University, graduating in the class of 1803, studied law with Chief-Justice Parker, and settled in practice in Portland. He early commenced writing for the press, and in 1823 became the editor of the Portland *Advertiser*, which he conducted with great ability for fifteen years. He represented Portland in the Maine Legislature in 1815, and in 1828 became a member of the Maine Historical Society, of which he was for some years treasurer. In 1837 he returned to the paternal homestead at Kennebunk, where he afterward resided.

March 6.—CLARK, J. HENRY, M. D., an eminent physician and author, of New Jersey; died at Montclair, N. J. He was born in Livingston, N. J., June 23, 1814, graduated at the New York University in 1841, studied medicine in New York and in Europe, and, about 1846, settled in Newark in the practice of medicine. He acquired gradually a high reputation as a practitioner, and found time to cultivate physical science to some extent. In 1856 he published a volume on "Sight and Hearing," and in 1861 another on the "Medical Topography of Newark and its Vicinity." His abilities were appreciated by his medical brethren, and for some years he was president of the Essex County Medical Society.

March 6.—GILLETTE, Rev. CHARLES, D. D., an Episcopal clergyman of sound learning, deep piety, and sterling patriotism; died sud-

denly at Baltimore, aged 55 years. He was born in Wintonbury (now Bloomfield), Hartford County, Conn., was educated at Trinity College, Hartford, and was for some time professor in the Virginia State High School. In 1843 he was ordained, and the next year emigrated to Texas, and became Rector of St. David's Church, Austin, and President of St. Paul's College, a flourishing collegiate school which he had founded. At the outbreak of the war he was firm in his adherence to the old flag, and, though he had previously been highly esteemed for his piety and activity in all matters pertaining to the advancement of the Protestant Episcopal Church in Texas, and was subjected at once to the most bitter persecution, he remained an uncompromising loyal Unionist. One of the incidents of his trials was his refusal to use a sentence in the form of Confederate prayers put forth by Bishop Gregg, which mentioned "the unnatural and cruel war forced upon us." This refusal brought down on him the force of unjust prejudice to such an extent, that the bishop, who was one of his parishioners, with all his interposing influence, scarcely saved him from being hanged. He was obliged to refrain from his pastoral functions altogether, and at the conclusion of the war came North in an impoverished condition. After a year's pastoral charge at Steubenville, Ohio, he was appointed Secretary and General Agent of the Protestant Episcopal Freedmen's Commission, and was the life of that organization. His death was the result of disease of the heart, and was without a moment's premonition.

March 6.—SHALER, CHARLES, an eminent lawyer of Pittsburg, Pa., a graduate of Union College in 1809; died in Pittsburg, aged about 79 years. He had been for many years the leader of the Pittsburg bar, and had a high reputation throughout the Middle and Western States for thorough knowledge of all questions of land-titles and commercial law. He was for some years a judge in the Pittsburg judicial district, and we believe more than once a member of the State Senate, and in 1847 associated with himself Edwin M. Stanton (Attorney-General of the United States under Mr. Buchanan, but best known as Mr. Lincoln's War Secretary), and, as a junior partner, Mr. Theodore Umbstratter, and the firm were repeatedly employed by the Government in important cases of land-titles, such as those involving large portions of California, the New Almaden mines, the controversy known then and long after as the Erie war, etc. This partnership continued until December, 1860, when Mr. Stanton was called into Mr. Buchanan's Cabinet. Judge Shaler's ambition was to be eminent in his profession, and political life had no charms for him.

March 7.—DEVEREUX, THOMAS P., a distinguished jurist and legal writer, of North Carolina; died at his residence, Connemara, Halifax County, N. C., aged 76 years. He was born in Newbern, N. C., and educated at Yale College, New Haven, graduating in the class of 1818. He studied law at the Litchfield (Conn.) Law School, but for some years did not seek for practice, a competent fortune rendering that unnecessary until some reverses in business changed the course of his life. He then resolved to devote all his energies to his profession. Not long afterward, he was appointed U. S. District Attorney for the District of North Carolina, an office which he filled for many years. In 1826 he was appointed reporter of the Supreme Court of the State in conjunction with his classmate, Hon. George E. Badger, and soon became sole holder of the office by the resignation of his associate. Four volumes of law and two of equity reports were the fruits of his labors in that capacity. Receiving in middle life, by the death of an uncle, the care of a large estate, the remainder of his days he spent on his plantation, while he served also as one of the presiding Justices of the County Court of Halifax.

March 7.—TOWNSEND, Mrs. HANNAH, a colored woman, formerly a slave in the family of the Bergens at Queens, L. I.; died at Queens, at the advanced age of 112 years. She was born in 1757, and had spent her whole life with the family. She retained her memory and most of her faculties completely till a few days before her death, which was caused by grief for the death, within a few days of each other, of two of the Bergen brothers, Luke and Schenck, at the ages of 77 and 79 years.

March 8.—MIRIAN, FLETCHER, a centenarian of Westfield, Middlesex County, Conn.; died there, aged 103 years.

March 9.—CLARK, MYRON, an active and influential citizen of Vermont; died at his residence in Manchester, Vermont, in the 79th year of his age. He was born at Hoosick, in Rensselaer County, N. Y., September 12, 1790. Early in life he engaged in the tanning business in Vermont, and after a few years transferred his business from Bennington County to Manchester. He was elected one of the Assistant Judges of the Bennington County Court in 1824, and was twice reëlected. In 1829 he became a member of the Governor's Council, and held the office three years. During the four years from 1831 to 1834 he was Judge of Probate for the district of Manchester. In 1862 he was elected to the Vermont Senate, and was reëlected in 1863. In the Senate he was a valuable member in all matters pertaining to the financial affairs of the State. Judge Clark was active in pushing forward the construction of the Western Vermont Railroad from Rutland to Troy, and for several years had the management of the road.

March 9.—COBURN, CHARLES RITTENHOUSE, an eminent educator and writer on educational topics; died at Harrisburg, Pa., aged 60 years. He was born in Bradford County, Pa., June 5,

1809. He was almost wholly self-taught, and it was only by great exertion and sacrifices that he acquired sufficient education to teach a small district school in Owego, N. Y., in 1827, at a salary of eight dollars a month. He continued teaching for several years, studying hard at every interval of leisure, and from want of means compelled to borrow his text-books. In 1837 he became assistant in the Owego Academy, and remained there about ten years, with occasional interruptions from ill health and a brief attendance on the State Normal School. In 1848–'50, he was president of the New York State Teachers' Association; in 1852–'3 he was one of the editors of the New York *Teacher*, and lectured extensively on educational topics. In the latter year he received the honorary degree of A. M. from Madison University. In 1854 he took charge of the normal and mathematical department of the Susquehanna Collegiate Institute, Bradford County, Pa., and from 1857 to 1863 was Superintendent of Schools for the same county. From 1863 to 1866 he was State Superintendent of Schools for Pennsylvania, having previously been for one year president of the State Teachers' Association. In 1866 he was elected the city Superintendent of Schools at Harrisburg, Pa., which office he held at the time of his death.

March 10.—LADD, Mrs. JEREMIAH, said to have been the oldest person in Connecticut; died in East Lyme, Conn., aged 108 years and 9 months.

March 13.—FESSENDEN, General SAMUEL, an eminent lawyer and citizen of Maine; died at his residence near Portland, Maine, in the 85th year of his age. He was born in Fryeburg, Me., July 16, 1784, received his early education at the Fryeburg Academy, and entered Dartmouth College at the age of eighteen, graduating with high honors in 1806. He studied law with Judge Dana, of Fryeburg, was admitted to the bar in 1809, and commenced practice at New Gloucester, Me., where, in spite of formidable competition, he early took high rank as a lawyer. In 1815 and 1816 Mr. Fessenden was a representative in the Massachusetts General Court, Maine being then a province of Massachusetts, and in 1818 and 1819 represented his county in the Massachusetts Senate. He was elected about this time major-general of the Twelfth Division of Massachusetts militia, and held the office for fourteen years. In 1822 he removed to Portland, and formed a law partnership with the late Thomas Amory Deblois, which continued for almost forty years, his son, Daniel W. Fessenden, being admitted a partner in 1854. This law firm had a very high reputation for ability and character, especially in cases of admiralty and commercial law, throughout the whole country. In 1828 General Fessenden was chosen a member of the Maine Historical Society, and overtures were made to him to accept the presidency of Dartmouth College. In 1846 Bowdoin College conferred on him the degree of LL. D. He early became a member of the Masonic Order, and was for a number of years Grand-Master of the Grand Lodge of the State. He was one of the original members of the antislavery party in Maine, and was thoroughly fearless and outspoken in his advocacy of its doctrines. From 1845 to 1847 he was the candidate of the Liberty party for Governor, and received from six to nine thousand votes. Of his large family —nine sons and two daughters—several were distinguished in the public service, Senator Fessenden, who also died during the year, being the most eminent.

March 14.—CLARKE, STEPHEN T., a journalist for about thirty years; died at Genoa, Italy, aged 50 years. He was born in Portland, Me., in 1819, and, before his majority, was for a year connected editorially with the Portland *Advertiser*, and for a few months was attached to one of the Pittsburg papers. In 1840 he came to New York, and was associated with the *Express*, of which he was for some years a considerable owner. In 1863 he withdrew from the *Express*, and became commercial editor of the *Tribune*, publishing also the *Golden Rule*, the national organ of the order of Odd Fellows. Always industrious and enterprising, with a genius for hard work, he had impaired his health to such an extent that, in September, 1868, he went abroad to recruit, but was taken sick in Italy, and died there after a lingering illness.

March 15.—POLK, THOMAS G., a brother of Lieutenant-General Leonidas Polk (Bishop Polk), and like him a general in the Confederate army during the late war; died at Holly Springs, Miss.

March 16. — BARSTOW, Brevet Brigadier-General WILSON, a brave officer of volunteers, who was, during the early part of the late war, successively on the staffs of Major-Generals Dix and Hooker, and subsequently Chief Commissary of Musters of the Department of the East; died in New York City, aged 89 years. He served from the first year of the war until its close with zeal and ability, entering the service as a lieutenant, and, passing through the successive grades, attained the brevet rank of brigadier-general. When mustered out, or soon afterward, he was appointed Assistant Appraiser of the port under Mr. McElrath, and in his civil office fully sustained the character for ability and integrity which he had gained in the military service.

March 18.—PHELPS, GUY ROWLAND, M. D., a physician, and one of the pioneers in the life insurance business in this country; died at Hartford, Conn., aged 67 years. He was born in Simsbury, Conn., April 1, 1802, educated in his native town, and took his medical degree at the Medical Department of Yale College in 1825. He commenced practice in New York City, but two years later returned to Simsbury, where he had a large practice

for ten years, when he removed to Hartford, and engaged in mercantile pursuits, but in 1845 began to devote his attention to life insurance, and in 1846 secured the charter of the Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance Company, of which he was the first secretary, and afterward president till his death. He had signed, as president or secretary, 97,000 policies, and paid $8,000,000 in losses. The remarkable success of life insurance in America is largely due to the tact, energy, and industry of Dr. Phelps, who led the way in which thousands have successfully followed.

March 21.—LAWRENCE, Colonel TIMOTHY BIGELOW, an American diplomatist, late Consul-General to Italy; died in Washington City, aged 42 years. He was the fourth son of the late Abbott Lawrence, and was born in Boston, November 22, 1826. He was fitted for college in Boston, and graduated at Harvard University in 1846, and subsequently passed several years in travelling in Europe. In 1849 he went to England, and was an attaché to the American Legation in London, not only during the time Abbott Lawrence was American minister, but until 1855, when his father's death called him home. In 1862 he was appointed Consul-General to Italy, and filled the position in a manner to receive the warm regard of all who had official or friendly intercourse with him. The deafness of Colonel Lawrence prevented his taking an active part during the war in the military service of his country in aid of the Union. His personal influence and his purse greatly aided the loyal cause, however, during the civil war. After passing a month with his English friends, he embarked for home about six weeks before his death, and was received with great cordiality. Having business at Washington, he went there in season to witness the inauguration services, and took the disease which resulted in his death.

March 21.—MACFARLAN, ALLAN, an enterprising and wealthy lawyer and railroad president of South Carolina; died in Charleston, S. C., aged about 49 years. He was a native of Greenock, Scotland, but migrated to this country in his youth, and graduated at the College of New Jersey in 1844 with the highest honors of his class. He studied law with the late James L. Petigru, of Charleston, S. C., was admitted to the bar in 1847, and practised his profession in Cheraw, S. C., for some years with great success. He inherited a large fortune from an uncle, and, before the breaking out of the war, he was a very extensive planter, owning several hundred slaves and a large body of land. He was a man of high character, great energy, and much public spirit. He was very active in developing the resources of South Carolina, and in promoting its system of internal improvements. He was at one time president of the Northeastern Railroad of South Carolina, and resigning this position he was made president of the Cheraw and Darlington Railroad, which office he held at the time of his death.

March 23.—REMINGTON, Rev. STEPHEN, a Baptist clergyman and author, eminent for his ability and success in the ministry; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 65 years. He was originally a Methodist clergyman, and for twenty years was a popular and influential preacher in the itinerancy. In 1848, while pastor of St. Paul's Methodist Episcopal Church in Lowell, Mass., he was led to investigate the views of the Baptists, and a few months later withdrew from the Methodist Church and united with the Baptists. Soon after, he published a little volume entitled "Reasons for becoming a Baptist," which has had an immense sale, and has been translated into several European languages. This was followed by "A Defence of Restricted Communion," which also had a wide circulation. Mr. Remington was successively pastor in New York, Brooklyn, Philadelphia, and Boston, and was very successful in each of these fields, two thousand and eighty-three persons having united with the churches of which he was pastor during his labors among them.

March 24.—POMEROY, Rev. SWAN L., D. D., a Congregational clergyman and scholar; died at Sunderland, Mass., aged 70 years. He was a graduate of Brown University, and of Andover Theological Seminary, where he completed his course in 1824. He was settled for some years as a pastor in Portland, Me., and was called thence to a secretaryship of the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions. He displayed great ability and energy in this position for a number of years, but terminated his connection with it about 1860. He had not since, we believe, had any pastoral charge.

March 26.—CROPPER, Mrs. HESTER, a centenarian of New York City; died there, aged 102 years.

March 27.—MILLER, SAMUEL, said to have been the richest man in Virginia, died near Lynchburg, Campbell County, Va. Mr. Miller's fortune was the result of his own exertions, and he possessed so large a comprehension of commercial affairs, that, though living in perfect seclusion on his farm, he operated freely in all the great centres of trade; and, though his estate was greatly impaired by the late war, he left somewhat more than three million dollars. Only two particulars of the disposition of his property have transpired: the bequest of $193,000 for the endowment of a female orphan asylum in Lynchburg, and of $100,000 to found a chair of agriculture in the University of Virginia at Charlottesville.

March 28.—PRINCE, WILLIAM R., a noted gardener, florist, and nurseryman, of Flushing, L. I., author of several works on plants, trees, etc.; died there, aged 74 years. He was especially noteworthy as the originator of the "Morus Multicaulis" speculation in 1836–'37, by which so many, and himself among the number, were made bankrupts.

March 28.—THOMPSON, THOMAS, a wealthy, benevolent, but eccentric art connoisseur; died in New York City, aged 71 years. He was born in Boston, August 27, 1798, fitted for college in the Boston Latin School, graduated at Harvard University in 1817, studied theology with Rev. Dr. W. E. Channing, but soon relinquished the profession and devoted himself to the fine arts. His first collection of pictures, said to have been the finest in Boston at that time, was burned in the destruction of the Tremont Temple, in March, 1852. It was valued at $92,000. After the fire he set himself the task of replacing it, and succeeded in making a collection of very great value, embracing the best works of most of our American artists and many very choice foreign pictures. This collection, which had been piled up in a warehouse in Boston for years, was brought to New York in January, 1870, and its value is estimated at half a million dollars. He possessed, aside from this, an estate of about $900,000, and lived very quietly in Boston (having never, it is said, been on a railcar or steamboat in his life) till about ten years ago. He had a wife, but no children, and had made a will bequeathing his entire estate to constitute a fund, after his wife's death, the income of which should be appropriated for the sole use of poor needlewomen of Boston. But the action of the Boston assessors, in taxing his property and pictures more highly than he thought was just, so displeased him that he removed from Boston to New York, shut up his house and pictures, and never visited the city again. He also cancelled his will, and made another, bequeathing his property in the same way for the use of needlewomen in Brattleboro, Vt., and Rhinebeck, N. Y., in equal shares.

March 30.—BOWIE, THOMAS C., an engineer; engaged in constructing the North Missouri Railroad, was killed by falling into a cellar in Kansas City, Mo. He was born in Maryland, was a nephew of Reverdy Johnson and of Odin Bowie, present Governor of Maryland, and had been, until recently, connected with the United States Coast Survey.

April 2.—LORD, Rev. JEREMIAH S., D. D., a Reformed (Dutch) clergyman of decided ability and devotion; died in Harlem, New York City, in the 57th year of his age. He was a native of Brooklyn, N.Y., and graduate of Union College, in the class of 1836, and, after being settled for some years at Montville and at Greggstown, N. Y., was called to the pastorate of the Reformed Church in Harlem, in 1848, and had been their honored and successful pastor for twenty-one years.

April 4.—BURTON, Brevet Brigadier-General HENRY S., Colonel Fifth Artillery, U. S. A., commandant at Fort Adams, Newport; died there of apoplexy, aged 51 years. He was a native of New York, but entered West Point in 1835 as a cadet from Vermont, and graduated in 1839 with the commission of second lieutenant in the Third Artillery, serving as such during the Florida War. From 1843 to 1846 he was stationed at West Point as one of the military instructors. When the war with Mexico broke out, he became lieutenant-colonel of New-York Volunteers, distinguishing himself for his defence of La Paz, in Lower California, and receiving his commission as captain in the regular service for his conduct on that occasion. May 14, 1861, he was made a major, and during the last war served with distinction, becoming lieutenant-colonel in July, 1863, and colonel of artillery in August of the same year. March 13, 1865, he was brevetted brigadier-general in the United States Army for gallant and meritorious services at the capture of Petersburg.

April 4.—FAIRFAX, CHARLES SNOWDEN, a descendant of the last Lord Fairfax; died in Baltimore, aged 40 years. He was born at Vaucluse, Fairfax County, Va., in March, 1829, and became entitled to the baronetcy upon the death of his great-grandfather, Rev. Bryan Fairfax, in 1846; but neither his immediate ancestry nor himself laid claims to the title, having become too thoroughly imbued with American sentiments. Some years ago he removed to California, where, in 1854, he served as Speaker in the House of Representatives, and subsequently for five years as clerk of the Supreme Court. He was chairman of the California delegation to the Democratic National Convention, which assembled in New York in July, 1868.

April 5.—BEAKMAN, DANIEL FREDERICK, the last surviving soldier of the Revolution on the pension list; died at Sandusky, Cattaraugus County, N. Y., aged 109 years and 6 months. He was born in New Jersey in 1760, but in early childhood removed with his parents to the Mohawk Valley, New York, and in 1778 was enrolled in the militia. In 1845 he removed to Cattaraugus County. He lived 85 years with his wife, who died at the age of 105 years. In 1867 Congress passed a special act, giving him a pension of $500 during the remainder of his life. He was a member of the Lutheran Church.

April 5.—MILLER, Rev. GEORGE B., D.D., Professor of Theology in the Lutheran Theological Seminary at Hartwick, N. Y., and an author of high repute; died at Hartwick, aged about 63 years. He was an accomplished linguist, and highly successful as a teacher, modest and unassuming in his manners, but powerful in his influence for good. His influence in the churches of New York and New Jersey was wide-spread and eminently beneficial.

April 6.—CUNARD, Sir EDWARD, for nearly thirty years agent of the Cunard line of British steamers; died suddenly of heart-disease, at his residence, in New York, aged 53 years. He was born at Halifax, Nova Scotia, January 1, 1816, and was educated in that province. His father, Sir Samuel Cunard, was made a baronet in 1849, for the energy and ability displayed in devising and carrying out his system of Atlan-

tic steamships; and upon his death, in 1865, his son Edward succeeded to his title.

April 7.—Nesbitt, George F., an eminent printer, as well as a publisher, and author; died in New York, aged 61 years. For upward of forty years he had been engaged in the business of printing, engraving, and lithographing, by which he acquired a handsome fortune. He was an honorary member of the Typographical Society, for the interests of which he manifested an earnest sympathy. He had been for some years, also, a publisher of ocasional pamphlets and books, as well as of the *Printer*, a journal devoted to the interests of the printing profession. He edited this periodical, and occasionally contributed to the press other essays and treatises, all marked by great ability, clearness, and precision of thought. Under the new laws for the reduction of postage, twelve or fifteen years since, he furnished for several years the postage-stamps and stamped envelopes to the Post-Office Department.

April 8.—Nichols, General William A., U. S. A., adjutant-general Military Department of the Missouri; died at St. Louis, Mo., aged about 51 years. He was a native of Pennsylvania, from which State he was appointed to the Military Academy at West Point, in 1834; graduated in 1838, as brevet second lieutenant in the Second Artillery, and was appointed assistant commissary of subsistence in November following. In 1844, he was promoted to be first lieutenant. During the Mexican War he served with distinction, first as an aide-de-camp on the staff of General Quitman, and afterward as acting assistant adjutant-general on that of General Garland. He participated in the battle of Monterey, September 23, 1846, and was brevetted captain for gallant and meritorious conduct in that action. In the battle of Churubusco, he also distinguished himself, and was brevetted major for gallantry at Molino del Rey. He was appointed assistant adjutant-general, with the rank of captain, July 29, 1852. He received the rank of lieutenant-colonel, August 3, 1861, and served throughout the War for the Union in the Adjutant-General's Department, being promoted to be colonel, June 1, 1864, and brevetted brigadier-general, September 24, 1864. The additional distinction of major-general by brevet was bestowed upon him March 13, 1865. Attached to the army headquarters throughout the late war, his services, though important, were not of a character to enable him to gain much popular distinction, and, as he sought no volunteer command, but was content with the military duties of the staff of the army, his fame never kept pace with his rank.

April 12.—Breed, Rev. William James, a Congregationalist clergyman, for some years financial agent of Yale College; died at West Taunton, Mass., aged 60 years. He was born in Lynn, Mass., June 10, 1809; graduated at Yale College in the class of 1831, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1834. He was ordained June 10, 1835, over the Congregational Church in Nantucket, Mass., where he remained until 1839, when the state of his health led him to resign, and he undertook for a year the agency for the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions in the Western States. From December 9, 1841, to November 5, 1845, he was pastor of the Congregational Church in Bucksport, Me. After a brief ministry to the First Congregational Church in Cincinnati, he was installed in 1846 as pastor of the High Street Congregational Church, Providence, R. I., where he continued until May, 1852. From 1853 to 1858, Mr. Breed was Financial Agent of Yale College, and for the next five years pastor at Southboro', Mass. For nearly all the remainder of his life he was acting pastor of the Congregational Church in Raynham, Mass.

April 12.—Johnson, Benjamin P., a distinguished agriculturist and agricultural writer; died in Albany, N. Y., in the 76th year of his age. He was born in Canaan, Columbia County, N. Y., November 30, 1793, graduated at Union College, in 1813, studied law at Hudson, N. Y., and practised at Rome, N. Y., for many years. He was a member of the New York Assembly from 1827–'30, President of the State Agricultural Society in 1845, and Corresponding Secretary of the same from 1847 to 1869. He was a Commissioner to the International Exhibition at London, in 1851 and 1862, and through life was actively interested in the promotion of agriculture. He had written, besides his very able reports, many excellent essays and papers on agricultural subjects.

April 13.—Aiken, Rev. Silas, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman of marked ability; died at Rutland, Vt., aged 70 years. He was a graduate of Dartmouth College in the class of 1825; a tutor in the same college from 1825 to 1828; was ordained and settled at Amherst, N. H., in 1829, and remained there until 1836, when he was called to the pastorate of the Park Street Church, Boston, in which he continued till 1849, when he accepted a call from the First Congregational Church in Rutland, Vt., and remained in charge of that church till 1866, when, from failing health, he resigned, but continued to reside in Rutland till his death. In 1852 the University of Vermont conferred upon him the honorary degree of D. D. He published several occasional sermons and addresses, but, we believe, no work of considerable magnitude.

April 14.—Clark, Rev. Ichabod, D. D., a Baptist clergyman of great energy and executive talent; died in Lockport, Illinois, aged about 65 years. He commenced his ministry in the State of New York, where he was a pastor for nearly twenty years in the important towns of Lockport, Batavia, Le Roy, Brockport, etc., in the western part of the State; but, about 1850, removed to Illinois, where he was pastor at Galena, Rockford (for eleven years), and Springfield, and was for two years

the General Superintendent of Missions in the State. He was very widely known and highly esteemed throughout the Northwest.

April 15.—AYER, Dr. BENJAMIN, a Republican politician and legislator of Jefferson County, Ga.; was murdered near his home. He was about 69 years old, and at his death was the senior member of the Georgia Legislature. He had recently returned from Washington, D. C., where he had been with other members of both Houses of the Legislature, as a delegation to secure the early recognition of the State by Congress.

April 15.—DAY, TIMOTHY C., a Republican politician of Ohio; died in Cincinnati, of consumption, aged about 49 years. He was elected to Congress from the first Ohio district in 1854, on the Anti-Nebraska ticket, by 3,274 majority, and served from December, 1855, to March, 1857. On the formation of the Republican party, in 1855, he united with it, and was active in promoting its interests thenceforward.

April 15.—EMERSON, CHARLES NOBLE, Assessor of Internal Revenue, Tenth Massachusetts District; died in New York City, aged 48 years. He was born in Williamstown, Mass., February 6, 1821; graduated at Williams College, in 1840; studied law and was admitted to the bar there; served in the late war, advancing to the rank of major of volunteers; was appointed Assessor of Internal Revenue, 1865, prepared and published a valuable manual called the "Revenue Guide," published in 1867, and died on his return from Nassau, N. Providence, whither he had been for the improvement of his health.

April 16.—MORGAN, Colonel EDWIN WRIGHT, Professor of Mathematics in Lehigh University, South Bethlehem, Pa.; died in Bethlehem, aged 52 years. He was a native of Pennsylvania, and was appointed a cadet at West Point from that State in 1833, graduating third in his class in 1837. He was appointed second lieutenant, Second Artillery, July 1, 1837; served in the Florida War in 1837–'38, and superintended, in 1838, the removal of the Cherokees from Georgia to the West; was promoted to be first lieutenant of Second Artillery in July, 1838, and from that time till May, 1839, was on the northern frontier at Buffalo, N. Y., during the Canadian disturbances. He resigned, May 31, 1839, and was immediately employed as principal Assistant State Engineer of the State of Pennsylvania, in the prosecution of her extended public works, until the close of 1846. In April, 1847, he was reappointed as an officer of the U. S. Army, with the rank of major, Eleventh Infantry. He served throughout the Mexican War, 1847–'48, being promoted in September, 1847, lieutenant-colonel, Thirteenth Infantry, and on the 31st July, 1848, was disbanded. Returning to civil life, he was Superintendent of the Western Military Institute at Blue Licks, Ky., from 1849 to 1851; Chief Engineer, Shelby Railroad, 1852–'54; Vice-President, Shelby College, Ky., 1853–'54; Joint Superintendent with Mr. Thornton Johnson, of Kentucky Military Institute at Harrodsburg, 1854–'56, and in entire charge of it from 1856 to 1861. In 1866 he was appointed Professor of Mathematics in Lehigh University, which position he held till his death.

April 18.—ORRISON, Rev. JAMES H., a Presbyterian clergyman, for nineteen years a missionary of the Presbyterian Board in India; died at Bellefonte, Pa., aged about 45 years. He was a native of Pennsylvania, a graduate of Jefferson College and of Princeton Theological Seminary, and went out to India in 1849. After nineteen years of constant and wearing labor, he returned to this country in March, 1869, and within a few weeks after his arrival died from a sudden attack of bilious colic.

April 19.—MITCHELL, Professor ——, an eminent mathematician, a member of the Society of Friends, and, at the time of his death, Professor of Mathematics in Vassar College, Poughkeepsie; died there, aged 76 years. He was for nearly fifty years a teacher in Nantucket, Mass., and devoted much of his time to the study and practice of astronomy, and trained his daughter, Miss Maria Mitchell, now Professor of Astronomy in Vassar College, and one of the best practical astronomers in the United States, in that science. She was for many years an assistant in his school, and a coöperator with her father in his favorite study—and discovered a comet and several asteroids at Nantucket.

April 20.—DIEHL, Rev. MICHAEL, D. D., a Lutheran clergyman, Professor of Ancient Languages and Literature in Wittenberg College, Springfield, O.; died there, aged about 50 years. He was a native of Pennsylvania, a graduate of Gettysburg College and Theological Seminary, teaching for a time while prosecuting his studies at Waynesboro, Pa. He was called to his professorship at Wittenberg College almost immediately after the completion of his theological course, and continued in that position till his death. He was also, during the greater part of his career as professor, pastor of two Lutheran churches in the vicinity of Springfield. He also prepared a volume of "Memoirs and Remains of Rev. Dr. Keller," the first President of Wittenberg College, and contributed largely to the Lutheran periodical press.

April 20.—RANDOLPH, ROBERT B., a lieutenant of the Navy, dismissed by President Jackson, and famous in history as the man who pulled the President's nose; died in Washington, D. C., aged 78 years. He had entered the Navy early, had been gradually advanced to the rank of lieutenant, and under Decatur had done good service to the country. He was a cousin of John Randolph of Roanoke. His dismission from the service was unjustifiable, and, whether directed by Jackson from misapprehension, or from personal prejudice, is unknown. Randolph, having ascertained that it was done by special order of the

President, repaired to Alexandria, and, going on board a steamer on which General Jackson was, walked up to the general in the cabin, pulled his nose, and, before any one could issue a process for his arrest, escaped beyond the jurisdiction of the county. He was a fugitive for a couple of years, but then returned to the District, where he resided till his death. The act spoiled his prospects for any Government position. When, thirty years after, Secretary Floyd made him Superintendent of the Washington Armory, President Buchanan ordered his dismissal at once, out of regard to Jackson's memory.

April 22.—JOHNSON, Colonel ROBERT, son and former private secretary of ex-President Johnson; died suddenly at Greenville, Tennessee.

April 23.—MCALESTER, Major and Brevet Brigadier-General MILES D., U. S. A., a brave and skilful army officer, who rendered great service to the Union Army in the late war as an engineer; died suddenly at Buffalo, aged 84 years. He was a native of New York, but was appointed a cadet at West Point from Michigan. He was graduated in 1856, ranking third in his class, and was immediately assigned with brevet rank to the Corps of Engineers, becoming full second-lieutenant in that corps in December, 1856. He served on engineering duty in the construction and repair of fortifications on the Atlantic coast, from Florida to New York, till May, 1861, being promoted to a first-lieutenancy in the Engineer Corps in May of that year. During the war he was engaged in engineering duty mostly as Chief Engineer of the Third Army Corps, in the Army of the Potomac, till October 30, 1862, being in all the important battles of that army and winning two brevets; from October 30, 1862, to April, 1863, he was Chief Engineer of the Department of Ohio, fortifying Cincinnati and its vicinity, and providing bridge-trains for the Western armies; and in June and July was Chief Engineer in the siege of Vicksburg. On the 3d of March, 1863, he was promoted to be captain in the Engineer Corps, and in September of that year called to West Point as Assistant Professor of Engineering. On the 15th of July, 1864, he was appointed Chief Engineer of the Military Division of West Mississippi, and in that capacity was engaged in the military operations for the reduction of forts Gaines and Morgan, at the mouth of Mobile Bay, in July and August, 1864, and the siege, capture, and storming of Spanish Fort and Fort Blakeley, Mobile, in April, 1865. For his gallant and meritorious conduct here he was brevetted colonel and brigadier-general, U. S. A., and subsequently to the war was assigned to duty, and the construction of defences in the vicinity of Mobile and New Orleans, and the improvement of the mouths of the Mississippi River. He was commissioned major of the Corps of Engineers, March 7, 1867, and appointed Engineer of the 8th Light-house District, May 22, 1867. Few young men have accomplished so much in a brief life, or done their work so uniformly well, as this accomplished young engineer.

April 28.—RUSHMORE, WILLIAM C., a distinguished citizen of Brooklyn, L. I., President of the Atlantic Bank, Treasurer South Side Railroad Company, and Registrar of the Brooklyn City Railroad Company; was killed by an accident on the Long Island Railroad, at Willow Tree, near Jamaica, L. I. His age was 51 years.

April 26.—HOOPER, JOHN, an eminent botanist of Brooklyn, N. Y.; died in that city, aged 67 years. He was born in Oxford, England, but had resided in the United States for thirty years, and had been during the whole of that time engaged with unremitting zeal in the promotion of natural science. To his researches and study, in conjunction with the labors of the late Prof. Bailey, of West Point, and Prof. Harvey, of Trinity College, Dublin, science is mainly indebted for our present knowledge of the marine algæ. His splendid collection of these, the most complete yet made of our marine flora, he bequeathed to the Long Island Historical Society, of which he had been an active member from its organization.

April 26.—POST, MINTURN, M. D., an eminent physician and author, of New York City; died there in the 61st year of his age. Dr. Post was born in New York City, June 28, 1808, graduated at Columbia College in 1828, studied medicine in New York and Philadelphia, was a private pupil of Dr. Valentine Mott, and after receiving his medical degree went to Paris, and completed his studies under the instruction of Baron Louis Broussais and others. On his return to the United States he translated an able French Treatise on Auscultation and Percussion, and was largely instrumental in promoting the study of physical diagnosis. He soon attained a good and lucrative practice, and for twenty-six years past had been the medical examiner of the New York Mutual Life Insurance Company, a position requiring a thorough knowledge of his profession, quick discernment, and skill in ready diagnosis. Dr. Post ranked very high in his thorough familiarity with all the diseases of the chest, and outside of his profession was a man of wide and generous literary culture.

April 27.—MCCLOSKEY, HENRY, a New York journalist of considerable ability; died in Flatbush, L. I., aged about 40 years. He was a native of Ireland, but emigrated to the United States about twenty years since. He was editor of the *Brooklyn Eagle* for several years, but early in the late war his articles were so bitterly hostile to the Government, that he found it necessary to withdraw from that paper. He then entered upon the practice of law, and was elected City Clerk of Brooklyn for two terms, becoming also political editor of the New York *Sunday Mercury*. He had been for two years past reporter for the Court

of Sessions. In the autumn of 1868 his mind gave way, and he was committed to the Insane Hospital at Flatbush, where he died. His abilities in other relations than those of politics were of a high order, and in the Board of Education and elsewhere he did the community good service.

April —.—WISE, Captain HENRY AUGUSTUS, United States Navy, an accomplished naval officer, chief of the Bureau of Ordnance from 1863 to 1867, and author; died at Naples, Italy, aged 50 years. He was born in Brooklyn, N. Y., May 12, 1819, entered the Navy as midshipman in 1833, served on the coast of Florida during the Seminole War, became a lieutenant in 1845, served in the Pacific squadron, in California, and in Mexico during the Mexican War, was flag-lieutenant of the Mediterranean squadron from 1852–'55, accompanied the Japanese ambassadors on their return home in 1860, was promoted to be commander in 1862, and made assistant-chief of the Bureau of Ordnance and Hydrography. In 1863 he was promoted to be chief of the Bureau of Ordnance, which was then made a separate bureau, and in January, 1867, attained the rank of captain. He resigned his connection with the Ordnance Bureau in January, 1869, in consequence of his health, and went abroad, but died at Naples. Captain Wise was the author of "Los Gringos" (the Yankees), a book of sketches of travel in Mexico, California, South America, etc. (New York, 1849); "Tales for the Marines" (New York, 1855); "Scampavias" (New York, 1857); "Captain Brand, of the Schooner Centipede," a novel of sea-life (1860); and other works, usually of nautical life. Captain Wise was twice married, his first wife being a daughter of Edward Everett, his second the widow of the late Baron Bodisco, Russian minister to the United States.

May 2.—SEYMOUR, CHARLES C. B., musical and dramatic critic and author; died in New York City, of inflammation of the brain, aged 40 years. He was a native of London, England, but, in 1849, took up his residence in New York, where he engaged in teaching. When the New York *Times* was established in 1850, he became connected with the editorial staff, and continued to occupy that position until his death. He was a brilliant and able writer, clear and terse in style, and peculiarly happy in expression. Among his literary productions may be mentioned a volume of biography published by the Harpers, about 1860. Mr. Seymour was the *Times* correspondent at the Paris Exposition, where his services, as one of the American commission, were recognized by the presentation of a medal from the Emperor of the French. From January to July, 1865, he was associated with Mr. Hagen, in the New York *Weekly Review*, which paper he edited with marked discretion and taste.

May 10.—ADKINS, Rev. JOSEPH, an honored and patriotic citizen of Georgia, a Baptist clergyman, and State Senator from the 19th Senatorial District, was murdered in Warren County, Ga., aged about 67 years. He was a native of Warren County, and had resided there through life. He had been for many years a Baptist minister, and had long preached acceptably in his own county. His private character was irreproachable, and he had been through the war a stanch Republican and Unionist, and on the reconstruction of Georgia had been elected a State Senator. He was one of a delegation sent by the Legislature to Washington, to urge the complete legal reconstruction of the State. The sending of this delegation had roused the hostility of a considerable class in the State, and one of their papers had openly recommended that every member of it "should perish by the wayside."

May 10.—MAJOR, Rev. JOHN W., a Presbyterian clergyman, editor, and teacher; died in Palmyra, Wayne County, N. Y., aged 44 years. He was a descendant of the Scotch Covenanters, was born at Galway, Saratoga County, N. Y., graduated with high honors at Union College in 1845, completed his theological course at Princeton, and was licensed to preach June 12, 1850, by the Baltimore Presbytery. His first settlement was in Berkeley County, Va., where in the exercise of his duties he contracted a severe cold, which so seriously affected his health as to compel him to resign his pastorate and accept the position of principal of the Clarksville Female Seminary. In 1854, finding his health somewhat improved, he accepted a call to the charge of the First Presbyterian Church in Caledonia, N. Y.; but, finding the winters too severe, he was induced to remove to Georgetown, D. C., and assume the duties of principal of the female seminary in that town. Here, as elsewhere, he was a successful teacher. Subsequently he held a pastorate in Lauriaburr, N. C., taking charge at the same time of the high school. Upon his return North, he was for a time editor of the *Herald of Truth*, and for four years was pastor of the Reformed Dutch Church at the Bogbt, near Cohoes, N. Y. In 1862 he was appointed chaplain to the Panama Railroad Company, and sailed for Panama. Upon his return-passage he was attacked with the Chagres fever, which so completely prostrated him, that he was compelled to resign the pastorate altogether. Subsequently he removed to Brooklyn, and engaged in literary labor, so far as his health permitted, among other engagements, contributing occasional articles to the ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA of 1867 and 1868. The spring of 1869, however, indicated his end near at hand, and it was thought best to remove him to a quiet home in the country, which he reached only to die. A man of great firmness, conscientiousness, and decided piety, he was also an able, clear, and vigorous writer, a successful teacher, and possessed that wide and generous culture which made him a most agreeable and genial associate and friend.

May 12.—SHERWOOD, LORENZO, an eminent political leader, editor, and railway manager, of New York and Texas; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 59 years. He was born in Hoosick, Rensselaer County, N. Y., graduated at Burlington, Vt., and was principal of the academy there while pursuing his law studies. Removing to Madison County, N. Y., he was for a while editor of a paper at Hamilton, and subsequently for several years partner of General (now United States Senator) Nye. In 1843 he was a member of the New York Legislature, and aided materially in preparing the way for the constitutional reforms introduced in the Convention of 1846. In 1849 he settled in Galveston, Texas, and a few years later was elected to the Texas Legislature, where his independence and freedom of speech drew down upon him the wrath of the supporters of slavery. His life threatened, and his expulsion from the State urged solely on account of his Union sentiments and his opposition to slavery, he withdrew from all connection with politics, and turned his attention to railroads and other public improvements; and with such success, that he became the leading railway authority in that region. During the war he was at the North, and, true to his convictions, labored earnestly with pen and voice in sustaining the Union cause. Since the close of the war he had been occupied in promoting the reduction of railway freights, through the organization and publications of the "National Cheap-Freight Railway League," of which he was president.

May 18.—PHELPS, JOHN JAY, an enterprising and public-spirited citizen of New York; died there, in the 59th year of his age. He was born in Simsbury, Conn., in 1810, and at the age of thirteen went to Hartford, Conn., as an apprentice to the printing business. Seven years later, he, in partnership with George D. Prentice, who has since become famous as a wit, started a paper in Hartford, and met with very encouraging success. Leaving his newspaper, he began the manufacture of glass in Susquehanna, Pa., and afterward entered the dry-goods trade, by which he realized his fortune. At the age of forty he retired from business, and subsequently devoted himself entirely to public enterprises. He was the founder of the Lackawanna and Western Railway, which brought Pennsylvania coal to the New York market, and acted as its president, without salary, until it was completed and a success. He was the first man in this city that used freestone as a building-material. He was director of the Erie Railway until it was completed, and received the thanks of the Common Council for his services in that great enterprise. He was at various times a director in the Manhattan Gaslight Company, the Camden and Amboy Railroad, the Mercantile, City, and Second National Banks, and the Bleecker-street Savings-bank. He was also a prominent member of the Citizens' Association.

May 15.—LORD, RUFUS L., a wealthy and patriotic banker of New York City, died there, aged 83 years. Mr. Lord possessed real and personal property of the value of about $5,000,000. He was very liberal during the war, responding to every call for material aid, and subscribing to or bidding for every public loan of the United States. About a year before his death his office was robbed of about $1,100,000 of bonds and certificates of stock, but he ultimately recovered nearly the whole, though by the payment of heavy rewards. He was a bachelor, and his large estate was divided among his relatives.

May 17.—DIMMOCK, ASA G., an Ohio journalist; died at Montrose, Pa., in the 56th year of his age. He was born in New Jersey, and, having received a good academical education, commenced his editorial career there while yet in his minority. In 1837 he removed to Ohio, and soon became the editor of the Cadiz *Sentinel*. In 1839–'40 he was elected clerk of the Ohio House of Representatives, but resigned before the close of the session. He then removed to Millersburg, where he edited the *Holmes County Farmer* for a number of years, with great ability, being elected, during the time, State Senator, and subsequently chosen as warden of the Ohio Penitentiary. He next edited, for a brief period, the Sandusky *Daily Mirror*, but, this proving unprofitable, he took charge of the Coshocton *Democrat*, which he edited until compelled by disease to retire from journalistic life.

May 18.—DANA, EDMUND TROWBRIDGE, a lawyer and legal writer, of remarkable abilities, but prevented by protracted disease from accomplishing the great results of which his fine intellect gave promise; died in Boston, in the 51st year of his age. He was born in Cambridge, educated at the University of Vermont and at the Cambridge Law School, and, after struggling, with a body enfeebled by disease, to do his full share of a general practice in partnership with his brother, R. H. Dana, Jr., he went to Germany, and remained there eight years, studying, so far as his health would permit, the Roman civil law, and history and philosophy in their bearings upon law. He wrote occasionally for the higher class of American periodicals, and, after his return in 1856, attempted the translation of the works of Von Mohl and other eminent German jurists. Compelled by the constant encroachment of his malady, to abandon all continuous or concentrated mental action, he yet retained to the last the mental scope and comprehensiveness of his well-trained intellect.

May 18.—SCOTT, Rev. EDWARD PAYSON, a Baptist clergyman, for seven years a missionary at Nowgong, Assam; died there, of cholera, aged 37 years. He was born in Greensboro', Vt., in 1832; was educated at Knox College, Galesburg, Ill., and the Theological Seminary of Madison University, Hamilton, N. Y. He was appointed in May, 1860, to the Assam mission,

but did not sail till June, 1862, and arrived at Nowgong in November, 1862. He had been a most faithful and devoted missionary, and had so far exhausted his own strength in ministering to the natives who were suffering from the terrible disease, that he readily fell a victim to it.

May 21.—McCauley, Commodore Charles S., U. S. A., a veteran officer of the Navy; died in Washington, D. C., aged about 75 years. He was born in Pennsylvania, from which State he received his appointment; entered into the naval service January 16, 1809, and spent twenty-two years afloat. In 1830 he was disabled from active duty, and the last few years of his life were spent in Washington.

May 23.—Shepherd, Nathaniel G., poet and artist; died in New York City, aged 84 years. He was a native of New York, and entered business life as an artist, studying for that profession in his native city, but subsequently spent several years in Georgia as a teacher of writing and drawing; and, upon his return North, engaged in the insurance business, devoting his leisure time to study, and especially to that of poetry, for which he evinced a decided talent. Upon the outbreak of the war he accepted a position as war correspondent for *The Tribune*, and in this capacity visited the scene of conflict in Virginia, and the vicinity of Fort Sumter. Returning some time in the fall of 1863, he once more resumed his favorite study, and many exquisite poems were the product of his pen. "The Dead Drummer Boy," which appeared in *Harper's Magazine*, was one of the finest poems elicited by the war. His best efforts saw the light in the Harpers' publications; but he also wrote for *The Ledger*, *The Chimney-Corner*, and a number of other periodicals, with almost equal success.

May 24.—Allyn, Judge Joseph P.; died in Paris, France, aged 86 years. He was born in Hartford, Conn., and at thirteen years of age was compelled, by reason of poor health, to relinquish his studies and enter the store of his father, a wholesale merchant in that city, but, the winters proving too severe, he was obliged to try the effect of a Southern climate. Subsequently, he returned to his native city and entered into a partnership business, but failing health again drove him abroad. During the Thirty-sixth Congress, he was residing in Washington, D. C., and held a subordinate office in the House. Having been appointed, by President Lincoln, one of the Judges of Arizona, in 1863, he proceeded thither with the other Territorial officers and a military escort, performing the journey from St. Louis to Arizona upon horseback. He discharged the duties of his position for nearly four years, during which time he was once run for Congress by the Republican party. In July, 1867, he sailed for Europe for the benefit of his health. He was an able correspondent of *The Hartford Evening Press.*

May 24.—Briscoe, Brevet-General Joseph C., major U. S. A.; died in New York City, aged 85 years. He was born in Wilmount, County Kilkenny, Ireland; graduated, with distinction, at Trinity College, Dublin, and in 1854 came to the United States, where he was connected as a civil engineer with many important public works in the Pennsylvania coal-fields. At the breaking out of the war, he enlisted in the First New-York Volunteers, and from that time until the close of the struggle he remained in the service of the United States. At the battle of Big Bethel he carried the regimental colors, and was wounded in the foot. For his gallantry on that occasion he was commissioned a lieutenant. In Kearny's Division he made the campaign of the Peninsula, and, while in charge of the construction of one of the forts at Fair Oaks, attracted the attention of that general by the engineering skill displayed in the work. By him he was made engineer officer of the division. He served on that general's staff till the latter's death at Chantilly. After that he was detailed on the staff of General Stoneman and then upon that of General Birney, where he remained, serving occasionally with Generals Hancock and French. When Birney was appointed to the command of the Tenth Corps, he appointed Captain Briscoe chief of staff, with the rank of major, and strongly recommended him to Governor Curtin, who gave him the colonelcy of the 199th Pennsylvania Volunteers. At the capture of Petersburg, Colonel Briscoe commanded a brigade, and distinguished himself by the storming of Fort Gregg, for which action he was brevetted general. When the war closed, he was appointed president of the Examining Board for officers in the regular Army, under the rank of major.

May 26.—Rush, James, M. D., a physician and author; died in Philadelphia, aged 83 years. He was a native of that city, and was a son of Dr. Benjamin Rush, one of the signers of the Declaration of Independence. Young Rush graduated at Princeton College in the class of 1805, studied medicine with his father, and received the degree of M. D. from the University of Pennsylvania in 1809. He subsequently pursued his studies at Edinburgh, Scotland, and, returning to Philadelphia, practised his profession for some years, but finally relinquished it for the purpose of devoting himself to scientific and literary pursuits, for which he had a decided talent. The productions of his pen are of the most varied kind. Among them are "Hamlet, a Dramatic Prelude;" "Rhymes of Contrast on Wisdom and Folly;" "An Analysis of the Human Intellect," an attack upon Metaphysics, and "The Philosophy of the Human Voice," which is confessedly the ablest work upon the subject. The large fortune which he received from his wife was devoted to the founding and endowment of the Ridgway Branch of the Philadelphia Library.

May 26.—West, Captain W. H., commander

of Pacific Ocean steamers, and volunteer lieutenant, U. S. N., died at sea. He was a native of Pennsylvania. Soon after the war broke out he entered the United States naval service, and was commissioned a volunteer lieutenant. He commanded the United States supply steamer Massachusetts, of seven guns, for some two years, and was known as an able, patriotic officer. After the close of the war he retired from the service and resumed his connection with the merchant marine, being for some time in command of the Quaker City, running between this port and Charleston. Upon the withdrawal of that vessel from commerce, Captain West accepted a position in the service of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, which he held as first officer of the Golden City at the time of his death.

May 30.—FULLER, RICHARD F., an eminent lawyer of Boston; died in Wayland, Mass., aged 48 years. He was a brother of the gifted Margaret Fuller, and was born in Cambridge; graduated with honor at Harvard College in the class of 1844; studied law, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Boston, where he distinguished himself by his ability and scholarship. He was fond of literary pursuits, and published several volumes, including a biography of his brother, Rev. A. B. Fuller, and a volume of poems, entitled "Visions in Verse."

June 1.—NOTT, Rev. SAMUEL, a Congregationalist clergyman, the last survivor of the first band of missionaries sent out by the American Board of Commissioners of Foreign Missions to India, in 1812; died at the residence of his son, in Hartford, Conn., aged 81 years. He was born in Franklin, Conn., in 1788, being a younger brother of the late President Nott of Union College. He was educated at Union College, graduating there in 1808, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1810, where he was a classmate with Drs. Gardner Spring and R. S. Storrs, Sen.; was ordained February 6, 1812, and went out with Gordon Hall, Adoniram Judson, Samuel Newell, and Luther Rice, as the first company of missionaries sent out by the American Board. He returned, and, from 1816 to 1823, was a teacher in New York; from 1823 to 1829, preached in Galway, N. Y., and from 1829 to 1849, in Wareham, Mass. After resigning his pastorate at Wareham, he remained there till about 1860, in charge of a school, which he taught with great success. At the completion of his seventieth year, he disposed of his school and went to reside with his son in Hartford, Conn.

June 2.—ARNOLD, JONATHAN E., a prominent lawyer and politician of Milwaukee, Wis.; died there, aged 55 years. He was a native of New England, but went to Milwaukee soon after his admission to the bar, and speedily took rank as an able counsellor and an eloquent advocate. He attained a high reputation, not only in his own, but the adjacent States. He was identified with the Whig party during its existence, and, on its demise, joined the Democrats. He could have had, for many years, any position in the gift of his party, but, latterly, the evil habit of intemperance had lost him much of the respect he had formerly enjoyed. He was, however, esteemed by his brethren of the legal profession, and was president of the Milwaukee Bar Association at the time of his death.

June 2.—FOSTER, Commander JAMES P., U. S. N., a gallant naval officer, twenty-one years in the service; died at Indianapolis, Ind., aged 42 years. He was born in Bullitt County, Ky., June 8, 1827, but removed with his father's family in childhood to Bloomington, Ind., and was appointed to the naval service from Indiana in 1846, and at the inauguration of Mr. Lincoln had reached the rank of lieutenant. On the 16th of July, 1862, he was commissioned a lieutenant-commander, and in October of the same year, returning from a foreign cruise, was ordered to the Mississippi squadron, commanded by Admiral Porter. He was placed in command of the Neosho, from which he was soon transferred to the iron-clad ram Chillicothe, of two guns, and in March of 1863 distinguished himself by the valuable service performed by his vessel during the Yazoo expedition. Later in the year he was placed in command of the gunboat Lafayette, of eight guns, and rendered valuable assistance during the bombardment and siege of Vicksburg. After the close of the war Lieutenant-Commander Foster was ordered to the Naval Academy and placed in charge of the practice-ships; and on the 25th of July, 1866, was promoted to the rank of commander, and placed in command of the Osceola, and ordered to the Brazilian squadron, where he contracted the disease (jaundice) of which he died. Last year he was ordered to the naval station at Mound City, Ill., and on the 22d of March last, being completely disabled, he was relieved and placed on waiting orders. He was an able, gallant officer, and his death will be regretted by all who knew him.

June 2.—LEE, Rev. DAY KELLOGG, D. D., a Universalist clergyman and author; died in New York City, in the 53d year of his age. He was born in Sempronius, Cayuga County, N. Y., September 10, 1816, and entered the ministry in 1835, preaching his first sermon in Ann Arbor, Mich. He has been settled as pastor of Universalist societies in Newark, N. J., Salem, Mass., Southbridge, Mass., Williamsburgh, L. I., Ogdensburg, N. Y., Auburn, N. Y., and New York City, removing from Auburn to New York in June, 1865. He received the honorary degree of M. A., from Tufts College, Massachusetts, in 1864, and that of D. D. from the Theological School of St. Lawrence University at Canton, N. Y., in 1868. Dr. Lee was an indefatigable worker not only in his parish and in preparing his sermons, which always contained something fresh and interesting, but also in many benevolent and philanthropic undertakings. He

was also an extensive writer, contributing frequently to the Universalist denominational newspapers and other periodicals, and also preparing for publication a series of books under the general title of "Tales of Labor," comprising four volumes. He was of a fine, poetic, and highly-sympathetic temperament, and possessed of eminent social qualities that endeared him to all with whom he came in contact.

June 4.—ABERNETHY, ELISHA SMITH, an eminent lawyer of Connecticut, died at Bridgeport, Conn. He was born in Torrington, Conn., in October, 1805; graduated at Yale College in 1825, studied law, and entered upon the practice of his profession in Waterbury. In 1836 he removed to Litchfield, and was Judge of the County Court. In 1847 he took up his residence in Bridgeport, and was for many years Judge of Probate for that district. In 1859 he was appointed clerk of the Superior Court for Fairfield, and held that office until his death.

June 4.—VERNON, Mrs. JANE MARCHANT FISHER, a gifted and estimable actress; died in New York City, aged 73 years. She was born at Brighton, Eng., came to this country in 1827, and soon after her arrival in New York married Mr. George Vernon, an actor, who left her a widow in less than three years. From that time she devoted her talents to the stage, having previously filled engagements at the Bowery and Chatham Theatres. About 1848 she appeared at Burton's, then at the Old Broadway, and finally at Wallack's, where she performed until within two or three months of her death. Her dramatic career extended over a period of forty-two years, during which she continued to hold the sympathetic admiration of the public. Her acting was chiefly confined to comedy and the drama, and she was a perfect mistress of her art, showing great skill and tact in the delineation of character.

June 5.—CROCKER, LUCIUS B.; died in Paris. He was a native of Albany County, N. Y., but went to Oswego in early life and engaged in commercial pursuits, and afterward in the freighting and forwarding business. In these he proved remarkably successful, and soon became prominently known in connection with canal and railroad enterprises. He was president of the first railroad constructed across the State of Iowa from Clinton to Omaha, forming the present connection of the Pacific road, and it was largely owing to his energy and capacity that this road was pushed to completion during the first exciting years of the war. He was several times made Mayor of Oswego, and, although not himself a politician in the ordinary sense of the term, was well known to all the prominent politicians of this State and at Washington. About two years ago he went abroad for his health, accompanied by his family. After about a year's absence, his wife died at Rome and her remains were sent home. He himself, after an extended tour through Europe, Western Asia, and Egypt, was on his way to this country, when he was seized at Paris with the attack which caused his death.

June 5.—EMRIE, JONAS REECE, an editor, and former member of Congress; died in Mound City, Ill. He was a native of Hillsboro, O.; was educated to the printing business, and edited and published the *Hillsboro Gazette* for twenty years. He represented his district in Congress one term, and was nominated for a second, but, owing to a change in the political character of the district, was defeated. He served for a term in the Ohio Legislature, and for a considerable time was Judge of the Probate Court for Highland County. Owing to pecuniary embarrassments occasioned by security debts that fell upon him, Judge Emrie removed to Mound City in 1857. Here for a while he conducted the *Emporium* newspaper, which, however, he finally sold out, and then engaged in the mercantile business. For several years he occupied the responsible position of police magistrate in that city; also was township treasurer of schools, and master in chancery for the county.

June 9.—VAN OECKELEN, CHARLES, composer and professor of music; died in New York City, aged 41 years. He was born in Holland, and spent his early years in Java, whence he came to the United States in 1855, in company with his father, an inventor of musical instruments, among which the automaton clarionet-player attracted much attention. The son, Charles, taught music for three years at the Rockland Female Institute, but, on the death of his father, he removed to New York in order to be with his mother, and earned a scanty support by taking private pupils. He was an accomplished harmonist, and his compositions possess very decided merit, but they never obtained the public recognition which they deserved—principally because the author was too modest to trumpet his own glory.

June 10.—KITTRIDGE, WILLIAM C.; died at Rutland, Vt., aged 69 years. He was born in Dalton, Mass.; graduated at Williams College in 1821; read law with Elijah Hunt Mills and Lewis Strong, of Northampton; lived a year in Kentucky for the benefit of his health; was admitted to the bar in Campbell County, Ky., in 1833; was six months in the law-office of Jonathan Sloan, of Ravenna, Ohio, who was afterward United States Treasurer; and was admitted to the bar in Rutland County, December, 1824. For eight years he was town representative, for two years a county senator, for two years Speaker of the House of Representatives, for five years State's Attorney, for six years Judge of the County Court, for one year Judge of the Circuit Court, for one year Lieutenant-Governor of the State and president of the Senate, member of one Constitutional Convention, and for nearly seven years Assessor of Internal Revenue.

June 11.—LYON, Mrs. MARY DU PONT, daughter of Major Jean Pierre Du Pont, of the

French Army, and the last descendant of the Marquis de Montcalm, of old French and Indian War fame; died at Lyons Falls. She had been suffering for several months, and left her home on Staten Island, where she resided with her son, ex-Governor Lyon, to revisit Lewis County, a few weeks previous. Mrs. Lyon was a woman of marked energy and capacity, and by her decision of character exercised great influence over her associates.

June 14.—Cock, Thomas, M. D., an eminent physician, professor, and medical writer, of New York City; died there, aged 87 years. He was born at Glen Cove, L. I., and studied medicine in company with Drs. Valentine Mott and Cheeseman, in the office of Dr. Seaman, at that time a noted practitioner, with whom he was afterward associated in partnership. During the epidemic of yellow fever, in 1822, he was among the most indefatigable and untiring in his efforts to overcome the disease; and again, during the cholera of 1832, his protracted labors and ceaseless devotion were appropriately recognized by the city authorities in the presentation of a service of silver. During his long career he occupied various positions of honor and importance in the profession, and numbers of men now eminent in the medical world pursued their studies under his auspices. He was formerly president of the Academy of Medicine of New York; was a professor, and subsequently president of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, and was for many years connected, as attending and consulting physician, with the New York Hospital. Dr. Cock was long an active member, and at his death a vice-president, of the American Bible Society. Retired for some years, through the infirmities of age and ill-health, from the practice of his profession, he has left the worthy record of a long and honored life, and a memory gratefully cherished by all who knew him as a skilful physician, a kind friend, and a Christian gentleman.

June 14.—Dixon, Joseph, a remarkable inventor; died in Jersey City, aged 71 years. He was self-educated, and developed his extraordinary talent for invention before he had attained his majority, having made a machine for cutting files. He learned the printer's trade, afterward that of wood engraving, then lithography, and afterward studied medicine, and in that connection became interested in chemistry, becoming finally one of the most accomplished and comprehensive chemists in the country. He was a thorough optician; and had no equal in his knowledge of photography. He took up the experiments of Daguerre in 1839, and was probably the first person to take a portrait by the camera. He showed Prof. Morse how to take portraits by means of a reflector, so that the subjects should not appear reversed. Morse tried to get the plan patented in Europe. Mr. Dixon built the first locomotive, with wooden wheels, but with the same double crank now used; it caused a sneer at the time, but, when it became demonstrated that a steam-engine could be run on wheels and perform the services of beasts of burden, his double crank was adopted. He originated the process of transferring on stone, now used the world over by lithographers. He invented the process of photo-lithography, and published it years before it was believed to be useful. By his process of transferring, the old bank-notes were easily counterfeited, and it was to guard against the abuse of his own process that he brought out the system of printing in colors on the bills, and had the method patented, but never received any benefit from the patent, all the banks having used it without pay. Many of our readers will remember the original "red dog" money, and the present process used by the Government, for printing in colors, for which a large amount is paid to patentees, is the old process of Mr. Dixon's for which his patent had expired long before, and the present patents are therefore untenable. He perfected the system of making collodion for the photographers, and assisted Mr. Harrison in getting a true system for grinding the lenses for camera-tubes. He first invented the anti-friction metal, which has been for a great many years known as "Babbitt metal," and he is the father of the steel-melting business in this country. He invented a vast number of machines and processes, but he is most widely known among manufacturers as the originator of the plumbago crucible as now made. He started the business in 1827, in Salem, Mass., and brought it to Jersey City in 1847. His name had become known in all civilized countries as a crucible-maker, and his establishment in Jersey City is the largest of the kind in the world. He was singularly self-reliant, never failed in his mechanical undertakings, even in the last, that of the great orchestrion, that occupied his time for nearly eleven years, but which stood before him perfect at last, and still stands—a monument of his great skill, science, and perseverance.

June 16.—Howland, William W., a distinguished merchant of New York, long the senior partner of the great house of Howland and Aspinwall; died in New York City, aged 71 years. He was born in New Bedford, Mass., in June, 1798, came to New York at the age of nineteen, was for three years a clerk for Hicks, Jenkins & Co., then a leading commission-house in New York, and in that time had developed such remarkable business abilities that his employers took him into the firm. He remained an active partner till the winding up of the concern, and then entered upon a still larger enterprise, which made his name known all over the world, and insured him an immense fortune.

June 18.—Ives, Nathan Beers, M. D., an eminent physician, of New Haven, Conn.; died there, aged 67 years. He was born in New Haven in 1806, graduated at Yale College

in the class of 1825, and at the Medical School in 1828, and, following the example of his father and grandfather, entered upon his profession in his native city, where his talents, industry, and social qualities, soon placed him in the front rank. With his father he was also for many years engaged in private medical instruction. The unremitting labors of his profession, however, proved too severe for his health, and a few years previous to his death he retired from active practice.

June 21.—GREENLEAF, Rev. PATRICK HENRY, D. D., an Episcopal clergyman; died suddenly in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 62 years. He was born in New Gloucester, Me., July, 1807, graduated at Bowdoin College, in the class of 1825, and had been for some years Rector of Emmanuel Church in Brooklyn.

June 22.—EATON, Captain WILLIAM B., a distinguished shipmaster, and captain in the volunteer naval service; died at North Chelsea, Mass., aged 50 years. He commenced life as a sailor, and for many years commanded some of the finest ships sailing from this port in the Valparaiso trade, being considered one of our most skilful navigators. Upon the outbreak of the late war he left the civil for the volunteer service, and commanded several gunboats and transports, in which he was very successful in taking prizes, among which was the large iron ship Circassian. Recently he was in command of the steamer De Soto, of the New York and New Orleans line. His death was supposed to have resulted from the bite of an insect while working in his garden.

June 24.—DAVENPORT, Elder WILLIAM, a minister of the Christian Church; died at Nebraska City, aged 72 years. He was a native of Kentucky, and in early life a slaveholder, but manumitted his slaves before 1834, and removed to Tazewell County, Ill., where he was a preacher and pastor for more than thirty years. In 1848 his brother and himself established a school at Walnut Grove, which has since become Eureka College. He was a Union man during the war, and was taken prisoner by John Morgan.

June 24.—MASON, DANIEL GREGORY, of the publishing firm of Mason Brothers, New York; died at Schwalbach, Germany, aged 49 years. He was a native of Massachusetts, and a man of fine literary attainments and musical culture. His health had been failing for several months, and, upon the advice of physicians, he went to Carlsbad, Germany, but, finding no relief, left for the place in which he died.

June 26.—BARKER, JAMES W., a prominent politician, merchant, and philanthropist of New York; died at Rahway, N. J., aged 54 years. He was born in White Plains, Westchester County, N. Y., served as clerk in a mercantile house, and soon entered into business for himself, which his energy and good management rendered exceedingly prosperous. He was an earnest and zealous Whig, and, after the disorganization of that party, he united with others in founding the "Order of the Star-Spangled-Banner," a secret organization for the purpose of preventing the political ascendency of foreign-born inhabitants of this country, of which order he became the head in 1853. In 1860 Mr. Barker united with the supporters of Mr. Lincoln, and was ever after an earnest and zealous Republican. In 1863 he established a large mercantile house in Pittsburg, doing a business of nearly two millions per annum. At the time of his death he was president of the Eclectic Life Insurance Company.

June 30.—BRIGGS, GEORGE, formerly a member of Congress from New York; died at Saratoga, N. Y., aged 64 years. He was born in Fulton County, N. Y., but, when eight years of age, removed with his parents to Vermont, where he was educated, and for several years engaged in agricultural and mercantile pursuits. In 1837 he was elected by the Whig party to the lower House of the Vermont Legislature, serving one term, at the end of which, in 1838, he settled in New York City, and embarked in the hardware business, which he followed for many years, amassing a large fortune. He represented the Whig party in Congress from 1849 to 1853, being elected from the Fifth New York District, and was also elected to the Thirty-sixth Congress from the Seventh District of New York, serving as chairman on the Committee on Revolutionary Claims. He was a delegate to the Philadelphia "National Union Convention" in 1866, since which time he had taken but little part in political matters.

June —.—MOULTRIE, JAMES, M. D., an eminent physician and medical professor in South Carolina Medical College; died at Columbia, S. C. He was passionately devoted to natural science, and, in the intervals of professional labor, had made large contributions to the different departments of zoology.

June —.—TERRY, HENRY D., Brigadier-General of Volunteers in the late war; died in Washington, D. C. He was a native of Connecticut, but emigrated early in life to Michigan, where he had entered upon the legal profession before the commencement of the war. He had given considerable attention to military matters for some years, and, when the call was made for troops in June, 1861, he raised a regiment (the fifth Michigan), of which he was appointed colonel, and which was mustered into the service, August 28, 1861. They were ordered to the Army of the Potomac, and such were the ability and military skill manifested by Colonel Terry, that on the 17th of July, 1862, he was commissioned brigadier-general, having already for some months been in command of a brigade. He served through the war in the Army of the Potomac, behaving with great gallantry in the several battles in which he was engaged, and, when mustered out of service in 1865, resumed the practice of his profession in Washington, D. C., where he continued to reside till his death.

July 2.—ROCHE, JAMES, an Irish patriot and

journalist; died in New York, aged 51 years. He was born at Lisconduff, County Monaghan, Ireland; received a liberal education, and early manifested a taste for journalism. In 1854 he came to this country, and subsequently was identified with several journals, was associated with Thomas Francis Meagher in the conduct of the *Irish News*, and later was engaged upon the *Sun*. In 1861 he went to his native country for the benefit of his family, and, while in Ireland, published the *Galway American*, in which he strongly advocated the Union cause, suffering some persecution in consequence. He was an earnest patriot, and quick in his sympathies for the wronged and oppressed.

July 5.—BRANCH, Colonel JAMES R., a Confederate officer and Southern politician; was killed by an accident at Richmond, aged 40 years. He was born in Petersburg, where he resided most of his life; graduated at Randolph-Macon College in 1847, and shared in the highest honors of his class. When the war broke out, he raised a company of artillery, known as Branch's Battery, and with it entered the Confederate service. He was severely wounded at Plymouth, and was finally forced to relinquish his command. The latter part of his life was devoted to politics.

July 6.—DAY, Rev. OLIN B., D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman; died at Hollis, N. H., aged 63 years. He was a native of West Springfield, Mass.; graduated at Amherst College in 1834, and at Andover Theological Seminary in 1837. He was settled at Derry Village, N. H., till 1852, when he became pastor of the Congregational Church in Hollis. Subsequent to 1863 he was a member of the Board of Trustees of Dartmouth College.

July 14.—GEUBE, HEINRICH, a German journalist and humorous writer; died suddenly after alighting from the cars at Mantua, N. J., returning from Baltimore to New York, aged 49 years. He was a native of Hanover, Germany, and a graduate of the University of Göttingen. In 1848 he played an important part in the revolutionary movement in Germany, and was a member of the German Parliament. In 1850 he came to this country, and first established himself as a school-teacher, but subsequently engaged as a writer. At the time of his death he was connected with the *New-Yorker Demokrat*.

July 14.—HALLOCK, Rev. B. B., a Universalist clergyman, author, and editor, of New York City; was killed by an accident on the Erie Railway, near Mast Hope, aged 65 years. He was born at Brookhaven, L. I. He commenced preaching in 1838, and was settled over the old Fifth Society of the Universalist Church, New York City, and was also principal of the Mechanics' Institute School. About twelve years ago he retired from the pulpit. He was a prominent Mason and Odd-Fellow, and had written a book on Odd-Fellowship. He was also publisher of the *Ambassador*, now *Leader*, and for several years editor of an Odd-Fellow periodical.

July 18.—BUCKNER, Commander WILLIAM P., U. S. N.; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 60 years. He was born in Kentucky, and belonged to the well-known family of Buckners in that State. In 1821 he was appointed to the Navy from Arkansas, and, after passing through the various grades, was commissioned a commander in 1862, and placed on the retired list. He resided for some time in Maryland.

July 18.—CLERC, LAURENT, A. M., an eminent deaf-mute and instructor of deaf-mutes; died in Hartford, Conn., aged 83 years. He was born in La Balme, department of Isère, France; educated by the Abbé Sicard in Paris, and, after eight years' study, became a teacher of the highest classes. In 1815 Dr. Thomas H. Gallaudet, founder of the Deaf and Dumb Asylum at Hartford, met Mr. Clerc in Paris, and persuaded him to come with him to the United States, which he accordingly did the following year. In 1817 the asylum was opened, Messrs. Gallaudet and Clerc being the teachers, the latter devoting his whole life thenceforth to the interests of the asylum, though after 1858 he had retired from the most arduous duties of his profession. His ability, zeal, and graces of character, won for him the respect and love not only of his pupils, but of all with whom he was brought into contact.

July 18.—VENABLE, GEORGE H., editor; died in Petersburg, Va. He was a native of Virginia, and, though possessed of a fine literary taste, made but few contributions to literature until in 1867 he became connected with the Petersburg *Index*.

July 20.—WHITELEY, Colonel L. A., an enterprising journalist; died in Washington, D. C. He was associate editor of the Louisville *Journal*, during the rise, triumphs, and fall of the Know-Nothing party of Kentucky, and for many years controlled the Baltimore *Clipper*. Subsequently he had charge of the Washington Bureau of the New York *Herald*, and during the past few years has filled a prominent position on the *National Intelligencer* of that city.

July 23.—ALBERTI, GEORGE F., a noted slave-catcher; died in Philadelphia, aged 79 years. He was for many years a sheriff, and, by his cruelty and violence, a terror to all who were in any way amenable to the law. When the Fugitive-slave law was passed, he became its special champion, and carried out its provisions vigorously. His energy, however, got him into trouble in 1850. He returned the child of a fugitive-slave woman, born in New Jersey, with its mother to Maryland. He was sentenced to ten years' imprisonment, and a fine of $1,000, but was pardoned before the expiration of his term. Of late years he lived a retired life.

July 22.—DOUGLASS, Rev. JOHN L., a Baptist clergyman and missionary in Burmah; died at Bassein, of fever. He was a native of Rut-

land, Ohio; studied several years at Hamilton, and graduated at Union College in 1850. The same year he was ordained, and was for a time pastor of a church at St. Ann, N. Y. Subsequently he held a charge in Pittsburg, Pa., and in 1854 sailed for Burmah, where he labored till 1860. Returning to the United States, he held a pastorate in Philadelphia three years, and again returned to his missionary field, where he remained until his death.

July 22.—LEGGETT, GILBERT, a veteran police officer; died in New York City, aged 75 years. He was a native of that city, and in early life was a sailor, serving in that capacity on board the privateer Armstrong, in the War of 1812. When the vessel was captured by the British at a Spanish port, he was sent to the prison at Dartmoor, England, where he was confined for two years. In 1858 he was detailed at Essex Market Police Court, and has been a member of the Metropolitan force from its organization.

July 23.—CRAPO, HENRY H., formerly Governor of Michigan; died in Flint, Mich., aged 65 years. He was born at Dartmouth, Mass., but early removed to New Bedford, where he continued to reside until his removal to Michigan, in 1856, after which he was largely engaged in the manufacture and sale of lumber. He held at one time the office of Mayor of Flint; in 1862 was elected to the State Senate, and in 1864 was chosen Governor, and re-elected in 1866.

July 24.—SHERWIN, THOMAS, LL. D., a prominent educator; died at Dedham, Mass. He was born in Westmoreland, N. H., March 26, 1799. After seven years spent in the family of a physician, with but limited advantages for schooling, he was apprenticed at the age of fourteen to the clothier's trade, in Groton, Mass. Improving his spare time, however, in study, and at the close of his apprenticeship devoting his whole attention to mental culture, he entered Harvard College in 1821, graduating among the first in his class in 1825. Having had in the mean time, and subsequently for a year, experience in teaching, he was appointed teacher of mathematics in Harvard. From 1828 he was a prominent teacher in Boston; for many years was principal of the Boston English High School, and was at one time president of the American Institute of Instruction. He was the author of an Algebra and other text-books.

July 25.—LANGE, ALBERT, born in Charlottenburg, province of Brandenburg, Prussia, December 16, 1801; died at his residence in Terre Haute, Ind. Mr. Lange was graduated at the University at Halle, where he joined a conspiracy, while yet a student, to overthrow the Prussian monarchy, and lay the foundation of a great nationality based upon a free constitution, and self-government. The organization was exposed by the confession of one of the members to a Catholic priest, and Mr. Lange was tried, convicted, and sentenced to close confinement in the fortress of Glogau. At the end of one year the severity of the sentence was mitigated by order of the King. He was held, however, as a political prisoner a period of five years, during which time he studied the Constitution of the United States, read and translated into the German some of Mr. Clay's speeches, as well as portions of Shakespeare's plays, and formed the determination to come to this country. Although sentenced for fifteen years, at the end of five years he was pardoned, and restored to citizenship, but immediately sailed for the United States, arriving here in the year 1829. In 1849 he was appointed consul to Amsterdam, through the influence of Mr. Fillmore, then Vice-President. In 1860, as candidate of the Republican party of Indiana, he was elected Auditor of State, in which office he served one term of two years, doing excellent service with Governor Morton in obtaining means for equipping troops at the outbreak of the late war. Returning to his adopted city he was elected mayor, which place he held two terms.

In social and political life Mr. Lange was distinguished for his courtesy and refinement. Possessing a fine classical education, and having acquired a thorough knowledge of the laws and customs of this country, he took pleasure in aiding and assisting all who came to him, and especially those who, like himself, had left the Fatherland and found a home in the New World.

July 26.—JEWETT, SIMEON B.; died in Clarkson, N. Y. He was formerly United States Marshal for the Western District of New York.

July 30.—KEEP, HENRY, a distinguished financier and railroad manager; died in New York City, aged 51 years. He was born in Jefferson County, N. Y., and, after suffering many hardships through poverty, made his way to Honeoye Falls, near Rochester, where he obtained employment first as a teamster. Laying by a little money, he invested it during the financial crisis of 1837 in depreciated currency, which, upon its subsequent rise, yielded him a handsome profit. Venturing more, he bought up a considerable amount of Canada bank-notes from people living on the American frontier, at a discount, and, going to different towns in Canada, had them cashed at par. In this way he made sufficient capital for starting a banking establishment at Watertown, and subsequently established other country banks. Removing to New York, where his field of operations could be more extended, he was soon widely known as a successful operator in railroad stocks, taking his place upon the list of millionnaires. He was treasurer of the Michigan Southern Railroad from 1861 to 1863. In 1866 he was president of the New York Central Railroad, but resigned at the end of six months. In June of 1868 he was elected president of the Chicago and Northwestern Railroad, which position he retained till his death. He

was also controlling manager of the Northern Indiana and president of the Cleveland and Toledo Railroads.

July —.—XAUPI, Rev. Father HONORATUS X.; died at Mount Hope Retreat, near Baltimore, Md., aged 83 years. He was a native of France, and was for forty years professor of French at Mount St. Mary's College, Emmettsburg. He was ordained priest by the late Archbishop Carroll.

Aug. 1.—WILSON, Rev. SAMUEL B., D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and professor of theology; died in Hampden-Sidney, Prince Edward County, Va., aged 86 years. He was born in Virginia; educated at Hampden-Sidney College; studied theology under some of the great theologians of Virginia in the beginning of the present century; was ordained in 1806, and settled the same year at Fredericksburg, Va., where he remained as pastor, greatly esteemed and beloved, till 1841, when he was called to fill the chair of theology in the Union Theological Seminary, at Hampden-Sidney, then just vacant by the death of Dr. Baxter. He continued in this professorship until his death, a period of twenty-eight years, and filled it with marked ability, though, for the last few years, somewhat infirm in body.

Aug. 6.—BAKER, DAVID JEWETT, a pioneer settler and political leader in Illinois for many years; died at Alton, Ill., aged 77 years. He was born in East Haddam, Conn., September 7, 1792, of Revolutionary stock, removed with his parents to Ontario County, N. Y., in 1800, fitted himself for college, while engaged in the work of a farm in the wilderness, and graduated from Hamilton College, Clinton County, N. Y., in 1816, studied law with Hon. John Dixon, of Ontario County, and was admitted to the bar in 1819. He married, and removed to Illinois the same year, settling at Kaskaskia, then the capital of the State, and speedily obtained a large practice on that circuit, becoming a few years later probate judge of Randolph County. In 1823 an attempt was made to introduce slavery into Illinois, by an amendment of the constitution. He opposed this with such energy with voice and pen, that the supporters of slavery in the State determined to kill him, and Thomas Reynolds (afterward Governor of Missouri) attacked him with a bludgeon in the streets of Kaskaskia, inflicting a blow upon his head, the scar of which remained till his death. In 1829 he was appointed by Governor Edwards United States Senator, to fill a vacancy, and served till 1831; carrying through Congress the important measure of selling the public lands to actual settlers in quantities of forty acres, which greatly facilitated the settlement of Illinois and other new States. In 1833 General Jackson appointed him United States Attorney for Illinois, and Mr. Van Buren reappointed him, so that he filled this important office till 1841. He became a Whig in 1840, and a Republican in 1854, taking an active part in the political struggles of both parties, but holding no office, and only once a candidate.

Aug. 7.—CHAPMAN, CHARLES, an eminent criminal lawyer and politician of Connecticut; died in Hartford, Conn., aged 70 years. He was born in Newtown, Conn., in June, 1799, his father being Asa Chapman, an eminent lawyer, and judge of the Supreme Court; received a good academic education, was admitted to the bar in 1823, practised law in Newtown 1824–'27, removed to New Haven, and in 1832 to Hartford; was a member of the Connecticut Legislature three times before 1841; United States District Attorney, 1841–'45; member of Congress from First District, Connecticut, 1851–'53; candidate of the Temperance party for Governor in 1854; and in 1856 joined the Democratic party. Though occasionally active in political life, Mr. Chapman's greatest power was manifested in his profession. As a criminal lawyer he had no superior in his State, hardly one in the nation. He was a man of infinite wit, great sarcastic power, and a genial companion and friend.

Aug. 7.—EASTMAN, PHILIP, LL. D., an eminent jurist of Maine; died in Saco, Me., aged 70 years and 6 months. He was born in Chatham, N. H., in February, 1799, educated at Fryeburg, Me., and Bowdoin College, graduating in 1820, studied law with Stephen Chase, and Judges Baylies and Dana, and was admitted to the bar at Paris, Me., in 1823. He practised law at North Yarmouth, Me., 1823–'36; at Harrison, Me., 1836–'47; and at Saco, 1847–'69. In 1840 he was associated with Ebenezer Everett, Esq., in revising and publishing the "General Statutes of Maine;" in 1840–'42 he was a member of the Maine Senate. In 1842–'43 he was a commissioner to locate the claims of settlers on the northeastern boundary of Maine under the Washington Treaty; and for five years subsequently commissioner for Cumberland County. From 1831 to 1869 he was a member of the Board of Overseers of Bowdoin College. In 1849 he published a carefully-prepared digest of the first twenty-six volumes of the "Maine Law Reports." As a lawyer, he took a high rank among the leading jurists of the State, which has furnished so many eminent members of the legal profession.

Aug. 8.—LITTLE, CHARLES C., a leading Boston publisher and importer of books for more than forty years; died at Cambridge, Mass., aged 70 years. He was born at Kennebunk, Me., July 25, 1799, went to Boston early in life and entered a shipping-house, where he remained but a short time. After spending a winter at Charleston, S. C., Mr. Little returned to Boston and entered the bookstore of Carter, Hilliard & Co. He subsequently became a member of the firm of Hilliard, Gray, Little & Wilkins, in which he continued until the formation of his partnership with the late James Brown, in the year 1837, under the style of Charles C. Little & Co., or as it appeared on their books, Charles C. Little and James Brown.

This was subsequently changed, by the admission of other partners, to Little, Brown & Co. The house were not only large publishers of standard works, such as Bancroft's Histories, the Aldine edition of British Poets, White's Shakespeare, etc., but for many years the most extensive law publishers in the United States, and also the largest importers of standard English law and miscellaneous works, introducing to American buyers the "Encyclopædia Britannica," the great dictionaries of Dr. William Smith, and many other standard works. In all these great enterprises Mr. Little was active, energetic, and prompt. He was highly esteemed in private life. For nearly a year before his death his health had been impaired, and he had spent some months at the South, and had but recently returned.

Aug. 11.—NUNNS, ROBERT, a celebrated piano-forte maker; died at Setauket, L. I., aged 78 years. He was born in 1791, and had been engaged in the business over fifty years, being, it was said, the oldest builder of piano-fortes in the United States.

Aug. 12.—NICHOLS, JEREMIAH, an influential and active politician of Pennsylvania; died in Philadelphia, in his 47th year. He was a native of Philadelphia, and was born in 1822. In 1860 he was elected to the State Senate by the Republicans from the First District, which had always been strongly Democratic. He was re-elected in 1863, and served until 1866. Originally a carpenter, Mr. Nichols was a man of no culture, but was thoroughly familiar with the inner workings of local politics. He was especially identified with the Cameron wing of the Pennsylvania Republicans. In social life he was exceedingly popular, and known as a man of generous impulses.

Aug. 14.—EVANS, HENRY G., a former journalist and publisher of New York City; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., in the 57th year of his age. Mr. Evans was co-editor and proprietor of the *New York Evening Mirror* almost from the beginning of its career to its close, and was one of the best writers for the daily press in the city. For fifteen years past (since the discontinuance of the *Mirror*) he had been extensively engaged in mercantile business, and maintained a high reputation.

Aug. 14.—KAPFF, EDWARD, a gallant officer of volunteers in the late war, Colonel of the 7th Regiment New York State Volunteers (Steuben Regiment) in 1861 and 1862, a native of Germany, and subsequently returned thither; died at Stuttgart, Germany.

Aug. 15.—NAGLE, WILLIAM J., an officer of volunteers in the late war, and subsequently a Fenian leader; died by suicide in New York City. He was a native of New York, but of Irish parentage, was captain in 88th Regiment New York Volunteers 1861–'63, became identified with the Fenians in 1863, visited Ireland in their behalf, was arrested and imprisoned by the British Government, and after his discharge, in consequence of representations of the American minister, returned to New York, but was in poor health and depressed. He had recently been appointed a clerk in the Tax-Commissioner's Office.

Aug. 16. — JÄGER, BENOIT, a venerable French scholar and professor, died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 83 years. He was a native of France, but had long been resident in the United States, and was for many years Professor of Ancient and Modern Languages in some of the collegiate institutions of Brooklyn.

Aug. 17.—CLARK, Rev. JAMES A., Professor of Latin in Kalamazoo College, and former editor of the *Michigan Christian Herald;* died in Kalamazoo, Mich., aged 41 years. He was a native of Washington, Berkshire County, Mass., was prepared for college at Shelburne Falls Academy, Mass., and entered Williams College in 1849, whence he graduated with honor in 1853, and was subsequently offered a tutorship in the college; but, after teaching for a year in the academy at Shelburne Falls, he entered Newton Theological Seminary and graduated in 1857. Removing to the West, he became pastor of the Baptist Church in Adrian, Mich., and subsequently at Fairfield in the same State. In 1861 he was called to a professorship in Kalamazoo College, and remained there till 1864, when he took charge, as editor, of the *Michigan Christian Herald* at Detroit, and continued in that position till the consolidation of the paper with the *Standard* at Chicago, in 1867, remaining corresponding editor till his death. In 1867 he was recalled to Kalamazoo, this time as Latin professor, acting also as treasurer of the college. He was at the same time the treasurer of the State Convention. In 1868 Prof. Clark entered with all his heart into the effort for the further endowment of the college, and his labors were crowned with the most gratifying success, though the exposure and overwork were, perhaps, the causes of his premature death.

Aug. 23. — TENNEY, JOHN S., LL. D., a Maine jurist; died in Norridgewock, Me., aged 80. He was born in New Hampshire in 1788, educated at Bowdoin College, studied law, and settled at Norridgewock, taking rank for many years past as one of the ablest lawyers and judges of the State. After occupying many subordinate positions, he was elected Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the State, and served from 1856 to 1863.

Aug. 24.—DOUB, Rev. PETER, D.D., a Methodist clergyman and professor, died at Greensboro, N. C., aged 74 years. He had been a member of the North Carolina Conference for more than fifty years, and was for two or three years a professor in the Methodist Theological Seminary in that state.

Aug. 25.—MCDONALD, DAVID, a jurist of Indiana; died at Indianapolis, Ind. He had been Judge of the United States District Court for the Indiana District since 1866.

Aug. 25.—PENNINGTON, AARON S., an able lawyer, brother of the late William Penning-

ton, Governor of New Jersey and Speaker of the House of Representatives; died in Paterson, N. J., in the 70th year of his age. He had practised law at Paterson for many years, principally as a Chancery lawyer, and was formerly a State Senator and Public Prosecutor of the Pleas for Passaic County. He was also Vice-Governor of the Society for Establishing Useful Manufactures, and at one time acted as governor of that society. He was esteemed for his probity in his profession, and for his generous social qualities.

Aug. 27.—DURIVAGE, J., an active journalist and author; died at Memphis, Tenn. He was a native of Boston, a versatile and agreeable writer, and a gentleman of amiable manners and kindly disposition.

Aug. —.—GRIGG, JOHN WARNER, a wealthy citizen of Philadelphia, son of the late John Grigg, publisher; died at Philadelphia, aged about 50 years. He bequeathed the following sums to the various charities of his native city: the Pennsylvania Hospital, $50,000; the Charity Hospital, $10,000; the Foster Home Association, $10,000; the Northern Home for Friendless Children, $5,000; the Merchants' Fund Society, $10,000; the House of the Good Shepherd, $10,000; the first troop of Philadelphia city cavalry, $10,000; the Union Benevolent Society, $5,000; to each of the seven soup societies of the city of Philadelphia—namely, the Northern, Central, Western, Kensington, Spring Garden, Moyamensing and Southwark—$1,000, $7,000. Total, $117,000.

Aug. —.—HARASZTHY, Colonel AGOSTIN, an enterprising and energetic Hungarian explorer and pioneer, born in Hungary in 1812 and educated there; emigrated to the United States many years ago; lived for some years in Wisconsin, Iowa, and Texas; came to California in 1850; was Superintendent of the Mint at San Francisco 1853–'57; afterward engaged largely in the culture of the grape, was Superintendent of the Buena Vista Vinicultural Society's Vineyard in Sonoma County, and was sent in 1864 to Europe by the State of California, to investigate the culture of the grape there and procure European varieties; he returned with large supplies of the best European kinds, and published in 1865 a large and valuable treatise on grape culture and wine-making in Europe and in California; in 1867 he went to Nicaragua and obtained from that government the right to manufacture distilled liquors for twenty years; while exploring near Leon, he fell into a stream, and was devoured by alligators.

Sept. 2.—BOOLE, FRANCIS I. A., a New York politician; died in the Insane Hospital at Utica, N. Y., aged 49 years. He was born in Nova Scotia, May 21, 1820, came to New York in his youth and learned the trade of shipbuilding. He first came into notice as Common Councilman for all the districts of the Eleventh Ward, New York City, about 1858. He was subsequently elected Alderman of the same ward, and in 1862 was appointed City Inspector by Mayor Opdyke. In the autumn of 1863 he was nominated for Mayor by Tammany Hall, but was defeated by C. Godfrey Gunther, coming out of the canvass with less votes than either Mr. Gunther or Mr. Blunt, the Republican candidate. On the creation of the Board of Health in 1865 the office of City Inspector was abolished, and, Mr. Boole's great popularity having sensibly waned, his mind became affected, and he soon manifested symptoms of softening of the brain.

Sept. 2.—OSBORNE, THOMAS B., LL. D., a lawyer, judge, and political leader of Connecticut; died at New Haven, Conn., aged 72 years. He was born in Fairfield County, Conn., in 1797, educated at Yale College, graduating in the class of 1817, studied law, was judge of Fairfield County for several years, and represented the Fourth Congressional District in Congress from 1839 to 1843. In 1848 he removed to New Haven, was law professor in the Law Department of Yale College from 1855 to 1865, and in 1856 received from Wesleyan University the degree of LL. D.

Sept. 3.—OXENDINE, Rev. ARCHIBALD W., a Baptist clergyman and Revolutionary veteran; died at Benton's Creek, Phelps County, Mo., aged 110 years. He was born in South Carolina, August 26, 1759, was one of Marion's men during the Revolution, and had been very many years a minister of the Baptist denomination. Although he had been unable to walk for the last three years, he retained his sight, hearing, and intellect, up to the last hour.

Sept. 5.—PALMO, FERDINAND, an Italian cook, confectioner, and founder and manager of an opera-house in New York City; died there, aged 85 years. He was born in Naples, Italy, in 1784, emigrated to the United States in 1802, and, after spending four or five years at the South, came to New York City in 1807, and, by skill, industry, and economy, was able soon to open a small restaurant and confectionery of his own. After a number of years he built the large restaurant, which for many years occupied the corner of Reade Street and Broadway, known to old New-Yorkers as the *Café des Mille Colonnes*, and made a fortune there. In 1835 he determined to sell this, and to build and manage an Italian opera-house, and erected what was afterward known as Burton's Theatre, now the United States Court Rooms, in Chambers Street. He opened this for the first regular season in 1844, and in a very short time lost his entire fortune in the enterprise. He returned to his old profession, but he was past sixty years of age, and soon the failure of the house by which he was employed threw him out of employment. The theatrical and opera managers and actors, to whom he had always been a kind friend, hereupon established a fund for his support, by which his last years were rendered comfortable.

Sept. 5.—WORTH, JONATHAN, a leading politician and Unionist of North Carolina; died

at Raleigh, N. C., aged about 72 years. He was a member of the North Carolina Legislature from 1829 to 1834, and in 1831, during the height of the nullification excitement, introduced a resolution into the House of Commons of the State, denouncing it in the strongest terms. When the secession movement began, he opposed it with great vigor, and voted against the convention to take North Carolina out of the Union. He was known as a decided Unionist during the war, though, like Mr. Botts, of Virginia, he remained at his home and kept aloof from political action. In 1865 he was elected Governor of the State, and served until the reconstruction of the State, when he gave place to Governor Holden.

Sept. 10.—GOLD, SAMUEL WADSWORTH, M. D., an eminent physician and agriculturist, of West Cornwall, Conn.; died there, aged 75 years. He was educated at Williams College, graduating in the class of 1814, and studied medicine, practising for some years under a license. In 1829 he received the degree of M. D. from Williams College, and in 1836 from Yale College, of which he subsequently became a Fellow. He was a member of the Senate of Connecticut, and for many years, in connection with his son, Samuel W. Gold, Jr., M. D., had had the reputation of being in the very front rank of New England farmers. His contributions to agricultural literature and science were numerous and valuable.

Sept. 11.—BAHNSON, Right Rev. GEORGE F., D. D., a bishop of the Moravian Church, for the southern division; died at Salem, N. C., aged 64 years. A native of the Netherlands, where he was born in September, 1805, he came to this country many years ago, and was employed as a teacher in the Moravian Theological Seminary at Nazareth, Pa. He subsequently accepted a call as pastor of the Moravian Church at Lancaster, and officiated in that capacity until 1861, when he was ordained a bishop, and assumed the charge of the Church in the Southern States, taking up his residence in Salem, where he died. Bishop Bahnson had just returned from Europe, where he had been for several months, attending the General Council of the Moravian Church. He was a man of fine culture, amiable manners, and decided ability.

Sept. 18.—DORR, Rev. BENJAMIN, D. D., an eminent Episcopal clergyman and author of Philadelphia; died at Germantown, Pa., in the 74th year of his age. He was born in Salisbury, Conn., in 1796, graduated at Dartmouth College in 1817, and at the General Episcopal Theological Seminary in New York in 1820. He received ordination as a priest from Bishop Hobart in 1823; and after having taken charge, in turn, of the parishes of Lansingburg and Waterford, N. Y., and Trinity Church, Utica, and serving as secretary of the Episcopal Board of Missions, he, in 1837, became rector of Christ Church, Philadelphia, where he spent a useful ministry of thirty-two years. He received the degree of D. D. from the University of Pennsylvania in 1838. He was the author of several devotional works of considerable merit.

Sept. 19.—WOODBRIDGE, Rev. JOHN, D. D., a distinguished Congregationalist clergyman and author, born in Southampton, Mass., in 1784; died at Waukegan, Wis., in the 85th year of his age. He graduated at Williams College in 1804, and was ordained as pastor of the church in Hadley, June 20, 1810, where he remained until September 15, 1830, when he became pastor of the Bowery Presbyterian Church in N. Y. city. Here he remained about ten years, and was afterward settled at Bridgeport and New Hartford, Ct., and on the 16th day of February, 1842, became pastor of the Russell Church in Hadley, from which he was dismissed, at his own request, July 15, 1857. His entire pastorate in Hadley, therefore, lasted thirty-five years. Dr. Woodbridge came from a ministerial family, there having been but one break in the line of John Woodbridges, ministers of the Gospel, since the Reformation, or for more than three hundred years. Dr. Woodbridge possessed fine antiquarian tastes, and had made some valuable contributions to the early history of Old Hadley and the Connecticut Valley.

Sept. 21.—ROCKWOOD, Rev. GILBERT, a Congregationalist clergyman and missionary; died in Wilbraham, Mass., aged 58 years. He had been a missionary among the Tuscaroras from 1837 to 1861.

Sept. 22.—ALLEN, RICHARD L., an editor, author, and practical agriculturist; died in Stockholm, Sweden, aged 66 years. He was born in Hampden County, Mass., in October, 1803, educated at Westfield, Mass., and early entered into mercantile pursuits in New York City. Relinquishing this, he entered into literary pursuits and the study of the law in Baltimore, but on account of impaired health returned to a more active, out-door life in 1832. He had a large tract of woodland on the Niagara River, which he cleared and brought into cultivation, and commenced breeding various kinds of improved stock, a business in which he took great delight. In 1842, in conjunction with his elder brother, Mr. A. B. Allen, he founded the *American Agriculturist*, of which for thirteen years he was contributor, co-editor, and publisher. He also prepared during this period "The American Farm Book," a capital work, and also a valuable treatise on "The Diseases of Domestic Animals." The demand for improved agricultural implements, stimulated by the *Agriculturist*, led the Allen brothers to open an agricultural implement warehouse, which is still carried on, and this business became so extensive that they withdrew from the paper to conduct it. Mr. Allen had also a large amount of real estate at Manitowoc, Wis., and was greatly esteemed there for his liberality and kindness of heart. He was a man of cultivated intellect, of fine tastes, and a most generous and amiable disposition.

He was making a tour of Northern Europe at the time of his sudden death.

Sept. 27.—COWEN, BENJAMIN S., M. D., a prominent politician, jurist, and editor, of Ohio; died at St. Clairsville, Ohio, aged 76 years. He was born in Washington County, N. Y., in 1793; educated there; studied medicine, and received his diploma about 1817. In 1820 he removed to Moorefield, Harrison County, Ohio, and, after some years' practice as a physician, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1829. He removed to St. Clairsville in 1832, and, after a time, added to his professional duties the editorship of the Belmont *Chronicle*, of which he was proprietor and principal editor until 1852, when he relinquished it to his son, now Brigadier-General B. R. Cowen. In 1839 he was sent as a delegate to the convention which nominated General Harrison for President, and in 1840 was elected to Congress by the Whigs, where he succeeded Joshua R. Giddings as chairman of the Commitee on Claims. He took strong ground in favor of the Tariff of 1842, which passed by only one majority, and throughout his congressional career, as, indeed, throughout his long life, was always looked upon as a consistent antislavery man. During 1845 and 1846 he was a member of the Ohio Legislature, and from 1847 to 1852 was presiding judge of the Court of Common Pleas. At the commencement of the war he took an active part in raising men and money, and during its continuance his efforts to aid the Government were never relaxed.

Sept. 29.—EKIN, Rev. JOHN, D. D., an eloquent and able clergyman of the Associate Reformed Church, for many years a prominent and influential clergyman of Cincinnati, but of late settled in Kansas; died in Topeka, Kan., aged about 65 years.

Oct. 2.—NELSON, WILLIAM, a venerable citizen and lawyer of Westchester County, N. Y.; died at Peekskill, N. Y., in the 86th year of his age. He was born in Clinton, Dutchess County, N. Y., June 29, 1784; received an academical education, studied law, and was admitted to the bar of the Supreme Court in May, 1807, his license having been signed by Chief-Justice Kent. He practised law for more than fifty years in the counties of Westchester, Putnam, and Rockland, with ability and success. He was District Attorney for these three counties for thirty years; a member of the Assembly of New York in 1819 and 1820; State Senator in 1823–'24. Governor Yates urged him about this time to accept the circuit judgeship of the Second Circuit, but he declined. He remained in the active practice of his profession till 1847, when he was elected member of Congress from his district, and reëlected in 1849. He declined to be again a candidate, and returned to his practice, in which he continued till his eightieth year.

Oct. 15.—HASTINGS, FREDERICK H., an estimable citizen of Rensselaer County, N. Y., well known in the public councils of the State; died at Brainard's Bridge, N. Y., aged 51 years. He was a member of the New York State Senate in 1864–'65, and, though not a member of the legal profession, having been for many years engaged in manufacturing and farming, he was, from the public confidence in his ability and integrity, made chairman of the Committee on Manufactures, and assigned a prominent position on the committees on Claims, Public Health, and Medical Colleges and Societies. His strict integrity and freedom from partisanship won him high esteem from all who knew him well.

Oct. 16.—RITNER, JOSEPH, a leading politician of Pennsylvania, many years since; died in Carlisle, Pa., aged 90 years. He had been in early life a Federalist, and, on the organization of the Whig party in 1828, became a Whig. By that party, then, and for some years after, in the majority in Pennsylvania, he was elected Governor in 1835, and held office till 1839. He was not a man of very great abilities, but the able councillors he had about him, the late Thaddeus Stevens being one of the foremost, caused his administration to be respectable in character. During his term of office, a convention for revising the State constitution was held, and the new constitution was adopted in 1838. In the gubernatorial election which followed, the Democratic party gained the ascendency, and, after a campaign of unsurpassed bitterness, David R. Porter was elected Governor. Each party feared the other; it was reported that Governor Ritner would hold over, and there was so much talk of force to inaugurate Governor Porter, that Governor Ritner, naturally timid, requested that a body of U. S. troops might be sent to Harrisburg to keep the peace. Two bodies, each professing to be the Legislature, were in session. Before any actual collision, however, wiser counsels prevailed, and Governor Porter was inaugurated peacefully, and Governor Ritner retired to private life, taking no further part in the politics of the State. (*See* PORTER, DAVID R., in ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1867.)

Oct. 17.—RICE, VICTOR M., a Republican politician and political leader of New York; died at Oneida, Madison County, N. Y., aged 55 years. He was born at Clymer, Chautauqua County, N. Y., in 1814, but resided for many years in Buffalo; had received an excellent education, and was, for a considerable time, a teacher in that city, at first of penmanship, and subsequently the head of a commercial or business college. Though active in politics, he held no office until 1862, when he was elected Superintendent of Public Instruction, a position whose onerous and varied duties he performed with great success for three years. At the close of his term in 1865, he did not seek a reëlection, but returned to Buffalo, where he had since been a bank-officer. His death occurred from a carbuncle.

Oct. 18.—MACDONALD, MOSES, an active po-

litical leader in Maine; died at Saco, Me., aged 54 years 6 months. He was born in Limerick, Me., April 8, 1815; had a good academical education; studied law; was admitted to the bar in 1837, and practised his profession from 1837 to 1845. In 1841, 1842, and 1845, he was a member of the Maine Legislature, and in 1845 Speaker of the House; he was State Treasurer from 1847 to the close of 1849; member of Congress from the First Congressional District of Maine from 1851 to 1855; and Collector of the District of Portland, under President Buchanan, from 1857 to 1861.

Oct. 19.—MORTON, ALEXANDER, a celebrated gold-pen manufacturer, and a liberal and patriotic citizen of New York; died in New York City, aged 49 years. By the adoption of skilful automatic processes, invented by himself, he made a great change in the manufacture of gold pens about the year 1860, and thenceforth the pointing, tempering, and grinding of these pens, which had formerly been done unequally and often imperfectly by hand, was all accomplished by machinery. His pens had a high reputation, and an immense sale throughout the Union, and his large income was disbursed with a generous hand for the cause of the Union and its defenders.

Oct. 23.—AVERY, EPHRAIM K., a once famous Methodist clergyman; died in Pittsfield, Ohio, aged 70 years. He was a native of Connecticut, and had been for some years a Methodist preacher, and had attracted attention by his eloquence and ability, when he was stationed in Fall River, Mass., in 1832 and 1833. Here he became acquainted with a young woman, a member of his church, named Sarah Maria Cornell. They were for a considerable period very intimate, but without exciting any particular attention, Miss Cornell being affianced to another. At length the body of the girl was found near a haystack, in a field remote from the highway, and the circumstances made it evident that the double crime of seduction and murder had been committed. Mr. Avery's known intimacy with her led to the suspicion that he was the murderer. He was tried both by an ecclesiastical and a civil court; the former acquitting him after a careful and protracted trial, with emphatic assurance of his innocence, and the latter failing to make a case against him, and discharging him under a *nolle prosequi*. But the community refused to believe him innocent, and, after attempting in vain, for some years, to continue in the ministry, he felt compelled to withdraw from it, and removed to Ohio, where, for more than thirty years, he had led the life of a quiet, industrious farmer, and was greatly respected and beloved by his neighbors and acquaintances.

Oct. 23.—FARMER, JOHN W., a generous and philanthropic citizen of New York; died in Brooklyn, N. Y., aged 50 years. In the winter of distress which followed the financial panic of 1857, he not only gave bountifully of provisions to the poor, but established the soup-house system for their benefit, thus furnishing them with nutritious food at a rate much below what they could have prepared it for at their own homes, even if the meat had been given them. He followed the same course in 1861–'62. For four or five years past he had been deeply interested in coöperative movements, and had organized a number of co-operative societies in New York and vicinity. He was fertile in expedients to aid the poor to help themselves, and never chary of his own means in aiding them to do so.

Oct. 28.—HENRY, Rev. ROBERT W., D. D., an eminent and eloquent Presbyterian clergyman, educated at Princeton, N. J., and settled successively in Chicago, Ill., as co-pastor with Rev. Dr. McElroy, in New York City, and over the North Presbyterian Church, Philadelphia; died in Alexandria, Egypt. He had been making the tour of Europe and the East since May, 1869, and was bound homeward, when he was seized with the Syrian fever, at Alexandria, and died after a few days' illness.

Nov. 2.—BANGS, Rev. HEMAN, a pioneer Methodist clergyman; died in New Haven, Conn., aged 79 years. He was born in Fairfield, Conn., April 15, 1790, but early removed to Delaware County, N. Y. At the age of eighteen he was converted, and soon after was licensed to preach. In 1815 he joined the New York Conference, and continued in it for fifty-four consecutive years. For many years he was the presiding elder for the New Haven District, and in 1868 was the presiding elder of the South Long Island District. His ministry was a successful one, and during his pastorate he admitted some ten thousand persons to church membership.

Nov. 5.—RIGGS, Dr. JETUR R., a prominent physician of Paterson, N. J.; died at Drakeville, Sussex County, N. J. He was born in Morris County, N. J., June 20, 1809; studied medicine and graduated at the Barclay Street Medical University of New York. In 1828 he made an extensive sea-voyage over the world; practised his profession from 1832 to 1849; served two years in the New Jersey Legislature; in 1855 was elected for three years to the Senate of New Jersey; and in 1858 was chosen a Representative in Congress, serving as a member of the Committee on Manufactures.

Nov. 6.—HALL, Rev. HENRY LEWIS, a Congregationalist clergyman; died at Poughkeepsie, N. Y., aged 34 years. He was born in Guilford, Ct., in November, 1835; fitted for college at East Hampton; graduated with honor from Yale College in 1860; studied theology at New Haven one year; was one year with the army as chaplain of the Tenth Regiment Connecticut Volunteer Infantry; and then studied three years at Halle, in Germany, with Tholuck, in whose family he spent most of that time, and with whom he was on terms of cordial intimacy. He was a thorough scholar, a careful and elegant writer, a dignified and impressive

speaker, and a devoted pastor. In 1868 ill health compelled him to resign a pastorate in Auburn, Me., since which time he had been unable to resume the duties of his profession.

Nov. 7.—BASCOM, OLIVER, an active politician of the State of New York; died at Whitehall, N. Y., of heart-disease, aged 54 years. He was born in Orwell, Vt., at which place his father pursued the occupation of a farmer, and when quite young commenced life as a clerk in a store in Whitehall, N. Y. He afterward became a director of the Northern Transportation Company, and for ten years was secretary and treasurer of that corporation. About two years ago he resigned those offices, and entered the lumber firm of Brett, Spooner & Co. In the fall of 1868 he was elected Canal Commissioner, and performed the duties of that office with creditable assiduity, and thus probably aggravated the malady which terminated his career so suddenly.

Nov. 8.—KENT, Rev. ARATUS, a pioneer Congregationalist clergyman and home missionary, died at Galena, Ill., aged 75 years. He was born in Suffield, Conn., educated at Yale and Princeton, and, upon the completion of his theological course, applied to the Home Missionary Society for "a place so hard that no one else would take it," and in 1829 was sent to the Galena lead-mines. Here he was unceasing in his labors, and in less than two years had a Sabbath-school with ten teachers and from sixty to ninety scholars, having also established a day-school, which he conducted himself. In 1831 he organized the First Presbyterian Church in Galena, and, after holding a pastorate for several years, became in 1848 an agent of the Home Missionary Society. He was indefatigable in the performance of all his duties, never sparing himself in heat or cold, storm or sunshine. The foundation and present prosperity of Beloit College, and Rockford Female Seminary, are in a large degree owing to his energy. He was a man of remarkably generous impulses, and, with a salary always small, gave to charitable objects in the course of his ministerial career nearly seven thousand dollars.

Nov. 9.—PRATT, THOMAS G., a prominent politician and political leader of Maryland; died in Baltimore, aged 65 years. He was born in Washington in 1805; was educated in an academy in Georgetown, D. C., studied law, and frequently served in the Maryland Senate. In 1837 he was a presidential elector; from 1844 to 1848, Governor of Maryland; Senator in Congress from 1850 to 1857; a delegate to the Chicago Convention of 1864; and to the Philadelphia National Union Convention of 1866.

Nov. 11.—BINGHAM, Rev. HIRAM, a Congregationalist clergyman and missionary of the American Board; died in New Haven, Conn., aged 80 years. He was born at Bennington, Vt., graduated at Middlebury College in 1816, and at the Andover Seminary in 1819, being ordained the same year. Having a strong desire to carry the gospel to the Sandwich Islands, he offered his services to the American Board, and received an appointment in 1819. He was stationed on the Island of Oahu at Honolulu, which soon became the permanent seat of government, and the chief resort of whaling and other ships of the North Pacific, and his unwearied labors for a period of twenty years gave him a strong influence for good over the kings and chief rulers of that time. In 1841 Mr. Bingham was obliged to return to the United States, in consequence of the failure of his wife's health, which never was sufficiently recovered to admit of her return; and after her death, which occurred some years later, it was not considered advisable for him to resume his connection with the mission.

Nov. 11.—COIT, Rev. GURDON S., D. D., an Episcopal clergyman; died in Bridgeport, Conn. He was formerly a professor in Trinity College, Hartford, Conn., and for twenty-five years was Rector of St. John's Church, Bridgeport.

Nov. 11.—WARNER, WYLLYS, Secretary and Treasurer of Yale College; died in Chicago, aged 70 years. He graduated at Yale College in 1826, and subsequently at the Yale Theological Seminary; but, although licensed to preach, was never a settled pastor. In 1829 he was made a tutor at Yale, and was subsequently appointed agent to collect what was known as the $100,000 fund for the college, in which work he was very successful. In 1833 he was chosen treasurer of the college in place of James Hillhouse, deceased, and continued in that office until 1852, when failing health compelled him to resign. Upon the death of Rev. Samuel R. Andrew, secretary of the college, in 1858, Mr. Warner was elected to that office, which he continued to fill to the time of his death.

Nov. 15.—BALDWIN, ALEXANDER W., United States District Judge for Nevada; was killed at Alameda, Cal., by a railroad accident, aged 34 years. He was a native of Alabama, and son of Judge Joseph G. Baldwin of the Supreme Court of California, author of "The Flush Times of Alabama and Mississippi." Young Baldwin was educated for the law, and became a member of the successful firm of Stewart, Kirkpatrick, and Baldwin, of Virginia City, Nevada. When but thirty years of age he was chosen a United States district judge, and had already won himself much honor when his brilliant career was suddenly ended.

Nov. 15.—BUTTERFIELD, JOHN, a pioneer in the establishment of stage and express lines; died in Utica, N. Y., aged 86 years. He was born in Helderberg, N. Y., and was self-educated. In 1822 he removed to Utica to assist in the management of the regular stage-line for the transporting of passengers between Albany and Buffalo, and soon became the leading manager of that business in the State. Upon the establishment of railroads he at once directed his energies to that new project, and

was also one of the originators of the American Express Company, in which organization he was a directing power until his death. Perceiving the commercial importance of the electric telegraph, he took part in the establishment of the New York, Albany, and Buffalo Telegraph Company. He also aided largely in building up the city of Utica.

Nov. 23.—McLEAN, Rev. DANIEL VERCH, D. D., a Presbyterian clergyman and author; died at Red Bank, N. J., aged 68 years. He was a graduate of Miami University, Ohio, was for several years pastor of the old Tennent Church of Freehold, N. J.; afterward was president of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa., and at the time of his death was pastor of the Church at Red Bank.

Nov. 27.—KIERNAN, General JAMES L., Brigadier-General of Volunteers, in the late war; died in New York City, aged 32 years. He was a native of New York; received a liberal education, and graduated as a physician at the University of New York. When the war commenced he was in the practice of his profession, and was engaged at the same time as one of the editors of the *Medical Press*. His patriotism, however, led him to volunteer his services on behalf of his country. At the battle of Port Gibson, Miss., he was severely wounded, and fell into the hands of the enemy, but subsequently escaped. For his services in the field he was commissioned as a brigadier-general, and at the close of the war was appointed United States consul at Chin Kiang, China, the duties of which office he performed acceptably to the Government.

Nov. 27.—NICHOLAS, SAMUEL SMITH, a jurist and publicist of Kentucky; died in Louisville, aged 73 years. He was a son of George Nicholas, a colonel in the Revolutionary War, and was born in Lexington, Ky. When a youth he entered into active business in Baltimore under the care of his uncle, Robert Smith, afterward mayor of the city. Although but a lad, he was sent as supercargo to Lima and Canton, and he made the best use of the voyage to perfect his commercial and general education. On his return he entered into business in New Orleans. Thence he removed to Kentucky, and became a law student in the office of the late Chancellor Bibb, then living at Frankfort. Entering upon the practice of his profession in Louisville, he rose rapidly to a high position, and in December, 1831, became judge of the Court of Appeals. Subsequently he served in the State Legislature. He assisted in the preparation of the Revised Code of Kentucky, and was the author of a series of essays on constitutional law.

Nov. 28.—PRAY, ISAAC C., a New York journalist, author, and dramatic actor; died in New York City, aged 56 years. He was born in Boston in 1813, his father being one of the wealthiest merchants in that city. He was connected for some time with the *Journal of Commerce*, and afterward wrote for the *Herald*; was the author of "Virginius," a play first brought out at the Academy of Music, and was very successful as a theatrical manager.

Nov. —.— WALSH, BENJAMIN D., State Entomologist of Iowa; died at Rock Island, Ill., from the effects of an accidental injury, aged 61 years. He was born in England, but emigrated to the United States at the age of twenty-two years. He had received an excellent education in England, and, having a strong predilection for natural history, he devoted himself to the study of some branches of it for nearly forty years. He had been connected with the Natural History Society of Philadelphia, and the Smithsonian Institute, and had given much time to the investigation and arrangement of the very large collection of insects brought home by the various exploring expeditions. He was regarded as a standard authority on entomology, and for two years past had been employed by the State of Iowa in connection with the Agricultural College in investigating the insects of the State injurious to vegetation.

Dec. 2.—RICHARDSON, ALBERT DEANE, journalist and author; was assassinated in New York City, aged 36 years. He was born in Franklin, Mass., was educated in his native town and at Holliston, and at the age of seventeen went to Pittsburg, Pa., and engaged in teaching, employing his leisure time in writing for the press. Subsequently he removed to Cincinnati, where he was attached to the *Sun*, and afterward to the *Unionist*, the *Daily Columbian*, and the *Cincinnati Gazette*. Having made an engagement with the *Boston Journal*, he went out to Kansas as correspondent for that paper, and resided there for about two years, acting as secretary of the Territorial Legislature, and as adjutant-general to the Territorial Governor. He took an overland trip across the country as far south as the Rio Grande; and in the winter of 1859–'60 returned East. Having become connected with the *Tribune*, he spent a year in Colorado as correspondent for that paper, and upon his return went through the South on a secret mission for the *Tribune*. He was war correspondent of that paper from the summer and autumn of 1861 (when he was with Fremont in Missouri) to May, 1863, when, after numerous experiences in field and camp, he was taken prisoner by the enemy, on the Mississippi River, and held in confinement twenty months at various Southern prisons; escaped December 18, 1864, from Salisbury, N. C., prison, and reached Knoxville, Tenn., after incredible hardships, January 1st, 1865. After his escape he wrote "Field, Dungeon, and Escape," which sold to the extent of nearly 100,000 copies. His health being impaired, his visited California in the autumn of 1865, with Mr. Colfax and other friends, and on his return wrote "Beyond the Mississippi," which also had a very large sale, and which he revised in 1869, after another journey across the Plains. In 1868, while still in the occasional service of the *Tribune*, he wrote a biography

of General Grant for his Hartford publishers, which was very popular. In June, 1869, he went again to California, and wrote for the *Tribune* his "To and Back from the Pacific," a series of brilliant letters. He subsequently visited Chicago and Kansas for that paper, contributing at the same time to other periodicals and magazines. He had formed in 1867 the acquaintance of a Mrs. McFarland, the wife of a lawyer in New York City, who, from a variety of causes, desired a separation from her husband, and had for the time made an engagement as actress in one of the New York theatres. His attentions to her (they being fellow-boarders) excited the displeasure of McFarland, and he attempted, in March, 1868, to kill Richardson as he was escorting Mrs. McFarland from the theatre. The wounds received by Mr. Richardson were not very serious, and he refused to prosecute. Mrs. McFarland then determined to obtain a divorce from her husband, and there was an understanding between her and Richardson that, when the divorce was obtained, she was to become his wife. A divorce was obtained in the autumn of 1869, but Mr. Richardson had not subsequently seen Mrs. McFarland; when on the 26th of November McFarland, who had for some time previous threatened to take his life, appeared in the *Tribune* office, and, as Mr. Richardson came to the counter to inquire for his letters, shot him instantly. He lived for about a week after being wounded, and before his death the marriage ceremony was performed between him and Mrs. McFarland.

Dec. 8.—Potter, Hazard Arnold, M. D., an eminent surgeon of Western New York; died at Geneva, aged 58 years. He was born in Potter Township, Ontario (now Yates) County, N. Y.; graduated M. D. at Bowdoin College in 1835, and began the practice of his profession in Rhode Island, but, after a residence there of a few months, returned to his native town. In 1853 he removed to Geneva. In 1854 he performed for the first time, successfully, the operation of trephining the spine, and the same year performed the operation of gastrotomy, for the relief of intussusception of the bowels, with success. He was one of the first to remove ovarian tumors, and introduced a new method of amputation at the hip-joint, dissecting out the head of the femur and proceeding otherwise as if for the ordinary flap-operation. During the late war he entered the service as a volunteer surgeon. He was a strong advocate for the cause of temperance, to which he devoted much time the latter part of his life.

Dec. 9.—Squires, Captain Charles W., Assistant Superintendent of the Erie Railroad; died of an accidental injury received while in the performance of his duties, aged 32 years. He served through the entire war with great credit. At the battle of Williamsburg, when the Excelsior Brigade, under General Sickles, was forced back, and the enemy was pressing upon the reserve, two guns abandoned by the artillery were yet in position and loaded. Captain Squires, then second-lieutenant, seized the lanyard of each gun, waited until the Union troops had passed to the rear, and then fired, temporarily staying the advance, and giving his own forces additional time to retire. Captain Squires served through the Peninsular campaign, and was afterward upon the staff of General Berry, who was killed at Chancellorsville. While on a train, upon Thanksgiving-Day, he observed a switch out of place, and, after giving the alarm to the engineer, sprang from the engine as it slowed, and replaced the switch, but was himself thrown down, his feet being crushed beneath the wheels. Amputation was performed upon one, but he died from the shock.

Dec. 10.—Tomer, a venerable Christian Indian; died in Greenville, Me., aged 107 years.

Dec. 11.—Harris, George W. ("Sut Lovengood"), jurist, and author of humorous works; died near Knoxville, Tenn., aged 64 years. He was a native of Tennessee, and author of many works written in a witty and humorous style.

Dec. 11.—Upham, Nathaniel Gookin, LL. D., formerly Judge of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire; died in Concord, aged 68 years. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1820, and early gained a wide reputation as a lawyer. In 1833 he was appointed one of the Justices of the Supreme Court of New Hampshire, discharging the duties of that office with honor and fidelity for a period of ten years. In 1843 he became an officer of the Concord Railroad, and was connected with it for more than twenty years. He was for many years one of the strongest pillars of the Democratic party, and during the administration of President Pierce, who was a warm personal friend, was appointed a commissioner to London for the adjustment of claims then pending between citizens of the two countries. After the attack upon Fort Sumter, Judge Upham left the Democratic party and gave an unqualified support to the Government. In 1865 and 1866 he was sent by the Republicans to the State Legislature. He had a decided taste for historical and antiquarian research. In 1862 he received from Dartmouth College the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws.

Dec. 13.—Brewster, Brigadier-General William R., U. S. Volunteers; died in Brooklyn, L. I. In the late war, after the promotion of General Sickles, he commanded the Excelsior Brigade, and at the time of his death held a position in the United States Internal Revenue Department.

Dec. 14.—Waite, Henry Matson, LL. D., a Connecticut jurist; died at Lyme, Conn., aged 81 years. He graduated at Yale College in 1809; studied law, and was for many years Judge of County and Superior Courts. From 1851 he was a Justice of the Supreme Court of the State, and from 1854 to 1858 Chief Justice of the Supreme Court.

Dec. 18.—Henry, Hugh Horace, U. S. Marshal for the District of Vermont; died in

Chester, Vt., aged 55 years. He graduated at Dartmouth College in 1833, and subsequently served three terms in the Vermont Legislature. He was a member of the Chicago Republican Convention in 1860, which nominated Mr. Lincoln, and in 1861 and 1862 he went to the State Legislature as a Republican. In 1864 he was elected State Senator, and during the next year he received the appointment of United States Marshal. Mr. Henry was regarded as one of the finest debaters in Vermont, and always exerted a large influence in the legislation of the State.

Dec. 19.—THURSTON, Rev. ELI, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman; died at Fall River, Mass., aged 61 years. He graduated at Amherst College in 1834, and subsequently at the Andover Seminary, and spent the first ten years of his ministry as pastor of the Congregational Church in Hallowell, Me. He was afterward a pastor for twenty-one years at Fall River. He was a man of fine scholarly attainments, and a preacher of much force and ability.

Dec. 21.—DUNN, Rev. JOHN PATRICK, Roman Catholic priest; died in Philadelphia, aged 64 years. He was a native of Ireland, and was educated at Maynooth College. He was very popular as a clergyman, and an effective speaker.

Dec. 22.—LINCOLN, CHARLES R., an old and capable journalist; died in Flushing, L. I. He was born at Dorchester, Mass., February 9, 1806. He left his home at the early age of eight years, and found his way to the city of New York, where he learned and followed the business of a printer. While still very young, he left the office of the *Courier and Enquirer*, and commenced the publication of a daily paper in New York, called *The Star*, which was soon after destroyed by fire. In 1836 he was appointed printer to the Greek Mission under Rev. Dr. Robinson and the late Rev. Mr. Hill, and for three years he remained in Greece, actively and successfully employed in promoting the best interests of the mission. After the abolition of the printing department in connection with the missionary enterprise, Mr. Lincoln, in 1841, settled in Flushing, L. I., and, with the Rev. Dr. Hawks, commenced the publication of the *Church Record*, a magazine printed under the auspices of the Episcopal Church, and which, during the period of its existence, was conducted with marked ability. The publication of the *Record* was, however, soon discontinued, and in the same year (1841) the first number of the *Flushing Journal* was issued, with Mr. Lincoln as its editor and proprietor, and to this paper he continued to give the best efforts of his pen, and in its columns he consistently and faithfully advocated what he sincerely believed to be the right and true in every issue brought before the people.

Dec. 23.—COZZENS, FREDERICK, author and editor; died in Brooklyn, aged 52 years. He was born and educated in New York City, and, though for most of his life engaged in mercantile pursuits, he devoted his leisure hours to the pleasures of authorship. He contributed to the *Knickerbocker*, and also to *Putnam's Magazine*, collecting the contributions to the former into a volume entitled "Prismatics, by Richard Haywarde," and a portion of the latter into a volume entitled "The Sparrowgrass Papers," which gave him a reputation as one of the first American humorists of the day. Two years later he published a volume of travels, "Acadia, a Sojourn among the Bluenoses." He also published a paper entitled *The Wine-Press*, devoted chiefly to the interests of his trade as a wine-merchant.

Dec. —.—CASKIE, JOHN S.; died at Richmond, Va. He was a native of Virginia, and from 1851 to 1855 was a Representative in Congress, serving on the Committee upon the Judiciary.

OBITUARIES, FOREIGN. *Jan.* 1.—SHEPPARD, Rev. JOHN GEORGE, D. C. L., an English clergyman, teacher, and author; died at Kidderminster, Eng., aged 51 years. He was a native of County Kilkenny, educated at Wadham College, Oxford, where he obtained an open scholarship, and subsequently was elected fellow and tutor. After leaving the university he became second master of Repton School, Derbyshire, and in 1851 was appointed headmaster of King Charles the First's Grammar School, Kidderminster. He was the author of eleven volumes, of which three were religious, and the remainder were educational, including among their number "Theophrasti Characteres," 1852, "Notes upon Thucydides," original and compiled, and "Aids to Classical Study." At the time of his death he was preparing a school edition of "Carrington's Virgil." He received the degree of Doctor of Civil Law in 1858.

Jan. 5.—WARDE, Admiral CHARLES, K. H., one of the oldest officers of the British navy; died at Westerham, Kent, aged 82 years. He entered the navy in 1798, and served as midshipman on board the Northumberland till 1802, and subsequently saw active service on the Immortalité, Colossus, Glory, Barfleur, Druid, and Centaur, serving on the latter, and on the Belleisle as flag-lieutenant. In April, 1808, he was made a commander, and in 1810 was appointed to the Banterer, in which he served on the Irish and Scotch coasts, and afterward in the Mediterranean. In 1815 he received orders, from Lord Exmouth, to proceed to Algiers, for the purpose of taking secretly a plan of the sea defences and soundings around the sea-face of the city, which hazardous undertaking he performed with great honor to himself, and, as an acknowledgment of his services, received the insignia of K. H. from his Majesty King William IV. In 1846 he retired from active service. In 1862 he gained his seniority as admiral.

Jan. 6.—WOODFORD, EDWARD, LL. D., an eminent Scottish teacher and author; died in Edinburgh, aged 68 years. He was born near Elgin, and educated at King's College, Aber-

deen, beginning his career as a student of medicine, but afterward changing his course and attaining distinction as a student of classics. On leaving the university he devoted himself to teaching, and established a private academy at Aberdeen, which attained a high reputation. Subsequently he removed to Edinburgh, where he was a teacher in the Southern Academy, afterward at Jedburgh, and finally was at the head of the Madras College, in St. Andrew's, where his reputation became so wide-spread that in 1850 he was appointed one of her Majesty's Inspectors of Schools for Scotland. His works are: "An Epitome of Part of Cæsar's Commentaries," 1860; "Eclogæ Horatianæ," 1849; "Elements of the Latin Language," and "The Answers in the Shorter Catechism," adapted for reading in continuous text, with the questions and proofs subjoined, and the grammatical notes.

Jan. 8.—GORDON, Admiral Sir JAMES ALEXANDER, G. C. B., Governor of Greenwich Hospital; died there, aged 87 years. He entered the navy in 1793, and rose rapidly in his profession. He was at the battle of the Nile; served in the West Indies, Mediterranean, and Adriatic; commanded the Active, frigate, at the battle of Lissa, for which he received a gold medal and a pension of £300, and, at the capture of the French frigate La Pomone, had a leg carried away by a 36-pounder. In August, 1814, with a squadron under his command, he entered the river Potomac, where, having reduced Fort Washington and other batteries, he forced the city of Alexandria to capitulate. In 1827 he was appointed Governor of the Royal Naval Hospital at Plymouth. In 1840 he became Lieutenant-Governor of Greenwich Hospital, and in 1853 was advanced to the post of Governor of that establishment. Altogether he served in the navy nearly seventy-six years, and he was the last survivor of Lord Nelson's band of captains. In 1815 he was created a K. C. B.; in 1854, G. C. B., and Admiral of the Fleet in 1868.

Jan. 11.—DICKINSON, JOHN, F. R. S., F. G. S., F. A. S., a paper-maker, inventor, philosopher, astronomer, geologist, and geographer; died in London. He was born March 29, 1782, in London, and, after receiving a good school education, was apprenticed to Mr. Andrew Strahan, at that time the King's printer. At the expiration of his indentures he went into business, first as a printer and afterward as a paper-maker, in partnership with Mr. George Longman, in the Old Bailey. It was about 1806 that Mr. Dickinson first purchased a paper-mill, and by machinery of his own invention, and that of Mr. Henry Fourdrinier, he created a revolution in the whole manufacture of paper. Mr. Dickinson was the inventor of numerous processes which have greatly aided in perfecting this branch of industry, and some of his devices for protecting bank-note paper from being counterfeited are even now the best that have been devised. In the fifty-one years in which he was engaged in manufacturing, he took out nearly fifty patents. He was elected Master of the Stationers' Company in 1857, and (which was unusual) was chosen again the next year. He was offered a Fellowship in the Royal Society in 1818, but declined it from modesty; he was elected in 1845, and read some papers of great merit to the Society, on the percolation of water through the chalk strata. In his latter years, he devoted much attention to astronomy, and to geographical and geological science. He had a fine observatory, well supplied with astronomical instruments, at his country-seat of Abbot's Hill, and quite a geological museum of his own collecting. He was also a liberal benefactor and manager of several hospitals and other benevolent institutions.

Jan. 11.—DYCE, ROBERT, M. D., Professor of Midwifery in the University of Aberdeen; died at Edinburgh, aged 70 years. He was a native of Aberdeen, graduated at Marischal College in 1816, and afterward studied medicine in his native town, Edinburgh, and London. Having spent some time in the Military Hospital at Chatham, he accepted a staff appointment from Sir Lowry Cole, Governor of the Mauritius, and subsequently Governor of the Cape of Good Hope. Returning home in 1833, he was for some years lecturer on midwifery in Marischal College, and finally professor. He contributed some valuable papers to the medical periodicals, and was known as an accomplished naturalist. He was for many years physician to the Royal Infirmary.

Jan. 14.—CURTIS, Admiral Sir LUCIUS, Bart., K. C. B., the senior officer of her Majesty's fleet, and of the British Navy; died at Portsdown Hill, near Cosham, Eng. He was born June 8, 1786, entered the navy in 1795, was made post-captain in 1806, was taken prisoner in 1810 by the French, and, after several months of cruel captivity, returned to England and was for two years in command of frigates in the coast squadron. He became a baronet in 1816, rear-admiral in 1838, vice-admiral in 1849, and admiral in 1855. He was admiral superintendent of Malta 1843–'48.

Jan. 14.—WRIGHT, HENRY GOODE, M. D., an accomplished physician and author; died in London, aged 41 years. He was educated at Gloucester, Edinburgh, and Paris, graduated M. D., at Edinburgh, in 1851, and was appointed, not long after, physician to the Samaritan Free Hospital, the St. Pancras Dispensary, and the Royal Benevolent Industrial Society. He stood deservedly high in his profession, and his two medical treatises, "Headaches, their Causes and their Cure," and "Uterine Disorders, their Constitutional Influence and Treatment," rank among the ablest contributions to pathology. He contributed also a series of annotations to the *Lancet*, which were remarkable for their brilliancy, wit, sarcasm, and wise counsel. But, outside of his profession, he was also an

able and brilliant writer; a regular contributor to the *Saturday Review*, where his papers were among the most attractive features of that dashing, racy periodical, and a writer also for other magazines, a genial wit and associate of eminent literary men, he left a void which cannot easily be filled.

Jan. 15.—WELD, CHARLES ROBERT, a literary man, traveller, and author, for sixteen years Assistant Secretary of the Royal Society; died at Newbridge Hill, near Bath, England. He was born in Windsor, England, in 1818, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, called to the bar in November, 1844, became Assistant Secretary to the Royal Society in 1845, and remained in its service till 1861. In 1847 he published a "History of the Royal Society," in two volumes, and the next year commenced a series of "Vacation Tours," of which he published nine volumes between 1848 and 1867, embracing tours in different portions of Europe, in America, India, etc. He was a very active assistant to Sir John Franklin in the home work connected with his Arctic explorations, and had written several pamphlets on the subject of Arctic Expeditions. He was one of the superintendents of the London International Exhibition of 1862, and a commissioner of the Paris Exhibition of 1867. His report at the latter, on the "Philosophical Instruments and Apparatus for teaching Science," was a very able and interesting document. He was a member of many of the learned societies, and a frequent contributor to *Fraser's Magazine*, the *Athenæum*, etc.

Jan. 18.—ASHPITEL, ARTHUR, F. S. A., an accomplished English architect, and writer on architectural and antiquarian subjects; died in London. He was born in London, December 15, 1807, educated at Homerton, received his professional training in the office of his father, who was a skilful architect, and, having been made a cripple for life by an accident, when about twelve years old, he was the more inclined to close and laborious study. He did not open a separate office and studio for himself till 1842, when his thorough knowledge of architectural science, and his admirable skill and genius in his designs, soon brought him a large practice. His designs embraced numerous public institutions, bridges, churches, chapels, schools, colleges, stations, villas, cottages, etc. He was also consulted as the highest authority on the restoration of ancient cathedrals, churches, and bridges. He travelled in Italy, and resided some time in Rome, from 1854–'57, and on his return prepared and exhibited at the Royal Academy a "Restoration of Ancient Rome," which showed a very thorough study of the local history of the city of the Cæsars. A companion drawing, "Rome as it is," was exhibited by him the next year. He was Vice-President of the Royal Institute of British Architects in 1862, and contributed to its transactions or sessional papers numerous valuable architectural essays. He had also prepared ten very interesting communications for the *Archæologia* of the Society of Antiquaries. He published an essay on "Baths and Washhouses" in 1853; one on "Town Dwellings," of great interest, in 1855, and a "Treatise on Architecture," which was mainly composed of his own and others' articles on the subject, in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and had edited and almost entirely rewritten Nicholson's "Handrails and Staircases," and Nicholson's "New Guide; or, Book of Lines for Carpenters;" and had been a large contributor to the biographies of architects in the "Encyclopædia Britannica," and articles to the dictionary and other works of the Architectural Publication Society. He was, moreover, a fine Hebraist, and a critical Latin and Greek scholar, familiar with the languages of modern Europe, an accomplished musician and musical composer, and a good poet.

Jan. 21.—BELGIUM, LEOPOLD FERDINAND ELIE VICTOR ALBERT MARIE, Prince Royal of, Duke of Brabant, Count of Hainault, and Duke of Saxony, the heir-apparent of the throne of Belgium; died at the palace of Laeken, near Brussels, in the tenth year of his age. He was the only son of Leopold II., a child of great intelligence and affectionateness, but who had suffered for more than six months from severe illness. His death made the Count of Flanders, brother of Leopold II., heir-presumptive to the throne.

Jan. 23.—EWART, WILLIAM, a Liberal member of Parliament, eminent for his advocacy of measures of reform; died at Liverpool, in the 71st year of his age. He was born May 1, 1798, in Liverpool, educated at Eton, and Christ Church College, Oxford, graduating with high honors in 1821. He was called to the bar in 1827, and entered Parliament in 1828, sitting for Bletchingly till 1830, for Liverpool from 1830 to 1837, for Wigan from 1839 to 1841, and for the Dumfries burghs from 1841 to 1868. He was a very able legislator, and was a leader among the Liberals, and a high authority in commercial matters. He carried a bill in 1833–'34 for the abolition of capital punishment for theft, the minor forms of burglary, letter-stealing, and sacrilege, and for abolishing the practice of hanging in chains. The next session he procured the removal of the prohibition against prisoners, in cases of felony, being defended by counsel. He also led the way, by suitable legislation, for the founding of schools of design, free public libraries, museums, and institutes for mechanics, and for the adoption of the metric system. His only published volume is a work issued in 1838, entitled "The Reform of the Reform Bill."

Jan. 30.—BARNARD, Mrs. CHARLOTTE A., a musical composer and lyric poetess, whose songs and ballads had attained a wide popularity; died at Dover, England. She was the wife of Rev. C. C. Barnard, and had published a great number of popular songs under the *nom de plume* of "Claribel."

Jan. —.—HUET, PAUL, an eminent French landscape-painter; died in Paris. He was born in that city October 3, 1804, and educated in the School of Fine Arts, and in the *ateliers* of Paul Guérin and Baron Gros. From 1824 to 1827 he travelled extensively in Europe and the East, sketching everywhere the landscapes which pleased him. On his return to France he exhibited in 1827, at the hall of the School of Fine Arts, a view of La Fère, and except in 1839 and 1844, when he was absent in Italy, he had one or more of his landscapes in the annual expositions for forty years. His landscapes have a high rank as the best and most characteristic examples of the modern French school. He received a second medal in 1833, for his "Entrance to the Forest of Compiègne, and View of the Guardhouse;" a first medal at the Exposition of 1848, and the grand medal at the International Exhibition of 1855. In June, 1841, the King (Louis Philippe) conferred upon him the decoration of the Legion of Honor.

Jan. —.—OELCKERS, THEODOR, a German scholar, author, and radical; died at Leipsic, aged 53 years. From 1849 to 1858 he was imprisoned for political causes. He was the author of forty-two original volumes and seventy-two translations.

Jan. —.—VERCELLONE, Father, a learned Barnabite monk; died at Rome. He was the author of several learned works on Scriptural exegesis, and shortly before his death was employed in editing the famous Greek Bible of the Vatican.

Feb. 1.—CHURCHILL, Colonel, an eccentric English officer and author; died suddenly at Beirut. He married an Arab princess some years since. His principal works were "Mount Lebanon; a Ten Years' Residence, from 1842 to 1852," 3 vols. 8vo, and "The Druses and the Maronites, under the Turkish Rule, from 1840 to 1860," 8vo, 1862.

Feb. 3.—KEELEY, ROBERT, an English comedian of great celebrity; died in London, aged 75 years. He was born in London, and early apprenticed to the printing trade, but after three years' probation turned his attention to the stage. Having won some success in Lynn and Birmingham, he went to the metropolis and entered into an engagement at the Olympic, and the following year at Drury Lane, and in 1821 joined the Adelphi Company. In 1822 he made his first appearance at Covent Garden, under the auspices of Charles Kemble, and there secured a high reputation for his originality. Here he married Miss Goward, an actress, with whom, after a few years of successful engagements, he went into the provinces on a starring tour. Subsequently they performed at the Princess's Theatre and with the Haymarket Company. His last appearance in public was at the Dramatic College *fête* in 1867.

Feb. 7.—HODGSON, JOSEPH, F. R. S., President of the Royal College of Surgeons; died in London, aged 81 years. He was born in Birmingham, and educated at King Edward VI.'s School. His medical studies were pursued in London at St. Bartholomew's Hospital, and in 1811 he received his diploma as a member of the College of Physicians and Surgeons, winning the Jacksonian prize for his "Essay on Diseases of the Arteries and Veins," which was the basis of a larger work on the same subject, published in 1815. The same work was subsequently translated into French, German, and Italian, and reprinted in America. After practising for a time in London, Mr. Hodgson settled in Birmingham, where he soon obtained throughout the midland counties a very extensive practice. He was surgeon to the Birmingham Hospital, and the Eye Infirmary. He was a remarkably skilful operator, and was especially renowned for his operations for stone. Having acquired a large fortune through his profession, he removed to London in 1849, and was immediately elected on the Council of the College of Surgeons. In 1855 he delivered the Hunterian Oration; the next year was chosen examiner at the college, and in 1864 filled the office of president. During his residence in London he was in great demand as a consulting physician. He was the favorite medical adviser of Sir Robert Peel, and attended that statesman in his last hours. During the last years of his life Mr. Hodgson was afflicted with failing sight, and a few weeks previous to his death became totally blind.

Feb. 8.—JORDON, EDWARD, a quadroon statesman, Colonial Secretary of Jamaica, W. I.; died at Kingston, aged 68 years. In the days of his youth and early manhood he suffered, in common with the whole of his class, from the social proscription and political disabilities to which the colored people were at that time subjected in all the West-India colonies of England. But, having received a good education, and being of a sensitive nature, he commenced a course of agitation with the view of obtaining for the free colored population the political rights which belonged to them as British subjects. Having succeeded in securing these, he immediately became a zealous advocate of emancipation, calling upon his enfranchised countrymen of the colored class to unite with the antislavery party of England in bringing about the abolition of slavery. For certain expressions used in a newspaper of which he was editor, relative to the approaching doom of the system, he was put on his trial for treason, with the certainty of being hanged if convicted; but the firmness of one man on the jury that sat on his trial saved his life. It was not long after this event that slavery received its death-blow in the British West Indies by the passing of the Emancipation Act, about which time Jordon was elected a member of the Jamaica House of Assembly. Thenceforward he rose step by step, until he obtained the highest positions in the colony, having been successively member of the Privy Council,

Prime Minister in the first Executive Committee under Sir Henry Barkly's Administration, Speaker of the House of Assembly, Receiver-General, and, finally, Colonial Secretary. In acknowledgment of his talents and eminent services, the Queen, in the year 1854, made him a Commander of the Bath, the honor thus conferred upon him being the first instance of a colored man being admitted into what may be called an order of nobility.

Feb. 9.—MURCHISON, Lady CHARLOTTE, wife and scientific coadjutor of Sir Roderick Impey Murchison, the celebrated geologist and geographer; died in London, aged 80 years. She was the daughter of General Hugonin, and married, September 15, 1815, Roderick Impey Murchison, then a captain in the British Army. Through her influence, her husband was led, after his retirement from the army service, to devote his attention to physical science, in which he has since won such renown. She entered with great zest into all his studies, and her attainments in both geology and geography were hardly inferior to his. She was highly esteemed by all the scientific friends of her husband, to whom her rare conversational powers and her extensive attainments were a source of constant delight.

Feb. 12.—EPPS, JOHN, M. D., a homœopathic physician, phrenologist, politician, and author; died in London, aged 64 years. He was educated at Mill Hill, and the University of Edinburgh, where he graduated M. D. in 1827. He settled in London in the same year, commenced practice, lectured to medical students on the materia medica, and other subjects, and, having embraced the doctrines of Gall and Spurzheim, published about 1830 a work entitled "Horæ Phrenologicæ." He was appointed in 1831 Medical Director of the Royal Jennerian and Royal Vaccine Institution, and continued to hold that office till his death. He was editor, for a number of years, of the *London Medical and Surgical Journal*, of the *Anthropological Magazine*, and of the *Journal of Health and Disease*. He became a convert to homœopathy very early, lectured upon it, published a number of works on the subject, and edited for many years a homœopathic journal. He was a very active political reformer, and was identified with all the liberal measures agitated in England for the last forty years. In private life he was a man of great generosity, and of a genial and sympathizing nature. He had published twenty-two volumes aside from his journals, most of them devoted to homœopathy or phrenology, though two biographies and one or two political essays were included among them.

Feb. 13.—BERGENROTH, GUSTAVE H., a Prussian scholar, devoted to historic studies; died in Madrid, Spain, of typhus fever. He had been engaged for nearly nine years in the investigation of the Spanish diplomatic records and letters relative to the period of Henry VIII., Queen Mary, and Queen Elizabeth, known as the "Simancas Papers," and had furnished to Mr. Froude much of the material of which he has made such excellent use in his histories. Herr Bergenroth had, but a few months previous to his death, succeeded in obtaining permission, till then strenuously withheld from him, to examine some important documents, relative to the private life of Queen Catharine of Aragon, and a projected marriage between Henry VIII. and Queen Juana, the widow of King Philip and mother of Charles V., and it is believed that he had transcribed most of these papers.

Feb. 13.—CAZOTTE, CHARLES FERDINAND DE, Consul-General of France for California; died in San Francisco, aged 50 years. M. de Cazotte was an officer of the Legion of Honor, and had been decorated with several foreign orders. He was successively French consul at Panama, Lima, and Valparaiso, and finally was appointed to reside in San Francisco in place of M. F. Gautier. After a residence of many years abroad, he obtained leave of absence and revisited his native land in 1868, and was promoted to the position of consul-general in California—his Government deeming it important that French commerce should be thus directly in communication with the ministry instead of by the medium of the French consulate-general in New York, as heretofore.

Feb. 13.—WARDROP, JAMES, F. R. S., an eminent British surgeon and surgical writer; died in London, in his 87th year. He was born in Linlithgow, Scotland, August 14, 1782, educated at the High School and University of Edinburgh, and studied medicine there and in London, where he was a pupil of Clive, Cooper, and Abernethy, and subsequently in Paris and Vienna. He made for some years diseases of the eye his specialty, and, while in practice at Edinburgh, published "Essays on the Morbid Anatomy of the Human Eye." In 1814 he removed to London, became a member of the Royal College of Surgeons, and in 1818 was appointed Surgeon Extraordinary to the Prince Regent, and in 1828 Surgeon to the King. He was a lecturer on Surgery at the Aldersgate School, for several years, and devoted much attention to the treatment of aneurism, on which he published a treatise. His practice of tying the artery on the distal side of the aneurismal tumor was said by the late Dr. Valentine Mott to have conferred the highest honor and the most lasting fame on Mr. Wardrop. He was through his whole course an earnest friend of medical reform in London. He published six distinct medical treatises, and numerous contributions on surgical topics (including the article "Surgery") to the "Encyclopædia Britannica," to Costello's "Cyclopædia of Practical Surgery," and the medical and surgical journals, reviews, etc.

Feb. 18.—BALDWIN, CHARLES, a veteran journalist and newspaper proprietor; died in London, in the 95th year of his age. He was born in 1774, was the son of the founder of the

St. James Chronicle, which was established in 1761, and was first the partner of his father, and eventually sole proprietor of that paper. In 1827, the paper having become very popular under Dr. Giffard's editorship, Mr. Baldwin determined to found a daily evening paper, and on the 21st of May, in that year, established the London *Daily Standard*, of which he continued to be a proprietor (though not actively such for the last twenty-five years) till his death. He was very enterprising in obtaining the earliest news, and conducted his paper, which was always the organ of the Conservative party, with great ability and success. He was the senior member of the Stationers' Company, and twice master of it. He was also a member of the council, and treasurer of the Literary Fund for some years.

Feb. 18.—WEBB, Rev. JOHN, F. S. A., M. R. S. L., an English clergyman, antiquarian, musical composer, and author; died near Hay, County Hereford, England, in his 93d year. He was born and bred in London, educated at St. Paul's School, London, and Wadham College, Oxford, graduating in 1798. He held several valuable livings during his sixty-nine years of clerical service, the most important being that of Rector of Tretire, 1812–1869, and Vicar of St. John's, Cardiff, 1821–'63. He was a most accomplished scholar—almost universally accomplished—though his favorite pursuits were in the line of antiquarian research and musical composition. He was elected a Fellow of the Society of Antiquaries in 1819, and contributed to its *Archæologia* five carefully-edited papers, several of them nearly complete volumes in themselves. For the Camden Society he prepared three volumes of great value, and several tracts and papers on the early history of Gloucester were also from his pen. He was a poet of considerable ability, and as a musical composer and adapter he possessed great skill. He adapted much of the music performed at the great musical festivals in Birmingham, and wrote the libretos for Mehul's Oratorio of *Joseph*, Haydn's *Seasons*, Neukomm's *David*, and Mendelssohn's *Hebrew Mother*.

Feb. 22.—BARNES, RALPH, an eminent jurist and legal writer, Secretary to the Bishop of Exeter; died in Exeter, in the 88th year of his age. He was born July 14, 1781, educated at the Exeter Grammar School, studied law, and was admitted as an attorney in 1802. He was Secretary to the Bishop of Exeter from 1830 to 1869. He was the author of numerous legal and semi-legal treatises, mostly on topics connected with ecclesiastical law, on which he had no superior in Great Britain. His "Treatise on Equity Practice" has had a high reputation both in Europe and the United States. His intellectual powers and his ability to express his views clearly and forcibly continued to the close of his life, as his "Remarks on the Judicial Aspects of the Colenso Case," and his "Thoughts on Mr. Gladstone's Chapter of Autobiography, in its Legal Aspect," evinced. He was an earnest law reformer, though a Conservative in politics; in ecclesiastical antiquities he was an acknowledged authority.

Feb. 23.—DELAWARR, Rt. Hon. GEORGE JOHN SACKVILLE-WEST, fifth Earl, LL. D., D. C. L., the senior member of the House of Peers, and a member of H. M. Privy Council; died at Buckhurst, England, in the 78th year of his age. He was born in Saville Row, Middlesex, October 26, 1791, and became earl by the death of his father, July 28, 1795. He was educated at Harrow, where he was the intimate friend of Lord Byron, and at Brasenose College, Oxford, where he took his degree of B. A. in 1811. He ranked high as a scholar, and was fond of classical and literary pursuits through life. He was Chamberlain of the Queen's Household from 1841 to 1846, and from November, 1858, to June, 1859. He was a liberal patron of Sackville College, East Grimstead, and rebuilt its chapel and hall, and restored its other buildings at his own expense, in 1848.

Feb. 23.—KYLE, Rt. Rev. JAMES, D. D., Bishop of Germanicia, *in partibus infidelium*, and Vicar-Apostolic of the Roman Catholic Church, in the Northern District of Scotland, died at Preshome-in-the-Enzie, in the 81st year of his age. He was born at Edinburgh, September 22, 1788, and in 1799 sent to the Catholic College of Aquhorties, on the banks of the Don, to receive his education. He was ordained a priest there in March, 1812, and for two or three years following was a priest in Glasgow. He was recalled, in 1815, to Aquhorties, as a professor, and attained a high reputation both as a classical scholar and a master of ecclesiastical history. In 1828 he was called from his professorship to be the first Bishop of the Northern District of Scotland, comprising the seven northern shires and the northern part of Inverness. For over forty years he had labored in this very hard and difficult field with an assiduity and success that were astonishing. Few men could have accomplished as much in the same time, and none could have done this work more quietly and unobtrusively.

Feb. 23.—TOWNSEND, GEORGE HERBERT, an English journalist and compiler; died by his own hand, in Kennington. He had received a good education, and entered early upon journalism, advocating the measures of the Conservative party, and laboring very zealously for them. In addition to his duties on the daily press, he found time to compile an "Epitome of Russell's Modern Europe," a "Summary of Persian History," "The Manual of Dates," a reference-book, first published in 1862, and a second edition in 1867, the seventh edition of "Men of the Time," "The Handbook of the Year 1868," editions of Fielding's "Tom Jones," and Smollett's "Roderick Random," and several volumes of anecdotes, essays, etc. He had been promised by Mr. Disraeli an appointment to a Government sit-

uation, of £1,000, on the occurrence of a vacancy; but the vacancy did not occur till after the defeat of the Conservative Cabinet, and the Liberal Administration abolished the office. Mr. Townsend's disappointment is said to have led him to commit suicide.

Feb. —.—RITTER, HEINRICH, a German philosopher and historian; died at Göttingen, in his 78th year. He was born at Zerbst, in 1791, educated in general literature and theology at Halle and Göttingen, and in philosophy at Berlin. From an early age, history and its bearing upon philosophy was a favorite topic of thought and study with him. At the age of twenty-six he had published two small works, which show the direction of his studies, books which were full of the germs of thought. They were entitled, "On the Formation of the Philosopher by the History of Philosophy;" and "What Influence has the Philosophy of Descartes exercised on the Formation of that of Spinoza, and what are their Points of Contact?" From 1824 to 1835, he was extraordinary professor at Berlin; from 1835 to 1837, professor at Kiel; and from 1837 to his death, professor of the History of Philosophy at Berlin. He had published, in 1820, an essay on the "Philosophy of Empedocles," and the following year a "History of the Ionian Philosophy." This was followed, in 1826, by "Remarks on the Philosophy of the Megaric School," and, after these monographs, he settled himself to his life-work, "The General History of Philosophy," in twelve volumes, which appeared from 1829 to 1853. He subsequently completed this by an "Essay on Modern German Philosophy since Kant." He published somewhat later a "History of Christian Philosophy, preceded by an Essay on the Relations of Faith to Science," in 2 vols. 8vo. Besides these great works, he published "An Introduction to Logic," in 1823; an "Abridged Philosophy of Logic," in 1824; "The Demi-Kantians and Pantheism," 1827; "The Knowledge of God in the World," 1836; a "Treatise on Sin," 1839; and "Smaller Philosophical Essays," 1839–'40, 2 vols. Most of his works have been translated into other languages.

Feb. —.—ZIMMERMANN, CLEMENS, a Bavarian painter, mainly in fresco; died in Munich, in the 81st year of his age. He was born in Düsseldorf, November 4, 1788; educated at Düsseldorf and Munich, and showed such evident marks of genius in the first considerable painting which he exhibited, "Noah's Sacrifice," that he at once won a reputation. In 1815, he was appointed director of the Gallery at Augsburg, and ten years later was made Professor of painting in the Munich Academy. King Louis I. selected him as one of the artists to decorate the Glyptothek, the Pinakothek, and the other public buildings, by whose erection he aimed to make Munich a city of palaces. He also assigned to him the delicate and difficult task of executing in fresco the designs of Cornelius for the ornamentation of the corridors of the Pinakothek. He was so successful in these, that the King authorized him to decorate the dining-hall of the Royal Palace with a series of subjects which he had designed from Anacreon. In the execution of these designs he employed a process of his own invention, combining encaustic with painting in oils. He was appointed, some years later, director of the Central Gallery of Art in Munich. His paintings were all of the historical class; occasionally he undertook religious subjects. One of the best of these, an "Assumption of the Virgin," of colossal size, adorns a church in Australia.

March 3.—BARHAM, THOMAS FOSTER, M.B. an English scholar, author, and physicist; died at Newton Abbot, Devonshire. He was born at Hendon, Middlesex, in 1794, and was educated at Queen's College, Cambridge, where he took his degree of M.B., in 1820. After acting for some time as physician to the Exeter Dispensary, he settled at Newton Abbot, where he remained until his death. He was the author of several volumes, among which were four classical, four theological, and five scientific works.

March 4.—SIMPSON, JAMES, C.E., an English hydraulic engineer; died in London, aged 70 years. He was the son of Thomas Simpson, the original projector of, and for forty-one years engineer to, the Lambeth Water-works, and also engineer to the Chelsea Water-works. He was born at Westfield Lodge, Surbiton, and was educated under the direction of his father, whom he succeeded in the Chelsea Company. In 1828, after having made some careful experiments, he succeeded in preparing the most complete "filter-bed" that has yet been executed; and also among other of his early works was the construction of elevated reservoirs at Streatham and Brixton, with the iron mains and pumping-engines in connection therewith. In 1849, in view of the increasing deterioration of the Thames water in and near London, Mr. Simpson advised the Lambeth Company to remove the works to their present position above Kingston, and the success of the undertaking led to the subsequent removal of the Chelsea Works to the same locality. In 1845 he designed the extensive works for supplying Bristol with water from the Mendip Hills. At Copenhagen and at Aberdeen, also, are monuments of his skill. The long pier at Southend for obtaining access to steamers at low water, and the extensive dock and harbor of West Hartlepool, and many other valuable enterprises, owe their success to his devotion to this department of science. In 1825 he was elected a member of the Institute of Civil Engineers, and subsequently was vice-president, and in 1854 and 1855, president of that body.

March 7.—CLINTON, General Sir ARTHUR BENJAMIN, G. C. B., K. C. H., a veteran British officer; died at Brighton, aged 99 years. He was educated at Rugby, and entered the army in 1794; served in the Peninsula and at Water-

loo, and received honors at Talavera, Busaco, and Toulouse. In 1832 he was made a K. C. H., in 1854 was constituted a general, and in 1861 a G. C. B. He also received honors in Russia and in Holland.

March 9.—Boileau, Sir John Peter, Bart., F. R. S., V. P. S. A., an English physicist and antiquarian; died at Torquay, whither he had repaired in the hope of obtaining relief from a bronchial affection, aged 74 years. He was a lineal descendant of Etienne Boileau, the first Grand-Provost of Paris. Previous to 1815 he performed military service. In 1836 he purchased the estate of Ketteringham, to which he added other purchases in that vicinity, and subsequently, to gratify his antiquarian tastes, Burgh Castle, in Suffolk, one of the most remarkable specimens of Roman masonry in England. At Ketteringham he made great improvements, erecting a spacious Gothic hall in the house, and richly storing it with paintings, books, and choice monuments of antiquity, and forming in the grounds a park of two hundred acres, planted with choice forest trees. In 1843 he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society, and, in 1852, of the Society of Antiquaries. In 1849 he was made president of the Norwich Archæological Society, and he served for many years as vice-president of the Society of Antiquaries, contributing to each valuable exhibitions. He was also vice-president of numerous other scientific bodies, and president of the Norwich School of Design. Sir John filled the office of Sheriff of Norfolk in 1844. He was eminent for his liberality, and ever zealous in any good work calculated to benefit his fellow-creatures.

March 12.—Schleswig-Holstein-Sonderburg-Augustenburg, Christian Charles Frederick Augustus, Duke of, father-in-law of the Princess Helena of England; died on his estate of Primkenau, in Silesia, aged 71 years. He was son of the Duke Frederick Christian of Schleswig-Holstein, and of the Princess Louisa Augusta of Denmark, daughter of King Christian VII. He was born at Copenhagen, and succeeded his father in the dukedom in 1814. In the proceedings of the provincial diets to which Frederick VI. committed the direction of the German States, after the French Revolution of July, the Duke of Augustenburg took a prominent part, distinguishing himself as much by his zeal in the cause of liberty and progress as by his great oratorical ability. After the downfall of the Duchy of Schleswig-Holstein, his estates were confiscated, and he was declared a traitor for heading the insurrectionary movement against the King of Denmark. He appealed to the German Diet for protection against the consequences of this decree, but without success. Returning to Silesia, he purchased there, in 1853, the estate of Primkenau. In 1851 he ceded, for a money-payment, his property and rights in Holstein to the Danish Crown; but afterward, with his son, Frederick Christian Augustus, sought to repudiate the transaction, and himself published a strong protest on behalf of his alleged rights. The Austrian and Prussian Governments, in 1865, wholly ignored his pretensions after they had wrested Schleswig-Holstein from Denmark. He was considered the handsomest man in Germany.

March 13.—Clay, Sir William, Bart., an English politician and political economist; died in London, aged 78 years. He commenced life as a merchant and ship-owner. In 1832 he entered Parliament as a member for the newly-formed borough of the Tower Hamlets, and was reëlected until 1857. During his parliamentary career he was a firm Radical, advocating extension of the suffrage, the ballot, triennial Parliaments, and abolition of church-rates. From 1839 to 1841 he was secretary of the Board of Control. He was the author of the Small Tenements Rating Act, which led to much discussion during the debates on Mr. Disraeli's Reform Bill.

March 20.—Grenfell, John Pascoe, Admiral of the Brazilian Navy, and Brazilian consul at Liverpool; died in that city, aged 69 years. He was born at Battersea, in 1800; entered the service of the East India Company when but eleven years of age, and in 1819 that of the Chilian Republic, in which he took part in the war against Spain. In 1820 he commanded one of the boats of the squadron which, under the direction of Lord Cochrane, boarded and cut out from under the castle of Callao de Lima, and from the midst of a squadron of armed vessels and gunboats, the Spanish admiral's ship, the Esmeralda, a frigate of 40 guns, fully manned and prepared for the attack. Among the wounded was Lieutenant Grenfell. In 1823 he accompanied Lord Cochrane to Brazil, and engaged in the service of that new state against Portugal, became commander, and afterward, as post-captain, distinguished himself in the war with the Argentine Confederation, and in a naval fight off Buenos Ayres, July, 1826, lost his right arm. In 1844 he was made a rear-admiral, and received the Queen's permission to hold his rank and continue in the service of the Emperor of Brazil. In 1846 he returned to England as Brazilian consul, residing at Liverpool. In 1848 he received the thanks of the town and a gold medal for his exertions in saving the lives of the passengers and crew of the emigrant-ship Ocean Monarch, burnt off that port. In 1850 he was placed in supreme naval command in the campaign growing out of a misunderstanding between the Argentine Republic and that of Montevideo, in which Brazil was involved, and, after its speedy and happy conclusion, was promoted to the rank of vice-admiral. In 1852 he returned to his post at Liverpool, which he continued to hold, with honor to himself, until his death.

March 20.—Pratt, Rev. John Bennett, LL. D., a Scottish Episcopal clergyman, antiquarian, and author; died at Cruden, Aberdeen-

shire, aged 78 years. He was born in the parish of New Deer, took the degree of M. A. at Aberdeen, and, after his ordination as deacon, in 1821, was sent to Stuartfield, where he served with acceptance four years, and was then chosen as pastor of St. James's Church, Cruden. Here he became widely known for his theological learning, literary accomplishments, and professional zeal, and received from Bishop Skinner the appointment of examining chaplain. He was the author of several volumes, among which are "Old Paths, where is the Good Way," Oxford, 1840; "Buchan," with Illustrations, Aberdeen, 1858; "The Druids," London, 1861; "Letters on the Scandinavian Churches, their Doctrine, Worship, and Polity;" and several sermons. In 1865 he received from his university the degree of LL. D.

March 28.—Baber, Rev. Henry Hervey, F. R. S., an eminent biblical scholar and bibliographer; died at Stretham, aged 94 years. He was an alumnus of St. Paul's School; entered All-Souls' College, Oxford, as a Bible-clerk, and graduated B. A. in 1799, and M. A. in 1805, when he became Vice-Principal of St. Mary's Hall, and curate to Dr. Copleston in the parish of St. Mary the Virgin. While still an under-graduate, he was appointed a sub-librarian of the Bodleian, where his youthful zeal in the performance of his duties proved his fitness for the important post which he afterward held in the library of the British Museum. In 1812 he was appointed keeper of the Printed Books in the British Museum, which post he held until 1837, when the trustees passed a resolution, "acknowledging Mr. Baber's long and meritorious services." In 1827 he was presented to the rectory of Stretham, with Thetford, in the discharge of which duties he continued until his death. Mr. Baber was the editor of the Alexandrian Codex of the Septuagint translation of the Old Testament; also of several volumes relating to translations.

March 29.—Lauder, James Eckford, R.S.A., an eminent figure-painter; died at Edinburgh, aged 57 years. He was born at Silvermills, near Edinburgh, and having, at an early age, evinced a decided talent for drawing, he enjoyed every opportunity for developing it, both at the Trustees' Academy, and under the counsel of his accomplished brother, Robert Scott Lauder. Repairing to Rome, he devoted four or five years to the study of the Italian masters; and on his return to Edinburgh at once essayed the highest style of figure-painting, in which he became eminently successful. His "Ten Virgins," and his "Bailie Macwheeble," were engraved by the Association for the Promotion of Fine Arts. For two Scriptural pieces—"Wisdom," and "The Unjust Steward,"—he received a prize of two hundred guineas at Westminster Hall. Mr. Lauder was also a thorough scholar in music.

March 29.—Mullock, Right Rev. John Thomas, O. S. F., D. D., Roman Catholic Bishop of St. John's, Newfoundland; died at St. John's, aged about 63 years. He was nominated Bishop of Thaumacus, and coadjutor to Bishop Fleming in 1847, and succeeded that prelate as Bishop of St. John's in 1850. He was a native of Ireland, and had edited and translated St. A. Liguori's "History of Heresies, and their Refutation," published in two volumes at Dublin, in 1847, and which had passed through several editions.

March —.—Armengaud, Jean Germain Desiré, a French art-historian and critic, died in Paris, in the 72d year of his age. He was born at Castres (Tarn), in 1797, educated at Lavaur and Toulouse, and at first, greatly against his inclination, entered upon commercial pursuits. He soon abandoned these, however, and devoted himself to the study of the fine arts. After a long period of close application, and the careful examination of all the principal galleries and academies of art in Europe, he undertook the preparation of a series of magnificently-illustrated publications. The principal of these were: "History of the Painters of all the Schools, from the Renaissance up to our own Times," 1849, a quarto volume, with numerous fine engravings; "The Public Galleries of Europe," 1856, quarto, with numerous illustrations, selected carefully from 35,000 copies of paintings in these galleries; "The Chefs-d'Œuvre of Christian Art," illustrated, 1858, 8vo; "The Treasures of Art," illustrated with 47 engravings, 1859; "The Chefs-d'Œuvre of Rubens, in the Cathedral of Anvers, or the Oratory of the Family," 1859; "The Parthenon of History," in three distinct parts, illustrated with numerous exquisite engravings, 1863–1864. Pope Pius IX. took a great interest in the labors of M. Armengaud, and created him a knight of the Order of St. Gregory the Great.

March —.—Gaume, Very Rev. Jean Joseph, D. D., a French Roman Catholic clergyman, theologian, and author; died in Paris, aged 67 years. He was born at Fuans (Department of Doubs) in 1802, and, after receiving a very thorough and careful education in the college and seminary of his department, was appointed, in 1827, Professor of Theology in the seminary of Nevers. Between that date and 1841 he was successively director of the lower seminary, and canon and vicar-general of the diocese, and in these latter capacities founded numerous charitable institutions. He was already the author of a number of learned works when, in 1841, he visited Rome, and was the recipient of distinguished honors from the Pope, Gregory XVI., who made him a knight of the Reformed Order of St. Sylvester and Vicar-General of Rheims, Montauban, and Aquila. He also received the degree of D. D. from the University of Prague, and was elected a member of numerous learned societies. In 1854 Pope Pius IX. created him a Roman prelate, with the title of Prothonotary Apostolic *ad instar participantium*. He was subsequently

made a canon of Notre Dame. Dr. Gaume was a very able and voluminous writer both on theological and educational topics; his religious works number over forty volumes, the greater part of them devoted to the exposition of the duties, hopes, fears, and future, of the Christian life. He was also the translator of several of the works of St. Alphonse Liguori into French; among these, his version of "The Clock of the Passion" was very popular. He was very active in the promotion of a movement to substitute, in the secondary schools of France, portions of the works of the Christian fathers for the pagan classics, the influence of which he believed to be injurious to the young, and had prepared, in accordance with this idea, a library of thirty volumes of Christian classics, Latin and Greek, and two volumes of "Profane Poets and Prose Writers completely expurgated." He had also written several works ably defending his educational views.

March —.—SINCLAIR, PETER, a distinguished Scottish reformer, lecturer, and temperance advocate; died in the street, in Chicago, Ill., of disease of the heart, aged about 60 years. He had long been prominent in all beneficent reforms in Scotland, was a promoter of temperance societies, popular education, savings-banks, emigration, etc. During the late civil war in this country, he was one of the most fearless and unflinching advocates of the Union cause in Scotland, and, after its close, he took an active part in the promotion of the emigration of working-men from Scotland on a large scale, and had visited the United States to make arrangements for it. He was the intimate friend of De Quincey, Jeffrey, Hugh Miller, and other literary and scientific men of Scotland, of the present and the last generation.

April 2.—BRIDGES, Rev. CHARLES, M. A., an evangelical clergyman of the Church of England, and author of religious works; died at the rectory of Hinton Martell, aged 75 years. He graduated at Queen's College, Cambridge, in 1818, was ordained deacon in 1817, and priest in the following year. In 1823 he was presented to the rectory of Old Newton, near Stow Market, Suffolk, which he held until 1849. He was next presented to the rectory of Weymouth, and in 1855 to that of Hinton Martell, which was offered to him by the Earl of Shaftesbury as a tribute to his meritorious services. His writings gained a wide circulation. Among the most important are his "Exposition of the 119th Psalm," "Exposition of the Proverbs," "The Christian Ministry, with an Inquiry into the causes of its inefficiency," and "Sacramental Instruction." He was also the author of several published sermons.

April 8.—MACKESY, THOMAS LEWIS, M. D., F. R. C. S. I., an eminent Irish surgeon; died at Waterford, Ireland, aged 78 years. He was a native of that town; graduated at the London College of Surgeons in 1809, and immediately entered the army and served in many memorable actions, including Waterloo. Subsequently he returned to his native city, where he acquired a large and lucrative practice, served as mayor, and was for many years an active magistrate and poor-law guardian. In 1862 he was elected President of the Royal College of Surgeons of Ireland, and the following year received the degree of M. D. from the University of Dublin. He was a contributor to the "Transactions" of the Social Science Association on Hygienic and Public Medicine, and frequently lectured before the Irish Medical Association.

April 10.—RADNOR, Rt. Hon. Sir W. PLEYDELL BOUVERIE, third Earl of, an English peer; died at his seat, Coleshill, Berkshire. He was born in May, 1779, at London, and belonged to a family raised to the peerage in 1747. He commenced his political life in 1802, and from that time until 1828 took an active part in the parliamentary contests as an extreme Liberal, sitting for Salisbury. On the death of his father, in 1828, he succeeded to the earldom and took his seat in the House of Lords. Here he was known for many years as the "Radical Peer," and was so decidedly a Reformer that the Liberal party, when in power, did not venture to give him a place in the Cabinet, although entitled to it for his ability and services. The latter part of his life he passed mostly at his Berkshire estate, devoting his attention to agriculture and horticulture.

April 11.—ILBERY, JOSIAH JAMES, the oldest railway officer in the world, died at Douglass, Isle of Man, aged 100 years. He was born in London, September 16, 1769. In 1826 he was engaged to fulfil the duties of Superintendent to the Liverpool and Manchester Railway, at the Liverpool end, and, from the opening of the line in 1830 until he had entered his eighty-sixth year, his laborious duties were faithfully and regularly performed.

April 11.—SELLER, WILLIAM, M. D., F. R. S., an eminent Scottish physician, and professor of materia medica, died at Edinburgh, aged 72 years. He was educated at the High School, Edinburgh, and afterward at the University, where he graduated in medicine, in 1821. In 1836 he was made a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians, and, in 1848, President. Subsequently he was elected Fellow of the Royal Society of Edinburgh, and, as lecturer under the Morison endowment, delivered six annual lectures on mental diseases, in which his metaphysical powers of mind were strongly displayed. He was President of the Medico-Chirurgical Society from 1854 to 1856, and examiner in medicine at the university till within a short time of his death. For many years he acted as physician to the Royal Public Dispensary. He was the author of an elaborate memoir of the life and writings of Dr. Whytt, "Physiology at the Farm," and papers on the treatment of different diseases.

April 19. — FINGALL, Sir ARTHUR JAMES PLUNKETT, ninth Earl of, K. P., an Irish Cath-

olic nobleman, died in London, aged 78 years. He was born in Geneva. In July, 1836, he succeeded to the honors of the Irish and British peerage. He represented the County of Meath in the liberal interest in the first two Parliaments of William IV., and was for many years Lord-Lieutenant and Custos Rotulorum of the county, and at one time a Lord-in-Waiting on her Majesty. In 1834 he was a Privy Councillor in Ireland, and was made a Knight of the Order of St. Patrick in 1846.

April 21.—LAUDER, ROBERT SCOTT, R. S. A., a Scottish *genre* painter of great talent, died in Edinburgh. He was born at Silvermills, near that city, in 1803, and, like most of those who have become distinguished painters in after-life, early displayed decided taste for drawing, which, however, met with but little encouragement from his family. His first distinct ideas of art were received, when not far from nine years of age, from David Roberts, afterward a celebrated artist. Subsequently, through the influence of Sir Walter Scott, he was admitted a student in the Trustees' Gallery in Edinburgh, where he successfully prosecuted his studies for several years, after which he spent five years on the Continent, studying at Rome, Florence, Bologna, and Venice, and, in 1838, established himself in London, where he won a great reputation by his "Bride of Lammermuir," exhibited in the Royal Academy, his "Glee Maiden," "Meg Merrilies," "Claverhouse ordering Morton to be shot," "Christ teaching Humility," and "Christ walking on the Waters." Since 1849 he had resided in Edinburgh, and contributed some valuable pictures to the Scottish Academy's exhibition.

April 22.—BELL, Rev. PATRICK, LL. D., an eminent inventor, and Presbyterian clergyman; died at Carmyllie, aged about 70 years. He was the son of a farmer of Auchterhouse, Forfarshire, where he was born; was educated at the University of St. Andrew's, where he distinguished himself in mathematics and their application to physics, also by his fondness for natural philosophy, and, in 1827, while still a student, invented the reaping-machine, the principle of which was suggested to him by a pair of shears. As a recognition of his important service to agriculture, Dr. Bell was presented with a thousand pounds by the Highland Society, and a piece of plate by the farmers of Scotland. He also received the honorary degree of LL. D. from the University of St. Andrew's, and subsequently a similar degree was conferred upon him by an American college. His ordination did not take place until 1843.

April 30.—BULLER, Sir ARTHUR WILLIAM, M. P., an English jurist and scholar; died in London, aged 61 years. He was the son of the late Charles Buller, formerly in the civil service of the East India Company; was born in Calcutta in 1808, and educated at the University of Edinburgh and Trinity College, Cambridge, where he graduated B. A. in 1830, and M. A. in 1834, and the same year was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn. From 1840 to July, 1848, he was Queen's Advocate in Ceylon, and left that post to accept the appointment of Judge of the Supreme Court of Calcutta. In 1858 he resigned. From June, 1852, to June, 1865, he represented Davenport in the House of Commons, after which time he sat for Liskeard. He was a Liberal in politics, and supported Mr. Gladstone's bill for the disestablishment and disendowment of the Irish Church.

April —.—DALTON, Rt. Rev. JOHN, Roman Catholic bishop of Harbor Grace, Newfoundland; died there suddenly. He was nominated bishop on the creation of the see in 1856, and was consecrated the same year.

April —.—DREYSCHOCK, M., a distinguished German pianist; died in Venice, aged 51 years. He was born at Zack, in Bohemia, and had for several years filled the post of director of the Conservatoire of Music at St. Petersburg.

April —.—TILLY, COUNT CHARLES GUSTAVE EDWARD AUGUSTUS VON TSERCLAS, the last survivor of the line of Count Tilly, the celebrated opponent of Gustavus Adolphus in the Thirty Years' War; died aged 85 years. He had been chamberlain to the King of Holland, and a member of the Equestrian Order of Brabant, and was the last direct descendant of Everard von Tserclas Tilly, the liberator of Brussels in 1356, and of his descendant above alluded to, who was generalissimo of the Catholic League in the seventeenth century.

May 4.—LEFROY, Rt. Hon. THOMAS, LL. D., late Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench in Ireland; died at Bray, near Dublin, aged 93 years. He was born at Bray in 1797; educated at Trinity College, Dublin, where he won the gold medal of his class, and was called to the bar of Lincoln's Inn in 1797. After practising for several years in the courts of common law and equity, he was, in 1818, appointed his Majesty's third sergeant-at-law, and, rising in succession to the first, frequently served as a Judge of Assize. In 1830 he resigned, and from that period until 1841 represented the University of Dublin in Parliament, in the Conservative interest. Upon the return of Sir Robert Peel to place and power in that year, Mr. Lefroy was appointed to the first vacancy on the Irish Bench, as one of the Barons of the Exchequer; whence he was promoted, in 1852, by Lord Derby, to the post of Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, which seat he held until his ninetieth year, when he resigned, and bade adieu to public life. He was the author of several law reports.

May 8.—COLE, THOMAS, better known as "Daddy Cole," a Christian negro of considerable intelligence and medical skill; died at Lagos, Western Africa, aged 114 years. He had been for many years a native doctor in Sierra Leone, Abeokuta, and Lagos, and had been very successful in the African fevers. He was forty years previous to his death a

consistent member and class-leader of the Wesleyans.

May 8.—WESTCOMB, CHARLES, an English publisher and editor; died in London, aged 48 years. He was born of poor parents in Exeter, and was educated in one of the public schools of St. Sidwell's. At the age of eleven he undertook his first public duty—that of keeping the cholera-books of the visitations of 1832. Being a skilful accountant, he early enlisted in the management of several mining enterprises, and his love of work was so absorbing, that for many years he accomplished what would have overtaxed the energies of three ordinary men. In 1859 he became proprietor of the *Exeter and Plymouth Gazette*, and subsequently purchased in succession the *Maidstone Journal*, the *London Globe*, and the *Edinburgh Courant*. Besides his editorial duties, he was the mainspring of several mining and commercial undertakings, and devoted much time and attention to public affairs. He was for several years high sheriff of Exeter. Of the School of Art and the Albert Memorial Museum he was one of the originators and most earnest supporters. In politics he was a stanch Conservative.

May 10.—DILKE, Sir CHARLES WENTWORTH, Bart., LL.D., F.R.G.S., F.S.A., a journalist, art connoisseur, and author; died at St. Petersburg, aged 59 years. He was the only son of Charles Wentworth Dilke, the founder, proprietor, and first editor of the *Athenæum* newspaper, and an author of great ability. Sir Charles was born in London, February 18, 1810; educated at Westminster School and Trinity College, Cambridge, graduating LL.B. in 1834. He was associated with his father for a number of years in the editing of the *Athenæum*, and greatly improved its tone and ability, but for the last twenty years had devoted most of his time to art matters, in which his tastes were exquisite. He was one of the earliest and most active promoters of the first Crystal Palace Exhibition, and was a leading member of the executive committee. He was offered the honor of knighthood and a large pecuniary remuneration for his great services in this connection, but declined both. He was a commissioner to the New York Crystal Palace Exhibition in 1853, and one of the five royal commissioners of the second London International Exhibition in 1862, and was made a baronet by the Queen in January, 1862. He had also taken an active interest in the meetings and transactions of the Society of Antiquaries and the Royal Geographical Society. He was a member of Parliament for Wallingford, in the liberal interest, from July, 1865, to November, 1868. He had visited St. Petersburg at the time of his death, to attend the Imperial Horticultural Exhibition about to be held there.

May 11.—BADEN, MATTHEW, a centenarian of Oare, in the parish of Wilcot, Wilts; died there, aged 106 years and 3 months. He was born at Pewsey in February, 1768. He left a numerous family of descendants to the fifth generation.

May 11.—JOHNSTONE, JAMES, M.D., an eminent physician and medical professor of Birmingham; died at Leamington, England, aged 63 years. He was the last of a distinguished family of physicians and surgeons, who, for one hundred and fifty years, had stood at the head of the medical profession in Birmingham and the midland counties. He had been for a number of years professor of medicine in the Queen's College, Birmingham, consulting physician of the Children's Hospital, governor of the Grammar School for thirty years, physician of the General Hospital, and president of the British Medical Association.

May 17.—RICHARDSON, EDWARD, sculptor; died at Brighton, England, aged 57 years. He formerly resided in South Lambeth, and first became known to the public in 1842, from his work of restoring the well-known effigies of the Knights Templar that lie in the Round Church of the Temple. His work was severely and perhaps unjustly criticised, and in a volume which he subsequently published upon that subject, describing his method of procedure at length, he concludes with the assertion that "he found in almost every instance ample authority for adding the missing parts," that "no part of the originals was removed, and that the extent of every restoration may be traced." In 1848 and 1849 he restored eight ancient effigies in the church of Elford, in Staffordshire. He was commissioned to make and procure many of the casts of sepulchral effigies which form the interesting series exhibited in the museum of the Crystal Palace at Sydenham. He also executed some work in a military connection in bronze and in marble. He was an active member of the London and Middlesex Archæological Society, and prepared valuable reports for both the *Archæological Journal* and the *Gentleman's Magazine*.

May 18.—CUNNINGHAM, PETER, an English author and critic; died at St. Albans, Herts, aged 53 years. He was the third son of Allan Cunningham, the poet; was born in Pimlico, April, 1816, educated at Christ's Hospital, and in 1834 was appointed by the late Sir Robert Peel to a clerkship in the Audit Office. In 1834 he became chief clerk of that department of the public service, from which he retired in 1860. He was the author and editor of several descriptive works, guide-books, biographies, etc. Among these were: "Hand-Book of London," 2 vols. (1849); "Guide to Westminster Abbey" (1842); and "Modern London" (1851). "Life of Inigo Jones" (1848); "Story of Nell Gwynn" (1852). His critical works were: the "Works of Drummond" (1833); "Specimens of the British Poets" (1841); "Works of Oliver Goldsmith" (1854); "Johnson's Lives of the Poets" (1854); and "The Letters of Horace Walpole" (1857–'59).

May 20.—AYRE, Rev. JOHN, an eminent

biblical scholar and author; died in Hempstead, aged 68 years. He descended from a worthy Lincolnshire family; was born in February, 1801, and educated at Caius College, Cambridge, where he received his degree of B. A. in 1823. He was for some years Curate of Edmonton, and subsequently held the incumbency of St. John's Chapel, Downshire Hill. He was also domestic chaplain to the Earl of Roden to the end of his life, and was one of the editors of the "Parker Society." In 1866 his valuable "Treasury of Bible Knowledge" was issued by Messrs. Longman, and has had an extensive sale both in England and the United States; and the last edition of "Horne's Introduction to the Study of the Scriptures" was brought out under his careful superintendence. At the time of his death Mr. Ayre was engaged on a learned and elaborate work bearing on Jewish antiquities.

May 23.—JONES, RACHEL, a widow of Bristol, England; died from burns received by her dress taking fire, aged 108 years. Her great-grandson, a man aged 60 years, succeeded in extinguishing the flames, but too late to save her life.

June 10.—HURLSTONE, FREDERICK YEATES, a *genre* and historical painter; died in London, aged 69 years. He was born in London in 1800, and was educated at the Royal Academy, where he obtained the gold medal for the best historical picture, in 1823, and was a constant exhibitor at that institution until 1832, when he became a member of the Society of British Artists, to the presidency of which he was chosen in 1842, holding that position until his death. Among his principal works were: "The Prisoner of Chillon," "Haidee," "Italian Mendicant," "The Moorish Peasant Girl," "A Spanish Beauty," "The Farewell of Boabdil to Granada," and "Columbus at the Convent Gate." His finest portrait was the "Earl of Cavan." Mr. Hurlstone received a gold medal from the French Government, through the French Academy of Arts.

June 10.—SEYMOUR, FREDERICK, C. B., Governor of British Columbia; died on board the gunboat Sparrow-hawk, off the coast of northern British Columbia. In 1843 he was Secretary of Tasmania; Stipendary of Antigua in 1848; Governor of British Honduras, 1857 to 1863; and Governor of Columbia from 1863 to his death.

June 19.—LACUNZA, JOSÉ MARIA, a Mexican statesman and poet; died in Havana, of yellow fever, aged about 60 years. He was a native of Mexico, and had received an excellent collegiate and legal education, and was admitted to the bar in 1834 or '35. When Santa Anna became dictator the first time, in 1843–'44, he called Lares and Lacunza into his Council, and they were the ablest of his ministers. In one of Santa Anna's later assumptions of power, he again called Lacunza into his Cabinet. When Maximilian began his brief and unfortunate career as Emperor in Mexico, he found Lacunza and Lares the most eminent lawyers of the capital, and, as both were favorably disposed toward him, in November, 1864, he made Lacunza Minister of State and president of his Council, and Lares a member of the Council. Lacunza labored earnestly to make Maximilian's administration successful, but, finding this impossible, he resigned in November, 1865, and, finding that the end was drawing nigh, made his escape a few months later to Havana, where he continued to reside till his death. His poems, which are really of a very high order, have passed through several editions.

June 24.—VON DER GOLTZ, Count ROBERT HEINRICH LUDWIG, the Prussian envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary to France; died at Charlottenberg, near Berlin, aged 52 years. He was born in Paris, where his father filled the same office from 1815 to 1822, the period of his death. The son entered the diplomatic service in 1849, as assistant member of the Federal Commission at Frankfort. He was then appointed counsellor of legation, and was afterward sent to Athens as resident Prussian minister. In February, 1857, he became envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary at that post, and two years afterward was accredited in the same capacity to the Prussian embassy at Constantinople in the place of Major-General de Wildenbruck. He remained there three years, at the expiration of which time he was appointed to St. Petersburg, and, after a short term of service in that city, was transferred to Paris in the month of January, 1863, taking the place which was occupied by his father nearly fifty years before. At the period when M. de Manteuffel, the celebrated Prussian statesman, was president of the Council, Count Von der Goltz had a seat for some time in the Prussian Chamber of Deputies, where he acted with the opposition. He was a Knight of the Order of St. John.

June 28.—TODD, Rev. JAMES H., D.D., a clergyman of the Irish Established Church, professor and author; died near Dublin, aged 64 years. He was the son of Charles H. Todd, an eminent surgeon of Dublin, and was born in that city in 1805; graduated at Trinity College in 1825, and was elected to a fellowship in 1831. In 1850 he was elected to a senior fellowship, and in addition to his Regius professorship, obtained in 1852, held the appointment of Librarian of Trinity College, and Precentor of St. Patrick's Cathedral. His chief theological works were: "Discourses on the Prophecies relating to Anti-Christ," 1840; "Search after Infallibility," and a "Memoir of St. Patrick's Life and Mission." He also edited the "Books of the Vaudois," and some of the works of John Wickliffe, including "The Last Age of the Church," and his "Apology for Lollard Doctrines." He subsequently devoted himself to the work of editing some of the ancient records of Irish history from original MSS.

Dr. Todd was one of the founders of the Irish Archæological Society, and was a contributor of very many important papers to the "Transactions" of the Royal Irish Academy, of which he was president for the usual term of five years.

July 2.—BERBRUGGER, LOUIS ADRIEN, a French philologist and author; died in Algiers, aged 68 years. He was born in Paris, May 11, 1801. He was educated in that city, and, having a taste for foreign travel, attended the course in the School of Geography. In 1834 he was appointed by the Government to collect original documents relative to the occupation of France in the fifteenth century. He had adopted the social theories of Fourier, and he lectured on these for some time, publishing his lectures in 1834 under the title of "Conferences." He accompanied Marshal Clausel, whose private secretary he was, into Algiers in 1835, and was with him and Marshal Vallée in their military expeditions, in which he gathered a great number of Arabic manuscripts for the Library and Museum of Algiers, of which he subsequently became the librarian and conservator. From 1835 to 1837 he edited the *Algerian Monitor*, the official journal of the colony. He devoted himself very earnestly to the study of the archæology of that interesting country, and communicated maps and drawings to the French Academy of Inscriptions, of which he was elected a corresponding member in 1839. He had received the decoration of the Legion of Honor in 1838. He was one of the commissioners who treated with Abd-el-Kader in 1842 for the exchange of prisoners, and also a member of the numerous scientific commissions which have explored Algeria. Before going out to Algeria (where he spent thirty-four years), he had prepared a Spanish dictionary and Spanish grammar, and subsequently he published three or four volumes of travel in Algeria: "Algeria Historic, Picturesque, and Monumental," 4 vols., 1842–'45; two volumes of memoirs in the "Scientific Exploration of Algeria," a "Project of Exploration in the Second Line of Algerian Oases," 1850; "The Great Kabylia under the Romans," also published in 1850, and several works of lighter literature.

July 8.—MARTIN, Dr. JOHN, an eminent physician, meteorologist, and author; died in Lisbon, Portugal, aged 80 years. His whole life was devoted to the practice of medicine, but the last twenty years he had directed his attention to meteorological questions, and had accumulated a great mass of information on the variations of the barometer, thermometer, and hydrometer, under given circumstances, on the supply of ozone, on the climacteric, meteorological, and other circumstances which modify cholera and yellow fever. All these investigations were prosecuted after the day's duties were completed, and under the relaxing influences of a warm climate.

July 9.—CALDICOTT, Rev. THOMAS FORD, D. D., a Baptist clergyman and author; died in Toronto, Canada, aged 66 years. He was born in Buckby, Northamptonshire, England, in 1808, emigrated to Canada in 1824, and, after teaching there for seven years, removed to Hamilton, Madison County, N. Y., and thence successively to Lockport, N. Y., Boston, Mass., and Brooklyn, N. Y., in which cities he was a pastor for twenty-six years, writing much for the periodical religious press during the time. In 1860 he returned to Canada and was settled as pastor of the Bond Street Baptist Church, Toronto, where he remained till his death, taking an active part in the promotion of all the educational and benevolent institutions of the Canadian Baptists. He was a very thorough scholar, an able writer, and an eloquent preacher.

July 11.—JERDAN, WILLIAM, F. S. A., an English journalist, author, and man of letters; died at Bushey Heath, Herts, aged 88 years. He was born in Kelso, Scotland, in 1782, educated in his native town, and in Edinburgh, and was for a time a law clerk in the office of a writer to the *Signet*. In 1801 he came to London to push his fortunes, but, after a year's trial of life in a counting-house, returned to Edinburgh to finish his education. He revisited London in 1806, and was for seven years a reporter or contributor for the *Aurora*, the *Pilot*, the *Morning Post*, the *British Press*, and the *Monthly Meteor*, and the publisher of the last named periodical. In 1813 he became editor and part proprietor of the *Sun*, but sold his share in it in 1816 in order to start the *Literary Gazette*, with which he was connected as editor for thirty-four years. He was one of the founders of the Royal Society of Literature, a member of the Society of Antiquaries from 1826, and of numerous literary societies. In 1850 he retired from the editorship of the *Literary Gazette*, and soon afterward a literary pension of £100 a year was conferred upon him. He was a somewhat voluminous writer, having, besides his contributions to the reviews, magazines, etc., which were very numerous, written four volumes of Memoirs, to accompany Fisher's "National Portrait Gallery"; the "Paris Spectator," 1814; "A Voyage to the Island of Elba; an Autobiography in 4 volumes," 1852–'58; "Men I have Known," in 1866; and edited the "Rutland Papers," and the "Perth Correspondence" for the Camden Society.

July 12.—HAIGH, Rev. R. B., LL. D., M. R. A. S., an eminent philologist, and orientalist; died at Holmfirth, aged 65 years. He was educated at Rotherham College for the ministry, but his fondness for the acquisition of languages induced him to abandon his theological studies and devote himself to the classics and teaching. He became familiar not only with most of the European languages, but acquired a proficiency in many of the Oriental languages, which was reflected in the attainments of his pupils. He was for many years Principal of Bramhall Col-

lege. He was a member of the Royal Asiatic Society of London and the Asiatic Society of Paris. His degree of LL. D. was received from the University of Glasgow.

July 18.—RAMIREZ, Rt. Rev. FRANCISCO, D. D., a Mexican prelate and politician, Bishop of Caradro and Vicar-Apostolic of Tamaulipas; died in Brazos Santiago, Texas, aged 46 years. He was a native of Mexico, and, having been educated for the priesthood, took an active part with the clerical party in opposing Juarez. He had won the regard and confidence of the French troops, and, through the influence of the Archbishop of Morelia, the Pope created him a bishop while he was in Europe. When Maximilian came to Mexico as Emperor, he attached himself to him, and was appointed his almoner, and subsequently a member of his Cabinet and council. He was a true friend of the Mexican race, and Maximilian reposed great confidence in him. Upon the downfall of the Emperor he made his escape into Texas, where he lived in great obscurity and poverty, suffering at times for food. His privations broke down a constitution not naturally very vigorous, and he died in great misery after a protracted illness.

July 20.—WADDINGTON, The Very Rev. GEORGE, D. D., Dean of Durham; died at Durham, aged 76 years. He was educated at the Charterhouse, and at Trinity College, Cambridge; was Browne's medallist in 1811; University Scholar and Chancellor's medallist in 1813; was elected to a fellowship in Trinity College, and spent some years in foreign travel. In 1840 he was installed Dean of Durham, and in the following year was chosen warden of the university. He was the author of "A Visit to Europe" (1822); "A Visit to Greece" (1825); "The Present Condition and Prospects of the Greek or Oriental Church, with some Letters written from the Convent of Strophades" (1829); "History of the Church from the Earliest Ages to the Reformation" (3 vols., 1835); "A History of the Reformation on the Continent" (3 vols., 1841); and "Lectures on National Education" (1845).

July —.—BOUILHET, LOUIS, a French author and poet; died in Paris, aged 45 years. He was born at Cany, France, in 1824, educated at the College of Rouen, studied medicine, but abandoned the practice of it for literature. In 1854 he removed from Rouen to Paris. Between 1856 and 1859 he published three volumes of poems; the first an "Epic of the Times of the Emperor Commodus;" the second an "Antediluvian Romance;" the third being a "Collection of Short Poems." He also wrote a number of dramas in verse, which had great success in Parisian theatres. In 1859 he received the decoration of the Legion of Honor.

Aug. 1.—SALISBURY, Rt. Rev. WALTER KERR HAMILTON, D. D., Bishop of; died at the Palace, Salisbury, aged 60 years. He was the eldest son of the late Venerable Anthony Hamilton, Archdeacon of Taunton; was born in London, November 16, 1808; educated at Eton, and Christ Church, Oxford, and elected Fellow of Merton College in 1831. Having taken his degree of M. A., in 1833, he was ordained, and served for a short time the curacy of Wolvercot, and afterward that of St. Peter's in the East, Oxford, of which church he became Vicar, in 1837. In June, 1841, he became Canon Residentiary of Salisbury, and two years later was promoted to the post of Precentor. He labored hard to reform the ordinary Cathedral abuses, and did a large share of the preaching. In May, 1854, he was consecrated to the bishopric of Salisbury, which he held till the day of his death. As bishop he enjoyed the patronage of between fifty and sixty livings, and his diocese included the greater part of the counties of Wilts and Dorset. He took an active part in the proceedings of the Upper House of Convocation, and occasionally spoke also in the House of Lords. Though a learned theologian, and a great reader, he wrote but little. His most important work is a "Letter on Cathedral Reform."

Aug. 1.—TINNE, Miss, a traveller and explorer; was murdered by the Touaregs and Arabs, near Taharet, on the Sahara Desert. She was a native of Holland, and descended from a family of high rank and great wealth. Accompanied by her mother, an aunt, Baron von Heuglin, and Dr. Steudner, she had visited in 1863–'64 the upper waters of the Nile, penetrating a considerable distance beyond Gondokoro, when the whole party were attacked with the African fever, and the mother, aunt, and Baron von Heuglin, died of it. After her recovery, Miss Tinne and Dr. Steudner returned to Egypt, and thence to Holland. But her passion for geographical explorations was so strong, that she fitted out another expedition, in 1868, and, having spent some time at Tripoli, started thence in the spring of 1869, accompanied only by native attendants, and a couple of Dutch sailors, with the intention of crossing the Sahara and penetrating to Bournu. Finding her supplies insufficient, she determined to explore the country of the Touaregs, or Tuaricks, and return to Mourzouk to meet the camels and supplies she had ordered thither. The Arabs and Touaregs who were in her service pretended to quarrel, and the Arabs killed her and the two sailors.

Aug. 2.—MEDWIN, Captain THOMAS, a retired British army officer and author; died at Horsham, England, aged 80 years. He was a cousin of the poet Shelley, and was intimate with him from childhood. After Shelley's death he wrote an interesting memoir of him. He was also a friend and associate of Lord Byron, and some years after his death published a very readable book, entitled, "Conversations with Lord Byron." He had published during his long literary career several other biographies and volumes of travel, etc.

Aug. 5.—EDEN, Hon. EMILY, a very accom-

plished English traveller and authoress, daughter of the first and sister of the second and third Earls of Auckland; died at Richmond, Surrey, aged 74 years. She had received an excellent education, and possessed fine literary tastes. She accompanied her brother, the second Earl of Auckland, to India, when he went out as Governor-General in 1835, and remained there till his return in 1841. Not long after her return she published an interesting volume, "Portraits of the People and Princes of India," and subsequently a volume of her very vivacious and interesting letters home was collected, under the title of "Up the Country." Within the past six or eight years she had published two novels, which were very popular. They bore the somewhat singular titles of "The Semi-Attached Couple," and "The Semi-Detached House."

Aug. 11.—Selwyn, Rt. Hon. Sir Charles Jasper, an eminent English jurist; died in London; aged 56 years. He was a son of the late William Selwyn, Q. C., and was born in 1813; educated at Eton and Trinity College, Cambridge, was called to the bar at Lincoln's Inn, 1840; made Commissary of the University of Cambridge in 1855, and Queen's Counsel in 1856. From 1859 to 1868 he sat in Parliament for Cambridge University, when, having held for a few months the post of Solicitor-General, he was appointed Lord Justice of Appeal, and became a member of the Privy Council. He was knighted in 1867.

Aug. 12.—Di Luca, Ferdinando, an Italian geographer and mathematician; died in Naples, aged about 60 years. He was the author of a series of excellent geographical text-books, in general use in Italy, and approved by the Minister of Public Instruction. He was the editor of the *Compendio di Geografia di Adriano Balbi*, to which he had made large and valuable additions, and had written some excellent treatises on mathematical geography. He had recently published a globe on a new plan, and had brought before the Imperial Geographical Society of Paris, of which he was a corresponding member, the narrative of Piaggia's discoveries in Central Africa.

Aug. 12.—Grange, Constance Caumont la Force, Marquise de la, an accomplished and brilliant French lady, of remarkable beauty, the intimate friend of Lamartine and Madame Lamartine; died in Paris, aged 68 years. She had been twice married, and was a lady-in-waiting on the dauphine, daughter of Louis XVIII., in 1823. In 1832 she married the Marquess de la Grange, a young officer of the *Garde*, who was as strongly attached to the Lamartines as his wife. She survived the gifted poet but a few months.

Aug. 16.—Anne, Louis François Theodore, a French soldier, politician, novelist, and art critic; died in Paris, aged 72 years. He was an officer in the army of the Restoration from 1814 to 1830, but had written in 1820 an historical eulogy on the Duc de Berri. He wrote for some years, either alone or associated with others, numerous dramas, many of which were successful. From 1830 to 1851 he published six or eight historico-political works, always in the interests of the elder Bourbons, to whom he remained faithful. He had produced also, between 1832 and 1858, eighteen or twenty volumes of novels, mostly historical, some of which were very popular. When we add that he was editor of *La France*, art and dramatic critic of *L'Union*, and an assistant editor of the *Revue* and *Gazette des Théâtres*, it will be seen that his literary life was one of great activity.

Aug. 17.—Barrow, Edward, an English journalist; died in London, aged 71 years. He had been connected with the London press for about half a century, first on the *Mirror of Parliament*, of which his brother was editor, and his nephew, Charles Dickens, a reporter. He was afterward, for nearly forty years, a member of the literary staff of the *Morning Herald*, and for a part of the time of the *Standard*, and was universally esteemed.

Aug. 26.—Leys, Baron Jean Auguste Henri, an eminent Belgian historical *genre* painter; died at Antwerp, aged 54 years. He was born at Anvers, February 18, 1815, and was destined to an ecclesiastical career, but his fondness for art was so great that, at the age of fifteen, he began to study for an artist. At the age of eighteen he had already exhibited a picture of considerable merit. He completed his studies in France and Holland, and, returning to Belgium, found in M. Couteau, a wealthy and generous art connoisseur, a most liberal and discriminating patron. For him Baron Leys executed the greater part of his numerous paintings. He was thought to excel in his skill as a colorist, in the spirit and naturalness of his compositions, and in the fidelity and originality of his production of the representative types of the people of the middle ages, which have been the most frequent subjects of his pictures. He was decorated with the order of Leopold I. in 1840, raised to the rank of grand officer of that order, and made a baron in 1851, and subsequently promoted to the rank of commander of the order. He was also elected a member of the Royal Academy of Belgium in 1845.

Aug. 26.—Persiani, Giuseppi, an Italian musical composer, best known as the husband of the celebrated prima donna Madame Persiani (*née* Fanny Tacchinardi), but the author of some excellent operas; died at Paris, aged 68 years. He was born at Recanati, in the Papal States, in 1801, educated at the Royal Musical College of Naples, under Tritto, and produced his first opera, "The Generous Enemy," in Florence in 1826. Among his other operas which were successful were, "Attila," "Gaston de Foix," "Eufemia di Messina," "Ines de Castro," "L'Orfana Savojerda," and "Il Fantasma." Most of his operas were written with

a view to bring out the strong points of Madame Persiani's singing and acting.

Aug. 26.—SPIERS, ALEXANDER, Ph. D., an eminent philologist, professor in the University of France, and inspector of the colleges of France; died at Passy, near Paris, aged 62. He was a native of England, but had been for many years a resident and professor in Paris. He was the author of numerous valuable text-books, and his French-and-English Dictionary (republished here, both in a verbatim edition, and under the editorship of Prof. Surenne) has the reputation of being the most complete work of the kind published. His death was sudden, and occurred just after his return from a tour of inspection of the colleges of the departments.

Aug. 30.—MOREIRA, CUSTODIO JOSEZ, a native of Portugal, but for more than a hundred years a resident of Brazil; died at Franca, Brazil, aged 135 years. He was born in 1734, and his health had been so perfect throughout his long life, that he performed his full share of daily labor till he was 127 years of age.

Aug. 31.—LEMOS SABINA MARIA DE, a Portuguese lady of high rank, the mother of the Baron Rio do Verde; died in Minas Geraes, Brazil, aged 115 years. She was born in Portugal in 1754, and has left over three hundred descendants down to the fifth generation. Her son, the baron, was murdered in Rio Janeiro in 1865, at the age of eighty-one, but his mother was kept in ignorance of his death.

Aug. 31.—YOUNG, Sir CHARLES GEORGE, Knight, Garter King of Arms for all England, an antiquarian and standard authority on the whole subject of heraldry; died in London, aged 74 years. He was born in April, 1795, educated at the Charter-House School, and at the College of Arms, where he was one of the pursuivants from 1813 to 1820. He was then appointed York Herald, and in 1822 registrar of the College of Arms, an office of great labor and responsibility. In August, 1842, he was appointed Garter Principal King of Arms, and received the honor of knighthood. In this capacity he was sent abroad to invest foreign monarchs with the blue ribbon of the Garter. He made eight or nine of these honorable journeys during his term of service. Sir Charles was the author of several books and pamphlets relating to heraldry subjects.

Aug. —.—LOBECK, Prof. JUSTUS FLORIAN, a naturalist, of German birth and education, but long a resident in Chili, where he had made large contributions to natural science, and had been for some years Professor of Natural History in the University of Santiago; died in that city.

Aug. —.—MANEILLE, M., one of the greatest of modern French cooks; died in Paris. Associated with MM. Simon and Barthelemy in the time of the first republic, he opened the celebrated Paris restaurant called the *Trois Frères Provençaux*, and was the inventor of the *Poulet à la Marengo*.

Sept. 3.—HOHENZOLLERN-HECHINGEN, FRIEDRICH WILHELM CONSTANTINE, Prince of, the last reigning sovereign of the Duchy of Hechingen; died at the Castle of Netzken, near Berlin, of apoplexy, aged 68 years. He was born February 16, 1801, and was heir to several other titles and positions as well as that of Duke or Prince of Hechingen, being Burgrave of Nuremberg, Duke of Sagon in Silesia, Count of Sigmaringen, Condé of New Castile, and Lord of Hagerlech and Wehrstein. He succeeded his father, as Prince of Hechingen, September 13, 1838. After the revolution of 1848–'49, when so many dynasties made shipwreck, the prince, prompted in part, perhaps, by his apprehension of a rising among his people, and in part by his desire to contract a morganatic marriage with the Countess of Rothenbourg, whom, by the law of succession, he could not make the partner of his throne, abdicated the government of the principality in favor of the King of Prussia, who was the representative of the elder branch of the Hohenzollerns, on the 7th of December, 1849, and was made a lieutenant-general in the Prussian army, and chief of the second regiment of *Landwehr* of Lower Silesia. He was divorced from his countess in February, 1863.

Sept. 4.—FAWKNER, JOHN P., the founder of the Colony of Victoria, Australasia; died at Melbourne, aged 77 years. He was born in London in 1792, and at the age of eleven years was allowed to accompany, in some humble capacity, the expedition of Lord Hobart, in 1803, to found a new penal settlement on the southern shore of New Holland. The spot chosen was not favorable for a settlement, and the expedition soon removed to Van Diemen's Land or Tasmania, and founded Hobart Town. Here young Fawkner led a roving life for some years, keeping sheep, trading, building huts, and mingling in the plots for the escape of convicts. One of these last adventures involved him in trouble, and he left Tasmania for Sydney for two years. Returning to Tasmania in 1818, he married, acted as advocate or impromptu attorney, started a public house and a newspaper, the *Launceston Advertiser*. In the autumn of 1830 he resolved to start an expedition for a settlement in Southern Australia, and, though not its actual leader, he was its principal promoter, selected the site of what is now Melbourne, and was the most active agent of its settlement. He started a newspaper here, the Port Philip *Patriot*, and began farming, but was unfortunate and became insolvent. Emerging from his difficulties, he converted the *Patriot* into a daily paper, established a sheep station, devoted himself to gardening and wine making, and was active in the city and colonial councils. He was a member of the Colonial Assembly from its first organization, and, having acquired wealth after the discovery of gold, was a prominent man in the colony, and for several years, until his death, a member of the Legislative Council.

where his natural shrewdness and large colonial experience made his advice valuable.

Sept. 11.—PALMERSTON, Right Hon. EMILY MARY, Viscountess, daughter of Lord Melbourne, and widow of Lord Palmerston; died at Brockett Hall, Herts, aged 82 years. Lady Palmerston was born April 21, 1787, and was a cousin of Lady Noel Byron. She married, when but eighteen years of age, Peter, fifth Earl Cowper, by whom she had five children. He died in 1837, and in 1839 she married Lord Palmerston. She was a woman of remarkable ability and tact, and won the esteem and attachment of all with whom she was brought in contact. She was specially distinguished for her kindness and tenderness to the poor.

Sept. 15.—CLARK, Rev. WILLIAM, M. D., F.R.S.; died at Cambridge, aged 81 years. He graduated at Trinity College in 1808, and was soon after elected to a fellowship. In 1817 he became Professor of Anatomy in the college, and discharged the duties of his professorship for nearly half a century. At his retirement in 1866, his services were recognized by a public subscription among the members of the university for a bust in commemoration of his merits.

Sept. 15.—KIERNAN, Right Rev. MICHAEL, D. D., Roman Catholic Archbishop of Armagh, and Primate of all Ireland; died at Dundalk. He was a native of Louth, and, after the usual collegiate course at Maynooth, was ordained curate at Newry and Drogheda, and was then appointed parish priest of Collon. Thence he was transferred, in 1848, to the parish of Dundalk, where he remained for twenty years, acting at the same time as vicar-general of the arch-diocese. He was elected to the primacy in 1868.

Sept. 19.—JONES, GEORGE, R. A., a British painter of great merit; died in London, aged 83 years. He was the son of a mezzotinto engraver of some note, and was admitted to the Royal Academy in 1801, but on the breaking out of the Peninsular War he gave up painting for a time, and obtained a commission in a militia regiment, with which he joined the army under Wellington in Spain, and, in 1815, was with the army of occupation in Paris. He afterward resumed painting, became an associate of the Academy in 1822, and a Royal Academician in 1824. From 1834 to 1840 he was librarian to the Academy, and was then appointed keeper, which post he held for ten years. At the commencement of his career as an artist, his pictures consisted chiefly of views of English and Continental towns, but afterward he chose battle-scenes, and, later in life, representations of Old-Testament narrative. Among his principal pictures are: "The Battle of Waterloo," for which he received two hundred guineas from the British Museum; the battles of "Vittoria and Borodino;" and the "Opening of London Bridge." In 1849 he published a "Life of Chantrey."

Sept. 26.—BAKEWELL, J. C., an English journalist, physicist, and author; died at Hampstead, England, aged 69 years. He was born at Wakefield in 1800, received a thorough scientific education, and was connected, as scientific editor, with the *Morning Post* and other periodicals for some years. He was the author of "The Natural Evidences of a Future Life," "Philosophical Conversations," "Electric Science," a Treatise on Geology, and other works.

Sept. 28.—BLOOMFIELD, Rev. S. T., D. D., Rector of Bisbrooke, and honorary Canon of Peterborough, an English clergyman, scholar, and author; died at Wandsworth Common, near London, aged 85 years. He was educated at Sidney Sussex College, Cambridge, graduating B. A. in 1808. He had been Rector of Bisbrooke since 1814. He was the author of a capital critical edition of the Greek New Testament with copious notes.

Oct. 19.—WALSH, Rt. Hon. JOHN EDWARD, LL. D., Master of the Rolls in Ireland, an able jurist; died in Paris, aged 52 years. He was born in 1816, and was educated in the University of Dublin, where he graduated B. A. in 1837 and M. A. in 1840. His college career was unusually brilliant; he obtained a classical scholarship, the first gold medal in ethics and logic, and was also auditor of the Historical Society. In 1839 he was called to the bar, and to the Inner Bar in 1857, where he at once took a leading position. In 1859 he was appointed a Crown Prosecutor, and held that office until 1866, when he became Attorney-General, and in the same year sat in the House of Commons. His parliamentary career was, however, short, as the dissolution of Parliament followed close upon his election, and, before the long vacation was over, he was made Master of the Rolls. He was the author of "Justice of the Peace for Ireland" (1844); "Reports in Chancery, Irish," in 1845–'49; and "Ireland Sixty Years ago" (1847).

Oct. 23.—CONINGTON, JOHN, M. A., Corpus Professor of Latin in the University of Oxford, a profound classical scholar, critic, and author; died at Boston, Lincolnshire, aged 44 years. He was born at Boston in 1825, educated at Rugby (under Drs. Arnold and Tait), and at Magdalen College, Oxford, where he obtained the Hertford and Ireland scholarships in 1844, a first class in classics in 1846, the Chancellor's prizes for Latin verse, English essay and Latin essay in 1847, 1848, and 1849, and was elected Eldon scholar in 1849, and Fellow of University College at the close of his undergraduate course. Soon after he became lecturer at that college. In 1854 he was elected to the newly-created University Professorship of Latin, which he held till his death. His enthusiasm, attainments, and success in his university career are unparalleled in recent times, and were not surpassed by the giants in classical lore of the last century, Porson, the Bentleys, etc. In 1848 Mr. Conington published a translation of the "Agamemnon of Æschylus" in English verse, which attracted great attention for its thorough

appreciation of the force and beauty of the original, and its graceful and perfect rhythm. In 1850 he edited Maguire's "Homeric Ballads." His inaugural lecture as professor of Latin, "On the Academical Study of Latin," was issued in 1855, and "The Choëphorœ of Æschylus," with notes, in 1857. In 1858 he published the first, and in 1863 the second volume of "The Works of Virgil, with an English Commentary," and in 1863 also "The Odes and Carmen Sæculare of Horace, translated into English verse." In 1866 appeared from his pen "The Æneid of Virgil, translated into English Verse." He had also prepared critical texts of some of the classics, and critical essays on others. His numerous articles on classical subjects in the Reviews were evidence of the earnestness of his zeal in classical pursuits.

Oct. 31.—WESTMINSTER, Sir RICHARD GROSVENOR, second Marquis of, an English nobleman said to have possessed the largest amount of property of any British peer of ancient or modern times; died in London, aged 74 years. Known in early life as Viscount Belgrave, he was educated at Christ Church College, Oxford, and entered Parliament in 1818, as member for the county of Chester, and was affiliated with the Whig or Liberal party. He continued in Parliament till 1835, and in 1845, on the death of his father, entered the House of Lords. He was Lord-Steward of the Household of the Queen under the Russell ministry of 1850–'52, and a member of the Privy Council. His real estate, mostly in London and Westminster, was valued some years since at £21,000,000.

Oct. —.—BRUCE, JOHN, F. S. A., an English journalist, antiquarian, and author; died in London, aged 67 years. He was born in that city in 1802, of a family of Scottish extraction; was educated at the Grammar School of Aberdeen, and at private schools in England; studied law, but relinquished the practice of his profession in 1840, and gave his attention to literary pursuits. He edited with much credit several valuable works for the "Camden" and other societies; contributed to the *Archæologia* of the Society of Antiquaries, to the *Edinburgh Review*, and to various other periodical publications, including *The Gentleman's Magazine*, of which he was for some time editor, and edited a Calendar of the State Papers of the reign of Charles I. He was Treasurer and Vice-President of the Society of Antiquaries, Treasurer and Director of the Camden Society, and in April, 1861, was elected a trustee of Sir John Sloane's Museum.

Oct. —.—CERISE or CERISI, LAURENT ALEXANDRE PHILIBERT, M. D., an Italian physician, psychologist, and author, long resident in France; died in Paris, aged 60 years. He was born in Aosta, Piedmont, in 1809, and educated at the University of Turin, where he graduated M. D. in 1828. Not finding sufficient liberty of philosophic speculation in his own country, he migrated to France, and was licensed as a physician in 1834. Being a friend and disciple of the philosopher Buchez, he was for some time one of the editors of the *Européen*, and was one of the founders of the *Annales Médico-psychologiques*, and of the *Union Médicale*. He was made a chevalier of the Legion of Honor in 1845, and of the order of Civil Merit of Savoy in 1849. He had a remarkable tact in the diagnosis of insanity, and his decisions in regard to the most doubtful cases were regarded as almost infallible by the profession. Some of his psychological treatises are among the ablest contributions to this difficult science ever published. Among his works are: "A Critical Examination and Study of the System of Phrenology," 1836; "The Physician of the Infant Schools, or Manual of Health and Physical Education," 1836; "The Functions and Diseases of the Nervous System in their Relations to Education," 1842; a work crowned by the Academy of Medicine. He had also edited with great care and numerous notes, Roussel's "Moral and Physical System of Woman;" "Cabanis's Connections of Physics and Morals;" and "Bichat's Researches upon Life and upon Death."

Oct. —.—RAMSEY, ALEXANDER, assistant editor of the English *Cyclopædia*, and other works, and sub-editor of the *Penny Magazine;* died in London.

Dec. 31.—DE SANCTIS, LUIGI, D. D., an eminent Italian Protestant divine, professor, and author; died in Florence, aged 61 years. He was born in the States of the Church, educated for the priesthood in the Roman Catholic Church, and became Dean of the Church of the Minerva in Rome. He was, while yet a young man, appointed Bishop's examiner, and was in a fair way of attaining the highest dignities of the Church. At this time he imbibed liberalistic views; and, having obtained permission to go to Venice, crossed from thence to Corfu, where he avowed himself a Protestant, and received the protection of the English consul. He next went to Geneva, where he was ordained, and, finding the views of the Free Italian Church too loose and ill-defined, joined the Waldensians, and became a Professor of Theology in their College at Turin. In Italy, in 1859, he entered upon a larger work with great energy, preaching, teaching, writing, and editing the *Eco della Verita*, and his famous almanac *Amico de Casa*, which had an immense sale. He published twenty-three books, all of them of great merit, and most of them devoted to the work of denouncing his early views of the Romish faith. His *Roma Papale* has been translated into French and English, and sold largely both in England and America. His death was very sudden.

Dec. —.—ASAKY, GEORGE, poet, historian, linguist, journalist, and educator; died in Jassy, Moldavia, aged 81 years. He was born in Jassy, educated at the German universities and in Italy, and, upon his return to his native country in 1812, obtained employment in the

Department of Foreign Affairs. In 1822 he represented the new Government of Moldavia at the court of Vienna. In 1827 he was called upon to take part in preparing a Constitution for Moldavia, and, in the capacity of member of the committee appointed for that purpose, he visited St. Petersburg, where he was received with marked distinction by the Emperor, who decorated him with the order of St. Vladimir, and appointed him Keeper of the State Records. About the same time he was honored with similar marks of distinction from the Sultan. For the last forty years he filled several important and public offices, among them that of Director of the Department of Worship and Public Instruction. In this department the most important work of his life was done. When he first entered upon that work there was not a public printing-press in the whole land, and the only two private presses were in monasteries. At his own cost, he founded the first printing-office in Jassy, after doing which he established and conducted several literary periodicals, among which was *The Bee*, the first journal ever published in Moldavia. His activity in promoting education was incessant, and his literary labors were all directed toward the great end of stimulating the sluggish minds of his countrymen, ripening their tastes, and improving their morals. Asaky was a great linguist. He was reported to be master of ten languages, and in 1854 published at Jassy a volume of poems in several languages. He applied himself vigorously also to purifying the written language of the province, which, from the effect of time, and the predominance of the Greek language in the Principalities, had become materially changed from its primitive vigor and purity. For his labors in this direction he is regarded as one of the fathers of the modern literature of Moldavia.

Dec. —.—LAUNITZ, ———, a distinguished sculptor, whose statue of Guttenberg, at Frankfort, is highly celebrated; died in that city, aged 74 years.

OHIO. The receipts from all sources during the year were $4,781,614.49. On hand at the close of the fiscal year 1868, $570,120.75. Disbursements for the year, $4,913,675.10. Balance in the Treasury, November 15, 1869, $438,060.14. The funded debt of the State had been reduced $516,093.57, leaving the amount outstanding, $10,016,581.86. Less amount invested by Fund Commissioners in loans not due, $160,648.59, leaving net balance of debt outstanding, $9,855,938.27. The irreducible State debt, constituted of school and trust funds, is $3,819,912.11, the interest on which, due January 1, 1870, was $265,999.46. The total valuation on the duplicate of 1869 amounts to $1,157,180,455. The taxes levied thereon in 1869, receivable in 1870, are $4,045,476.58 for State purposes, and $18,187,490.92 for county and local purposes. Adding delinquencies and forfeitures, $577,798.34, the total tax will be $22,810,675.84. The auditor calls attention to the fact that increased taxation is necessary for the general fund, to the extent of $510,000. The anticipated deficit is occasioned by the increased expenses of the General Assembly, the addition of eleven new judges to the judicial force of the State, the purchase of land and establishing thereon a Reform School for Girls, and the extraordinary appropriations made by the General Assembly. To meet the deficiency until the amount can be raised by additional taxation, a temporary loan of $300,000 is recommended. The amount of the public debt, matured and immediately maturing, after deducting payments and bonds in the hands of the Sinking Fund Commissioners, is placed at $1,469,599.44. To provide for this the auditor suggests an extension of the loan for $1,000,000, leaving a balance of $469,599.44. As the greater part of this sum can neither be satisfactorily renewed nor extended, the auditor suggests a restoration of the sinking-fund levy for 1870, to one and two-tenths of a mill, which will give the means of paying the entire balance.

The total levy for State purposes is recommended to be four mills, being an increase of half a mill over the rates of the preceding three years. During 1870 the decennial revaluation of all the taxable property in the State will take place. The auditor reports his refusal to pay the claims arising from damages caused by the Morgan raid, holding the legislation approving those claims to have been defective, not having received a vote of two-thirds of all the members elected. Attention is called to the enormous increase of local taxation. The highest aggregate of levies during the war (A. D. 1865), which included nearly two and a half million dollars of war-levies, was only $20,546,237.68. In the present year the aggregate had risen to $22,810,675.84. Statistics given show that the total taxable value of property in the cities of the State is $279,065,819, and that the total levies thereon, for A. D. 1869, amount to $8,705,336.79; that in but one of these cities is the total rate of levy below two per cent.; that in two the rate is above three and one-half per cent.; in one, precisely three and one-half per cent.; in seven it is over three per cent.; in four it is exactly three per cent.; and the average in all the cities of the State is 3.1195 per cent. It is a noticeable fact connected with this table, that of the total levy of $8,705,336.79 on all the cities of the State, nearly one-half is levied in Cincinnati alone, and yet the total rate of levy in that city is but little above the average of all the cities of the State. It is clear, therefore, that, in all the centres of trade and business in the State, the simple protection of the State costs every business man, settled within its borders, three per cent. upon every dollar of capital used in his business.

By an act of the General Assembly in 1868, the office of Commissioner of Statistics was

abolished, and the duties devolved upon the Secretary of State. The first annual statistical report of that officer is a voluminous document, though not full and complete in all its departments, owing to the inability of the secretary to compel the proper returns in all cases. A general review is made of the leading geological features of the State. Sand is said not to exist in unusual amount or unusual purity. Clay is found in vast amount, in all its forms, and has furnished a large share of the State wealth. In carbonate of lime the State is unusually rich. Deposits of hydraulic cements are known to exist, and more will probably be found by the geological survey. Less than a million dollars' worth of petroleum was found during the year, in Washington, Athens, Noble, and Morgan Counties. In Cleveland about 1,000,000 barrels of petroleum were refined during the year, and about 750,000 barrels shipped. About 2,000,000 bushels of salt were made during the year in the southeastern counties. Official returns show that 208,746 tons of iron were manufactured during the year. The superficial coal area of Ohio has been computed at 11,900 square miles. The coal statistics for this year, furnished through official sources, show that over fifty-five million bushels were mined. It is probable that not over two-thirds of the coal mined has been reported, and that the amount actually mined will not fall far short of seventy-five million bushels. Prof. Taylor, in his work on "Coal Statistics," published in 1854, estimates that, in the ordinary method of computation, at least twenty-three thousand millions of tons of coal are available in the State of Ohio. It is expected that the forthcoming geological survey will furnish full and accurate information of these coal-fields, now doubtless the greatest source of wealth and power.

The grape crop in Ohio, for the past two years, has not been satisfactory to grape-growers. The official returns, although tolerably satisfactory, are in some cases known to be considerably below the actual figures. The capacity of the grape to make wine may be considered an important test of climate. Humboldt says ("Cosmos," vol. i., p. 324) that, to procure palatable wine, it is requisite that the mean annual heat should exceed 49°, that the winter temperature should be upward of 33°, and the summer temperature upward of 64°. Meteorological observations, taken at Kelly Island for the past ten years, show that the average for that period, from 1859 to 1869, is 49.92°. At Cincinnati, where wine is also made in large quantities, it will be observed that the temperature of the winter is slightly above the minimum required, the temperature of the summer ten degrees higher, and the mean temperature four degrees higher. Kelly Island has been remarkable for its growth of the Catawba grape, which ripens here more perfectly than in many localities two or three degrees farther south. The whole lake-coast region from east of Cleveland to west of Sandusky Bay, a distance of more than seventy miles, has been regarded as well adapted to grape culture. Last year, however, the grape crop on Kelly Island was about half short, and this year only about one-quarter crop was realized. The grape crop along the entire lake region has been a failure for the past two years, with the exception of a strip of country from Cleveland east, where the crop has been fair, but imperfectly ripened. About Cincinnati, where the Catawba grape was formerly successfully grown, its cultivation has been abandoned, and the Ives, Concord, Delaware, and other varieties, have been successfully substituted.

In 1868, the culture of the grape was as follows: Acres planted, 2,357; acres in vineyard, 7,574. Pounds of grapes gathered, 2,937,737. Gallons of wine pressed, 143,767. The crop was 2,588,490 pounds less than in 1867, and the falling-off in gallons of wine pressed more than one-half. Nearly three-fourths of the entire grape crop of the State, in 1868, was gathered in the five lake counties of Ashtabula, Cuyahoga, Erie, Lorain, and Ottawa, and one river county, Belmont.

The reports made by township assessors for 1869 show the statistics of orchards for that year, and of apples, peaches, and pears, for the year 1868, in the State, as follows:

Number of acres in orchards.....	342,213
Bushels of apples produced.....	11,637,515
" peaches "	599,499
" pears "	66,712½

The increase and decrease in the acres in orchards and amount of fruit produced in 1868, as compared with that of 1867, are as follows:

Acres in orchards.....	8,640	decrease.
Bushels apples produced.	1,913,623	increase.
" peaches "	760,105	decrease.
" pears "	17,145½	"

The reports of the several county auditors, based upon the returns of the assessors, show the following statistics of the grain crops, known as breadstuffs, for the year 1868:

	Bushels.
Wheat.....	16,490,059
Rye.....	815,666
Buckwheat.....	562,256
Corn.....	76,725,228
Oats.....	19,058,852
Barley.....	815,788
Potatoes.....	7,449,967

This shows an increase over the aggregate grain crops of 1867 of 17,192,839 bushels, being an increase in wheat, corn, oats, and potatoes, of 18,218,844 bushels, and a decrease of 1,016,005 bushels in rye, buckwheat, and barley. An analysis of the agriculture of the State for the last ten years shows the statistics for 1868 to be:

Wheat.—Acres sown.....	1,456,734
" Bushels produced.....	16,490,059
" Average per acre.....	11.31

This shows an increase over the number of acres sown in 1867 of 296,770 acres, and a decrease of 247,280 acres as compared with

the average for the last ten years, which is 1,704,014; also a decrease of 821,866 bushels as compared with the average for the ten previous years. The average bushels per acre for that time is 10.15, showing an increase, in 1868, of 1.16 bushels per acre over that average.

Corn.—Acres planted	2,232,301¼
" Bushels produced	76,725,288
" Average bushels per acre	34.37

This crop is an increase of 12,850,224 bushels over that of 1867, and 1.67 bushels above the average per acre of the eighteen previous years.

Oats.—Acres sown	793,573
" Bushels produced	19,058,852
" Average bushels per acre	23.86

This crop is above the average amount raised for the ten preceding years, while the bushels produced per acre are about the same as for that time.

Barley.—Acres sown	40,021
" Bushels produced	815,788¼
" Average bushels per acre	20.38

There was less barley sown in 1868 than for several years previous thereto, while the average bushels produced per acre were more than that of any year since 1864.

Rye.—Acres sown	87,899
" Bushels produced	815,666
" Average bushels per acre	9.30

This is a decrease from 1867 of 20,800 acres sown, 209,625 bushels produced, and 0.14 in average.

Buckwheat.—Acres sown	51,232
" Bushels produced	562,256
" Average bushels per acre	10.97

This is a decrease from 1867, in acres sown, of 6,641; in bushels produced, 27,989, and an increased average of 0.78.

Potatoes.—Acres planted	103,287
" Bushels produced	7,449,247
" Average bushels per acre	72.12

This crop is the largest since 1860, and the largest yield per acre since 1864.

A comparative aggregate statement for the past five years shows an average acreage in grain of 4,555,760, while the number of acres sown in 1868 exceeded this average by 214,287. The year 1868 shows the largest aggregate of breadstuffs since 1861.

Hay.—Acres	1,532,342
" Tons produced	1,743,537
" Average tons per acre	1.13

The average for ten years was 1.18 tons per acre.

Flax.—Acres sown	97,820
" Bushels of seed produced	620,092
" Pounds of fibre produced	12,032,392

The culture of flax in 1868 was greater than in any year since 1862, when the statistics of this crop were first reported.

Tobacco.—Acres planted	18,035
" Pounds produced	17,398,198
" Average pounds per acre	964

The crop is above the average, both in quantity and average per acre.

In 1868, 87,005,878 pounds of butter and 17,814,599 pounds of cheese were produced, being 2,466,967 pounds of butter more, and 2,227,569 pounds of cheese less, than the average of nine years. The manufacture of cheese for export is confined to the counties composing the Western Reserve. The sorghum crop for 1868 was as follows:

Acres planted	25,257
Pounds of sugar produced	28,668
Gallons of molasses produced	2,004,055
Average gallons of molasses per acre	79

The returns show that maple sugar and molasses were manufactured in 1868 as follows:

Pounds of maple sugar	3,570,932
Gallons of molasses	311,191

This is considerably below the average production.

The sweet-potato crop, in 1868, was as follows:

Number of acres planted	2,030
Number of bushels produced	148,268
Average bushels per acre	73

There were, in 1868, 3,963,097 acres in pasture, being a decrease of 358,209 acres. The acres of uncultivated lands in 1868 amounted to 5,861,277 acres, being a decrease of 85,524 acres from the previous year.

The number and value of horses, cattle, mules, and sheep, listed for taxation in 1869, are as follows:

Number of horses	704,578
Value of same	$47,961,833
Average value	$68 07
Number of cattle	1,492,581
Value of same	$32,924,806
Average value	$22 05
Number of mules	25,090
Value of same	$1,740,487
Average value	$69 56
Number of sheep	6,272,640
Value of same	$10,774,324
Average value	$1 71

Comparing with the year 1868, we have the following result:

Decrease in number of sheep	1,416,205
Decrease in value of same	$4,045,029
Decrease in average value	.21

The returns of the assessors show that the wool-clip in 1868 was 22,940,479 pounds, which is a decrease of 1,908,145 pounds as compared with the clip of the previous year.

The following table shows the damage done to sheep by dogs during the year:

Number of sheep killed by dogs	48,203
Value of same	$98,167
Number of sheep injured by dogs	22,725
Estimate of injury done	$32,546
Aggregate amount of injury to sheep by dogs	$130,713
Number of dogs in the State	184,102

The number of hogs in the State is placed at 1,455,943; value, $8,030,262; average value, $5.51.

The number of marriages reported for the year ending July 1, 1869, is as follows:

Marriages by license	23,482
Marriages by banns	428
Total marriages for the year	23,910

The number of marriages for 1869 shows a decrease of 4,321 on the number for 1868. Eight counties failed to make their returns in reference to marriages for 1868, and there were seven delinquents for 1869. Seven of the counties, which failed to report in 1868, reported this year. If the number of marriages in these counties, with the exception of Pike, was the same in 1869 as in 1868, the number 1,888 should be added to the total given above, making a grand total of 25,798 for this year.

The average number of marriages for each of the three years immediately preceding the war—1858, 1859, and 1860—was 23,707. The average for each of the years during which the war continued—1861, 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865—was, 20,834. The average for each of the years succeeding the war—1866, 1867, 1868, and 1869—was 27,962.

The number of divorces reported as granted during the year ending July 1, 1869, was 1,003, being an increase over 1867 of 136.

In 1866 the divorces stood, in proportion to the number of marriages, as one to twenty-six; in 1867, as one to thirty; in 1868, as one to thirty-three; and in 1869, as one to twenty-four. On the 1st of July, 1868, 629 suits for divorce were pending in the courts of the State. During the year ending July 1, 1869, 1,355 suits were brought. During the same year, 1,343 cases were disposed of—1,003 by granting divorces, 290 by refusal to grant divorces, and 50 by dismissal. Of the suits in which divorces were refused, 111 were brought by the husband, and 179 by the wife. In 58 cases the custody of the children was given to the father, and in 334 to the mother. At the close of the year there were still pending 641 suits for divorce.

Owing to defective legislation, the returns of births and deaths are very incomplete and unsatisfactory. The births reported were 30,150, and the deaths, 15,159. Next year, under the operation of a new law, this class of statistics will be much more reliable, if not entirely perfect.

The number of persons naturalized in Ohio for the year ending July 1, 1869, is 6,114, distributed as follows:

England, Scotland, and Wales	1,421
Ireland	2,408
Germany	1,316
Other countries	969
Total	6,114

The following is the number of deaths by violence reported for the year ending July 1, 1869:

Homicides	78
Suicides	110
Casualties	305
Violent diseases	133
Total	626

The number of inquests held during the year is 481; the number of deaths superinduced by intemperance is 120.

The number of crimes by violence, prosecuted during the year, was 481, being 325 less than the preceding year, while the convictions are 378, a decrease of 21.

The whole number of indictments for crimes against property, for the year ending July 1, 1869, was 906.

The number of convictions for offences against the liquor law is greater by the sum of 307 than in 1868, and greater by the sum of 163 than in 1867. Only 13 persons were imprisoned in the county jail for this class of offences.

The number of prisoners confined in the county jails was 5,727, and the average cost of keeping them $15.33.

The returns for the year ending July 1, 1869, show:

Number of deeds recorded	80,057
Number of leases recorded	2,8[illegible]
Number of mortgages recorded	41,16[illegible]
Amount of money secured by mortgages	$58,871,10[illegible]
Number of mortgages cancelled	20,11[illegible]
Amount of money released by same	$22,111,0[illegible]

A comparison with 1868 shows that the number of deeds recorded increased 663, the number of leases decreased 105, and the number of mortgages increased 3,845. The amount secured by mortgage was greater by the sum of $16,328,779.

The number and value of new structures, for the last year, are as follows:

	Number.	Value.
Dwellings, hotels, etc	14,230	$10,140,10[illegible]
Barns and stables	2,730	770,2[illegible]
Mills, factories, etc	299	718,55[illegible]
Stores, warehouses, etc	333	577,62[illegible]
Churches, public halls, etc	38	1,962,73[illegible]
Total	17,690	$13,389,15[illegible]
Average value of dwelling-houses		$7[illegible] 55
Average value of barns and stables		28[illegible] 61
Average value of factories, etc		2,4[illegible] 1[illegible]
Average value of stores, etc		1,734 6[illegible]
Average value of churches, public halls, etc.		33,[illegible]55 55

There has been an increase of 553 new structures, and an increase in the aggregate value of the same of $2,834,904. During each year a better class of dwelling-houses has been built in the State. The same remark will also apply to other classes of structures. The increase in the seven leading counties, of buildings of all kinds, in five years, has been as follows: Cuyahoga, 6,329; Hamilton, 5,5[illegible]; Montgomery, 2,526; Lucas, 2,431; Summit, 2,018; Franklin, 1,868; Stark, 1,766.

The following is the number of paupers as returned by the county auditors:

Number of paupers in county infirmaries	4,[illegible]
Number of paupers otherwise supported by the county	1,[illegible]
Whole number of county paupers	5,[illegible]

The returns of banks and their capital in Ohio, for the year 1869, are as follows:

	Number.	Capital.
National banks	130	$22,6[illegible]
Private and other banks	141	6,11[illegible]41
Aggregate	271	$28,7[illegible]41

This shows a decrease of five in the number of national banks, but their capital has been increased $461,050.

The number of private banks shows an increase of twenty-three during the year, and the capital of these banks has been increased $990,271.

The amount of legal-tender notes or other moneys exempt from taxation, as returned for this year, is $14,827,340, being a decrease on last year of $7,080,455.

During the year, Cuyahoga County has gained $2,726,201 in valuation; Franklin, $721,193; Montgomery, $114,411; and Lucas, $259,540. On the other hand, Hamilton County shows a loss of $308,607.

The valuation of the five largest cities in the State, together with the amounts assessed in each for city purposes, is as follows:

	Valuation.	City Tax.
Cleveland	$36,462,967	$1,272,012 97
Cincinnati	130,715,510	4,169,824 76
Columbus	16,018,693	384,448 62
Dayton	15,591,090	422,397 54
Toledo	9,079,400	468,373 88

The number of prisoners in the penitentiary on the 31st of October, 1869, was 974, and the number of convicts admitted during the year ending on that day was 347. This is a decrease, compared with the preceding year, of 27 in the number of convicts admitted, and of 67 in the number confined in the penitentiary.

The earnings during the year ending October 31st were	$175,663 06
Expenses	143,635 83
Excess of earnings over expenditures.	$32,027 23
In 1868 the earnings were	$171,037 45
Expenses	141,794 95
Excess of earnings over expenses	$29,242 50

The total number of persons of school age in the State, in 1869, was officially reported at 1,028,675; an increase of 11,108 over the previous year. The total number enrolled in the public schools in 1869 was 740,382, an increase of 8,610 over the year 1868. The average daily attendance in the public schools in 1869 was 434,865, an increase over 1868 of 24,144.

The total of taxes for schools, school buildings, and all other purposes, the present fiscal year, is $6,578,196.83, an increase over the taxation of the previous fiscal year of $616,795.68. Of this increase of taxation, the sum of $17,833.86 is in the State taxation for school purposes, and the sum of $598,961.82 is the increase of local school taxation.

The Institution for the Education of the Deaf and Dumb reports that in 1868 there were 235 pupils in the institution. During the year ending November 15, 1869, 68 pupils were received. During the same time 3 died, 5 removed from the State, 11 left the institution from graduation, promotion, poor health, or expulsion, and 18 were detained at home. The number of pupils present at the close of the school year of 1869 was 266, of whom 150 were boys, and 116 girls. Since the establishment of the institution, 1,113 mutes have been admitted. 190 were admitted the first twelve years or up to 1840; 258 in the next ten years; 210 the next ten, and 348 in the nine years since 1860. Several marriages among the graduates have occurred the past year. The reluctance with which parents often give their consent to unions, where one or both parties are mutes, seems to be diminishing.

The State Library report shows 28,251 volumes in the general library, and 4,567 volumes in the law library.

The State Board of Equalization fixed the valuation of the railroad property within the State, for taxable purposes, at $49,911,387.

The adjourned session of the Legislature opened January 5th. On the 9th, a resolution passed the House, directing the Ohio delegation in Congress to vote against appropriations for the national buildings at Washington, on the ground that the national capital would, before long, be removed to the Mississippi Valley. On the 5th of March, a resolution inviting ex-President Johnson to visit Columbus was voted down. A woman-suffrage proposition was defeated in the House on March 24th, by a vote of 49 to 36. March 31st, a bill, authorizing a geological survey of the State, became a law, and Prof. J. S. Newberry was subsequently confirmed as State Geologist. April 1st, the House rejected the fifteenth amendment to the United States Constitution by a vote of 47 to 36, and on the 30th the rejection was concurred in by the Senate. In the same month, after a long contest, a bill was passed permitting contracts to loan money at eight per cent. interest, all transactions where the rate is not specifically mentioned to remain at six per cent. In the same month a law was passed exempting from attachment $1,000 homestead property or $500 personal property, in addition to the amount already exempted. A bill was also passed to pay claims arising from the raid of the Confederate general John Morgan in Ohio; but the Auditor, on the opinion of the Attorney-General, subsequently refused to pay the claims, on the ground of defective action of the Legislature. On the 7th of May the Legislature adjourned *sine die*.

The Republican State Convention met in Columbus, June 23d, when the following ticket was nominated: for Governor, R. B. Hayes; Lieutenant-Governor, John C. Lee; Judge of Supreme Court, Luther Day; State Treasurer, S. S. Warner; Attorney-General, F. B. Pond; member of Board of Public Works, R. R. Porter. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That, as citizens of the nation, representing the Republican sentiment of an honored Commonwealth, we regard with sincere satisfaction the fidelity evinced by General Grant to the Republican party, and his policy, both foreign and domestic, and his national Administration, and we pledge our cordial support to the measures inaugurated to insure conciliation, economy, and justice at home, and command consideration and respect abroad.

Resolved, That we hail with profound satisfaction the patriotic and consistent declaration of President Grant in his Inaugural Address, that, while he will on all subjects have a policy to recommend to Congress, he will have none to enforce against the will of the people—a sentiment which assures the country of an executive Administration founded on the model of the Administrations of Washington and Madison and that will insure to Congress the unrestricted exercise of its constitutional functions, to the people their rightful control of the Government.

Resolved, That the abolishment of slavery was a national and necessary consequence of the war of the rebellion, and that the reconstruction measures of Congress were measures well adapted to effect the reconstruction of the Southern States, and secure the blessings of liberty and free government; and, as a completion of these measures, and firmly believing in its essential justice, we are in favor of the adoption of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution.

Resolved, That the late Democratic General Assembly, in its reckless expenditure of public money, its utter neglect of the business interests of the State by failing to enact the wise and much-needed financial measures providing for the assessment and equalization of taxation prepared by the commission appointed by the preceding General Assembly; its hostility to our benevolent and literary institutions; its failure to carry out the reported pledges of the Democratic party to secure economy in the State; its extraordinary length of session in time of peace, resulting in an expense to the State, amounting, for the pay of its members, to more than double that of the previous General Assembly; the malignant attempts to disfranchise disabled soldiers and other citizens of the State; its attempt to take from the General Government the right to pursue, arrest, and punish, those who violate the laws made in pursuance of the Constitution of the United States; and the vicious acts intended to destroy the power of the nation to protect and preserve the liberty and safety of its citizens, has shown the Democratic party unworthy of the trust, confidence, and support, of our honest and patriotic people.

Resolved, That the Republican party of Ohio is in favor of a speedy establishment of a Soldiers' Orphans' Home in Ohio, not only as an act of justice to the many poor and helpless orphans of deceased soldiers, but as a recognition of the patriotic services of their fathers in the late war, and for the purpose of redeeming the pledges made by all loyal people to protect the families of those who fell in the cause of human liberty and right.

The Democratic State Convention was held at Columbus, July 7th, when the following ticket was nominated: for Governor, W. S. Rosecrans; Lieutenant-Governor, T. J. Godfrey; State Treasurer, S. Buhrer; Judge of Supreme Court, W. J. Gilmore; Attorney-General, J. M. Connell; member of Board of Public Works, B. P. Churchill. The platform adopted was as follows:

Resolved, That exemption from tax of over $2,500,000,000 in Government bonds and securities is unjust to the people, and ought not to be tolerated, and that we are opposed to any appropriation for payment of interest on public bonds until they are made subject to taxation.

Resolved, That the claims of bondholders that the bonds which were bought with greenbacks, and the principal of which is by law payable in currency, should, nevertheless, be paid in gold, is unjust and extortionate, and if persisted in will inevitably force upon the people the question of repudiation.

Resolved, That we denounce the high protective tariff which was designed to aid the interests of the New England manufacturers. The said tariff is also, by its enormous impositions on salt, sugar, tea, coffee, and necessaries, unendurable and oppressive, especially upon the people of the West, and that we demand its repeal, and the substitution of another based upon revenue principles alone upon the closest possible approximation to absolute free trade.

Resolved, That the Democratic party of the United States have always been permanently friendly to the rights and interests of the laboring-man, that they are in favor of a limited number of hours in all manufacturing workshops, hours dictated by the physical and mental well-being of the laborer; that they favor the most liberal laws in regard to household and homestead exemption from sale and execution; that they are also in favor of liberal grants of land from the public domain to the actual settler, and are opposed to the donation of them to swindling railroad corporations, and that they are generally friendly to the system of measures advocated by the labor and industrial congresses; and we pledge the Democratic party, if restored to power, to exercise them in giving them practical application.

Resolved, That the attacks of Governors Hayes and Lee upon the doings of the late General Assembly are false in fact, malicious in spirit, and unworthy of gentlemen occupying their elevated positions.

Resolved, That the late General Assembly were called upon to make large and extraordinary appropriations; to rebuild the burned Lunatic Asylum, to provide a Reform School for Girls, construct a new Blind Asylum, to make appropriations to pay over $80,000 of a judgment obtained in the Supreme Court of the State in favor of the Life Insurance and Trust Company, and to meet a deficiency of over $500,000 of the preceding Republican Legislature, all of which, together with the extra compensation paid to members under a law passed by a Republican Legislature, were provided for without an increase of the State levy, and the appropriations in the aggregate are much less than that of the preceding Republican Legislature, without subtracting $800,000 from the relief fund for the maimed and disabled soldiers and their families.

Resolved, That we hereby return our thanks to the fifty-eighth General Assembly for their economical expenditures in the administration of the State government, and the exposal of the wholesale frauds in the erection of State buildings, whereby the people were swindled out of $500,000 by the negligence of Republican State officials and the dishonesty of contractors.

Resolved, That it is the right of each State to decide for itself who shall possess the elective franchise within it; that the attempt to regulate suffrage in Ohio by means of the so-called fifteenth constitutional amendment is subversive of the principles of the Federal Constitution.

Resolved, That the policy and legislation of the radical party directly tend to destroy all the reserved rights of the States, and convert the republic into a consolidated despotism; that, whether such despotism be exercised by an emperor, a President, or a Congress, the result would be fatal to liberty and good government; that consolidation in this country means the absolute dominion of monopoly and an aggregate capital over the lives, the liberty, and the property, of the toiling masses.

Resolved, That we denounce the national banking system as one of the worst outgrowths of the bonded debt, which unnecessarily increases the burden of the people $30,000,000 annually, and that we demand its immediate repeal.

Resolved, That the trial and sentence to death by a military commissioner of a citizen of Texas, not in the military or naval service, when the civil courts were in the unobstructed exercise of their functions in that State, and in the time of profound peace, and the approval of that sentence by Accident Grant, are violations of the most sacred rights of American citizens, guaranteed by their constitutions, State and Federal, and deserve and should receive the severest

condemnation of every lover of liberty and constitutional government.

Resolved, That the numerous palpable and high-handed usurpations of the party in power, their many public and private acts of tyranny, trampling under foot the civil law and the guarantees of the Constitution; their continuing to deprive sovereign States of representation in Congress, and to govern said States by mere military rule, show them to be the party of despotism, and unworthy the confidence and support of a free people.

Resolved, That we extend the right hand of fellowship, and recognize as brethren in a common cause, all conservative men, not heretofore Democrats, who will unite with us in rescuing the Government from the unworthy hands into which it has fallen, and we pledge the united and cordial support of the two hundred and fifty thousand Democrats in Ohio, whom we represent, to the ticket nominated by this convention, and presented by us to the suffrages of the people of Ohio.

On the 14th of July a State Temperance Convention was held in Mansfield, at which a platform of prohibition of the manufacture and sale of intoxicating liquors was adopted, and the following State ticket nominated: for Governor, J. E. Ingersol; Lieutenant-Governor, Joshua Wadsworth; State Treasurer, T. Edmondson; Attorney-General, James A. Sumner; Judge of Supreme Court, G. T. Stewart; member of Board of Public Works, L. B. Silver.

Mr. Ingersol declined the Temperance nomination for Governor, and Samuel Scott was nominated in his stead. On the 8th of August a dispatch was received from General Rosecrans, then in California, declining the Democratic nomination for Governor, and on the 11th the Central Committee nominated George H. Pendleton for the office. The election took place October 12th, when the entire Republican ticket was elected. The vote on Governor stood thus: R. B. Hayes (Rep.), 236,082; G. H. Pendleton (Dem.), 228,581; S. Scott (Prohibition), 629. At the same election a Legislature was chosen. Republican and Democratic straight tickets were run in all the counties but Hamilton, and in a few localities Prohibition legislative tickets were nominated. In Hamilton County a "Reform" ticket, chosen equally from the Republican and Democratic parties, was successfully run against the straight Republican ticket. The result of the election was as follows: Senate — Republicans, 18; Democrats, 17; Reform, 2; total, 37. House — Republicans, 53; Democrats, 49; Reform, 10; total, 112. Dividing the "Reform" members according to their party antecedents, the Republicans have a majority of one in the Senate, and four in the House.

The geological survey of the State, authorized by the law passed in March, was entered upon in June. Prof. Newberry, the State Geologist, immediately on his confirmation organized his corps and allotted to the members different fields of labor, Mr. J. H. Klippart, Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture, being charged with the investigation of the surface soil in its relation to agricultural purposes. In addition to the regular corps, seven volunteers were employed on the survey, all experienced men, and five of them graduates of the School of Mines in New York, whose only compensation was their travelling expenses. A portion of these investigated the manufacturing interests, especially in relation to iron and coal. The summer was mainly employed in blocking out the work through the State, and mapping its surface geologically. One of the immediately valuable results of the survey was the discovery of large deposits of water-lime within the State.

The development of the stone interest of the northern part of the State has been greater during this year than at any previous time, several new quarries having been opened. The quarries from which are taken the grindstones, that have long formed an important item of commerce, and the building-stone, that has recently become widely known as Cleveland stone, or Ohio stone, are situated in the counties of Cuyahoga and Lorain, not far from Cleveland. The stratum of rock principally worked is known as "grindstone grit," and is a gray sand-rock, free from pebbles, and of varying thickness. It is of a light-gray color, generally free from coloration by iron, works easily, splits and breaks very true into large and perfect blocks, and, being nearly pure silex, is wholly indestructible by exposure. Colonel Whittlesey, who thoroughly examined the strata of this part of the State as a member of the former geological survey, reported it unequalled in value for grindstone and building purposes by any thing in the Northern States. Grindstones were made from the ledges on Vermillion River, in Lorain County, in 1798, within two years after the settlement of the Western Reserve.

The principal quarries are at Berea, twelve miles from Cleveland, from which comes the greater portion of the grindstones, and recently a large part of the building-stone; at Independence, eight miles from Cleveland; at Lake Abram, between two and three miles from Berea; and at Amherst and Brownhelm, in Lorain County, about twenty miles from Cleveland. The texture and color of the stone vary slightly in the different localities. The Berea stone is of a light gray tinged with blue, and lies horizontally in sheets varying in thickness from one foot to ten feet, on either side of Rocky River, even with the bed of the stream. The rock is generally worked to a depth of from twenty to twenty-five feet, the thin upper layers being used for common flagging, the thicker layers next succeeding for grindstones and bridge-building, and the under sheets, varying from seven to ten feet in thickness, for the finest building-work and statuary. The Berea block-stone was introduced into New York City as a building-stone in 1866, and met with so much favor that a large demand for it sprang up. A great number of important buildings in the Atlantic States and Canada have since been built or trimmed with it,

and it has been successfully used for large statuary. Eight quarries were worked by different firms in 1869, producing 7,000 tons of small and medium-sized grindstones and 75,000 tons of building-stone. Lake Abram stone is of a somewhat coarser texture, of a light-gray or cream color, and crops out on a high ridge. The stone is used for building-purposes and for large grindstones for manufactories, some weighing from two to three tons each. The quarry was first worked this year. Independence stone also is taken from a high ridge, is of a light-gray color, and is used for building and for large coarse grindstones. The quarries are worked by three firms, producing about 4,000 tons, mostly grindstones. The Amherst and Brownhelm, or Black River quarries, are in hills from twenty to forty feet high. The stone is of a gray or cream color, and is used for grindstones and very extensively for building-stone all over the Northern States. The stone from these quarries was the first from Ohio taken to the Eastern States, it having been introduced in New York in 1863. During 1869 the shipments aggregated 30,000 tons of building-stone and 8,000 tons of grindstones. The entire shipments of what is known as "Ohio stone," in 1869, amounted to over 125,000 tons in grindstones and building-stone.

The specific gravity of the Ohio or Cleveland stone is 2.35. It weighs on an average 142½ pounds to the cubic foot. A close analysis makes the percentage of pure silica at from 92 to 95.20, the latter percentage being reported of Berea stone. A number of cubic blocks, 1½ inches square, were, in 1867, tested by hydraulic pressure, in New York, at the request of the architect of Trinity Building. The Berea stone tested sustained an average pressure of 15,400 pounds, and the Amherst or Brownhelm stone of 9,750 pounds.

On November 1st, the Board of Education of the city of Cincinnati adopted the following resolutions:

Resolved, That religious instruction, and the reading of the Holy Bible, are prohibited in the common schools of Cincinnati, it being the true object and intent of this rule to allow the children of the parents of all sects and opinions, in matters of faith and worship, to enjoy alike the benefits of the common-school fund.

Resolved, That so much of the regulations on the course of study and text-books in the intermediate and district schools (p. 213, *Annual Report*) as reads as follows: "The opening exercises in every department shall commence by reading a portion of the Bible by or under the direction of the teacher, and appropriate singing of the pupils," be repealed.

Application was made to the Superior Court, by persons opposed to this action, for an injunction restraining the Board from carrying out the resolutions. They quoted, as the basis of their action, the following provision of the Bill of Rights in the constitution of the State:

Religion, morality, and knowledge, however, being essential to good government, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to pass suitable laws to protect every religious denomination in the peaceable enjoyment of its own mode of public worship, and to encourage schools and the means of instruction.

The injunction was granted, and arguments heard for and against making it perpetual. A decision was rendered in February, making the injunction perpetual. The case attracted attention throughout the country, as bearing upon the question of religious or sectarian instruction in public schools.

OREGON, the most northern State of the Union on the Pacific slope, having California on the south and Washington Territory on the north, extending from the Pacific Ocean to Snake River, the latter constituting a part of its eastern boundary. It is 350 miles long from east to west, and 275 wide from north to south, containing 95,274 square miles, or 60,975,360 acres, being about half as large as the State of California. Population estimated at about 100,000. Capital Salem, in Marin County.

The Coast Mountains and the Sierra Nevada, traversing California, continue northward through Oregon; the latter, after leaving California, are named the Cascades. Near the southern boundary the chain throws off a branch called the Blue Mountains, which extends northeastwardly through the State, passing into Washington and Idaho.

The course of the Cascades through the Sate is generally parallel with the shore of the Pacific, and distant therefrom an average of 110 miles. In California the direction of the Coast Mountains and coast valleys is that of general parallelism with the sea-shore; the mountains sometimes approaching close to the shore and then receding miles from it, leaving belts of arable land between them and the ocean. In Oregon the Coast Range consists of a series of highlands running at right angles with the shore, with valleys and rivers between the numerous spurs having the same general direction as the highlands. The Coast Range of mountains, which extend the whole length of the State, are covered with fine timber, such as fir, cedar, ash, hemlock, maple, live-oak, and other valuable kinds. Numerous streams, abounding in trout and salmon, flow down from these mountains. The western coast is rather rough and uninviting, yet there are innumerable situations where happy homes might be made if settlers had the nerve to attack and subdue the forests that cover them. The climate is mild, the air and water pure, and the soil exceedingly rich and productive, while the water-powers and facilities for manufacturing lumber are unsurpassed, with the broad highway of the Pacific stretching away to excellent markets. The Indian Reservation, covering the principal parts of the coast west of the Willamette Valley is the great obstacle to the settlement and improvement of that part of the State.

The Willamette Valley, between the Coast and Cascade ranges of mountains, is 150 miles long by 80 wide, and embraces 12,000 square

miles. Through this valley flows the Willamette River, which is fed by several fine lateral streams issuing from the mountains. There are easy passes through the Coast Range of mountains to the sea. The soil is deep and very productive, and the valley is well timbered. Immediately south lies the Umpqua Valley, which is reached from the Willamette by easy passes through the Calapooya Mountains. The Umpqua River flows through this rich valley, and is fed by clear, swift tributaries from the mountains on either side, similar to the Willamette. The soil is not quite equal to that of the Willamette Valley.

The lands of Oregon yield as fine a wheat crop as any country in the world, the grain reaching a size and plumpness seldom seen in other countries, and is a never-failing crop. Oats, barley, and, in fact, all small grains grow to the best advantage. It is unsurpassed for fruit and garden vegetables. It is known all over the Pacific slope as the land of "red apples." The people have taken great pride in planting large orchards of the best-selected fruits, which bear heavily every year, and are never known to fail. Peaches grow well, but not so bountifully as apples. It is a great country for pears, plums, cherries, currants, blackberries, strawberries, and many other fine fruits and berries. Some parts of the State cannot be surpassed for grapes, but they do not ripen well in the Willamette Valley.

The people have built many school-houses. There is a liberal system of common schools for so new and weak a State. The poorest cottage has its books and papers; in general, the people are fond of reading.

Oregon is a good country for horses; they are generally fleet, hardy, and live to a very great age. This is also a suitable country for sheep, cattle, and hogs, and has a great many fine breeds of each. Sheep are very healthy, multiply rapidly, and produce very fine heavy fleeces.

The climate along the coast is mild and very uniform; in the Willamette, Umpqua, and Rogue River Valleys it is very much the same. In the summer a gentle breeze blows from the mountains toward the sea in the forenoon, and in the evening from the sea to the mountains. In the winters the winds from the South Pacific strike the coast at the western extremity of the State, and, following the natural channel between the Cascade and Coast Ranges, bring up the clouds from the ocean, which give Oregon her rainy season of from four to six months' duration. When the winter winds blow from the Isthmus of Darien or the Gulf of Mexico, they have snow, which generally lies but a short time in the valleys. In the valleys east of the Cascade Mountains there is more snow and frost in winter, and but little rain. The summers all over the State are dry, clear, and pleasant; the heat of the sun being toned down by the cool breezes, blowing in every direction, from the summits of Mounts Hood, Adams, Jefferson, and St. Helen's, rising to an altitude of perpetual snow during the entire year. The rainy season here mentioned is not one continuous, monotonous rain during the whole winter season, but falls for several days at a time, perhaps for a week or more, with intervals of pleasant weather for several days' or weeks' duration.

The following table of the number of rainy and dry days in the year ending August 31, 1869, will give a better idea of the climate than any description. It is from the registry of Dr. George W. Gray, of Albany, Linn County, Oregon:

	Dry days.	Rainy days.	Showery days.		Dry nights.	Rainy & showery nights.
Sept., 1868.....	28	0	2	Sept., 1868.....	30	0
Oct., "	23	2	6	Oct., "	24	7
Nov., "	19	6	5	Nov., "	19	11
Dec., "	10	10	11	Dec., "	12	19
Jan., 1869.....	14	6	11	Jan., 1869.....	14	17
Feb., "	20	5	3	Feb., "	19	9
Mar., "	15	3	13	Mar., "	18	13
Apr., "	21	3	6	Apr., "	22	8
May, "	19	5	7	May, "	20	11
June, "	29	0	1	June, "	30	0
July, "	28	0	3	July, "	29	2
Aug., "	24	2	5	Aug., "	25	6
Total.....	250	42	73	Total.....	262	103

As will be seen by the above table, we had 250 dry days; 42 rainy days; 78 showery days; 262 dry nights, and 103 rainy nights, during the year ending August 31, 1869. This climate will bear comparison with any in the northern latitude.

The winter of 1868–'69 was among the mildest that Oregon has been favored with for many years. Snow did not fall in sufficient quantities, at any time, to cover the ground, and ice was not formed thicker than one-eighth of an inch during the coldest weather.

The mountain-summits of Oregon and their heights, according to the Coast Survey Reports, are as follows:

	Feet.		Feet.
Mt. St. Helen's.....	9,550	Mt. Constitution.....	2,395
" Ranier.....	12,330	" Erie.....	1,250
" Baker.....	10,760	" Ellina.....	6,812
" Olympus.....	8,200	The Brothers.....	6,827
" Constance.....	7,777	Mt. Hood.....	11,225

There were no elections, either for members of Congress, Legislature, or State officers, and consequently no occasion for political conventions. The State was very much excited during the year, in regard to the projected railroads of the State; nearly 2,000 miles have been surveyed and portions built from the proceeds of the lands donated to them by the Government; but when the companies had sold the fertile lands granted to them, and expended the money, they discontinued their work and left the roads unfinished, and without any facilities for travel over the portions which were finished. These roads have, some of them, during the year passed into other hands, and there is a prospect that most of them will be completed speedily. They will

connect the State with San Francisco, and with the Central Pacific south of the Blue Mountains. It is expected also that a branch of the Northern Pacific, which is already well under way, will be constructed to Portland, Oregon.

OVERBECK, FRIEDRICH, an eminent German painter, born at Lubeck, July 3, 1789; died in Rome, November, 1869. He commenced his studies as an artist at Vienna in 1806; but having adopted certain notions on art, and the mode of studying it, essentially different from those inculcated in the academy, he was expelled, together with certain other students who entertained the same views, and in 1809 went to Rome. Here he was soon afterward joined by Cornelius and Schadow; and these three, animated by similar ideas, and mutually encouraging each other, laid the foundation of a school that now holds a high rank, and has in no small degree influenced the taste for art in Europe at the present time. A picture of the Madonna, which he painted at Rome in 1811, brought him into marked notice. He was next employed, together with his associates, by the Prussian consul, Bartholdi, to decorate his villa with frescos, and here Overbeck executed his "Joseph Sold into Captivity," and "The Seven Years of Famine." After completing these he painted in fresco, in the villa of the Marchese Massini, five large compositions from Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered." In 1814, with several of his associates, he embraced the Roman Catholic faith, and from that time devoted his pencil more exclusively than ever to religious subjects. His chief work is a fresco at Assisi, "The Miracle of Roses of St. Francis," and his greatest picture in oil-colors is "The Influence of Religion on Art," preserved in the Stadel Institute in Frankfort. One of his last undertakings, a series of designs from the Evangelists, delicately engraved in the line manner, is a work of great merit. Through his entire career as an artist, he adhered to the views with which he started, viz.: a thorough devotion to the style of the Italian masters prior to the period of the Renaissance, and a strong impression that form or drawing in the style of Greek or classic art is inadmissible in works embodying religious subjects. Most of his best works are familiar throughout Europe and America, and the most distinguished German engravers have employed themselves in reproducing his compositions.

OWEN, JOHN JASON, D. D., LL. D., an eminent Greek scholar, author, and commentator; born at Colebrook, Connecticut, August 13, 1803; died in New York City, April 18, 1869. His parents having removed to Kingsboro, New York, he commenced his preparations for an academic course under the tutorship of the Rev. Elisha Yale. He graduated at Middlebury College, Vermont, in 1828, and at the Andover Theological Seminary, Massachusetts, in September, 1831. The following year he took up his residence in New York, was ordained to the Christian ministry by the Third Presbytery, and immediately became connected, as secretary, with the Presbyterian Educational Society. He occasionally occupied his leisure time in preaching, but never took charge of any church. When the Cornelius Institute was established, he took direct control of it. About that time he commenced perfecting his knowledge of Greek and Latin, devoting his spare hours to their study with his own ardor and assiduity. He was particularly fond of the former language. The result was, the appearance at different times of translations of several Greek authors, which have since become text-books and standard works of reference in many educational institutions. Among them may be mentioned his Greek Reader, a preparatory book, which was first issued in 1842; Homer's Iliad, 1851; Thucydides, 1849, and also Homer's Odyssey, and Xenophon's Anabasis and Cyropædia. These books attracted considerable attention and scrutiny, and were warmly welcomed by all scholars. It was a frequent remark of Prof. Owen's that theological students were unable to combine the study of Greek and of the Bible at the same time, to remedy which he finally translated the Acts of the Apostles into Greek, appending a dictionary of the words in the same language. His most extensive literary undertaking was his Commentaries on the Gospels, the first volume of which appeared in 1857. Two volumes have since been printed, and manuscript for a third was in readiness for the printer at the time of his death. In November, 1848, Prof. Owen retired from the head of Cornelius Institute, in order to accept an appointment as Professor of the Latin and Greek Languages and Literature at the New York Free Academy. On the 7th of July, 1853, he was chosen Vice-Principal of the academy under Professor Webster, continuing as such until the 2d of May, 1866, when the name of the Institution was changed to that of the New York Free College, of which he became Vice-President.

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PARAGUAY, a republic in South America. President, General Francisco Solano Lopez, born in 1827; assumed the presidency on September 10, 1862. Area of Paraguay proper (situated between the Rivers Parana and Paraguay), 73,000 English square miles; but, including part of the Grand Chaco, a disputed territory on the right bank of the Paraguay, between Bolivia, Paraguay, and the Argentine Republic, and a small tract of land between the Parana and Uruguay, to which Paraguay lays claim, the territory would exceed 200,000 square miles. The population, in 1867, amounted to 1,337,431.

A division of iron-clads left Asuncion on the 5th of January, and, entering the Manduvira on the 6th, chased six Paraguayan steamers to a narrow river, seventy miles from the Paraguay, but were there stopped by the Paraguayans sinking a steamer across the narrow channel. Being unable to follow the chase farther, the Brazilian vessels returned to Asuncion. During the pursuit the Paraguayans abandoned a nearly-completed steamer, an old one cut down, a schooner laden with tackling and cordage, and a number of barges and boats.

Lopez ordered the crews and guns of the steamers to be removed to his new position at Birabibi, in the mountains, where he had 5,000 men, and was actively recruiting.

The American minister, General McMahon, and the French and Italian consuls, were still with Lopez. As regards the forces of the contending parties at the beginning of 1869, it seems that the Paraguayans under Lopez numbered about 9,000, and the allies, under the command of the Marquis Caxias, 18,000 men. The allies for a while were inactive. Caxias left his command on account of alleged sickness, giving it up to Marshal Guilherme de Souza. This indecision gave Lopez time to recover and to fortify himself in his new position at the mouth of the Tebicuari. Paranhos, the Brazilian commissioner to Paraguay, endeavoring to bring the war to a close, made propositions of peace to the Paraguayans on the following conditions: that the independence of Paraguay shall not be impaired; that the freedom of navigation of the Rio Paraguay and the Rio de la Plata be guaranteed, and that Lopez renounce his claims to a portion of the Chaco territory and the province of Matto Grosso.

This proposition was not accepted. The Paraguayans were determined to fight to the bitter end. The prisoners of war, released by the allies at Angostura, rejoined Lopez, who made several very successful raids into the territory held by the allies. On April 14th the new commander-in-chief of the allies, Count d'Eu, arrived at Asuncion, and applied himself first to remedying abuses and providing for a vigorous campaign.

In March General McMahon, the minister of the United States in Paraguay, was recalled by the new Administration in Washington.

The following is President Grant's letter to Lopez, informing him of McMahon's recall:

Great and Good Friend: Mr. Martin T. McMahon, who has for some time resided near the Government of the Republic of Paraguay, in the character of minister resident of the United States, being about to return to this country, I have directed him to take leave of your Excellency. Mr. McMahon, whose instructions had been to cultivate with your Government relations of the closest friendship, has been directed, on leaving Paraguay, to convey to your Excellency the assurance of our sincere desire to strengthen and extend the friendly intercourse now happily subsisting between the two Governments, and to secure to the people of the two countries a continuance of the benefits resulting from that intercourse. The zeal with which he has fulfilled his former instructions leads me to hope that he will execute his last commission in a manner agreeable to your Excellency.

Written at Washington the fifteenth day of March, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine.

Your good friend, U. S. GRANT.

By the President:
HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

At the formal departure from Lopez, General McMahon addressed him as follows:

Your Excellency: My mission near the Government of Paraguay having terminated, I have the honor to place in your Excellency's hands the autograph letter of the President of the United States, announcing my recall. The heroism and noble perseverance which I have witnessed during my short residence in this country has filled me with profound and lasting interest in the lot of its people. I hope sincerely that the day is not far distant when the din of arms will cease forever within the confines of the republic, and that the heroic sacrifices made by the gallant people over whom your Excellency presides will meet their just reward in the prosperity and lasting independence of their country. I now fulfil the last duty with which I am intrusted, by expressing to your Excellency the sincere desire of the President of the United States to strengthen and draw closer the friendly relations happily existing at present between the two Governments, and to insure to each people the benefits resulting therefrom. I offer you this assurance with the greatest pleasure, from the fact that, during my mission near your Excellency's Government, nothing has occurred to interfere in the slightest degree with these friendly relations, and I devoutly hope that they will ever continue on the same footing.

To this President Lopez made the following reply:

Mr. Minister: I had cherished the hope that the worthy representative of the greatest of republics would have been a witness to the end of the heroic sacrifices made by this people for their existence, whatever be the final lot which the God of nations may design for them. I feel flattered, nevertheless, at the just terms in which you recall the heroism of this generous people, and, while our voice is stifled, they will serve to prove to the world that the Para-

guayan Republic still exists, fighting to insure its free return to the community of nations, and that a prolonged struggle has not undermined its faith or shaken its heroism. Sensible as I am of the assurances which your Excellency gives me in the name of the President of the United States, my task shall be to foster the friendly relations between the two countries, so that when we get rid of the enemies now claiming all our attention, we may resume the enjoyment of the mutual benefits they offer.

General McMahon was attended to the Brazilian lines by a Paraguayan guard of officers, under the command of General Caballero—next to Lopez the most prominent man in the Paraguayan camp. On arriving at General Polidoro's headquarters, General McMahon was received with marked respect, and shortly after an aide-de-camp arrived from the Count d'Eu, with an invitation to visit him at his headquarters. He accepted the invitation, and was received by his Imperial Highness with every mark of distinguished consideration. A guard of Brazilian soldiers, under the command of Captain Rice, accompanied him to Asuncion.

When the allies, after several months of inactivity, resumed the offensive, they were at first much harassed by Lopez's bold troopers. General Barreto, with over 2,000 cavalry, failed to advance on Villa Rica, to join General Portinno's brigade, which was attempting a march from the Upper Parana, but, on returning from the Tebicuari, he found he could not get over that river where he struck it, and thought it advisable to make no further stay, looking for fords, but to hurry back with all possible dispatch; and, in fact, it was only by a series of forced marches that he managed to escape being caught in the narrow roads through the woods. As it was, his rear-guard, which had fallen behind nine or ten miles, in trying to bring along some 8,000 Paraguayan non-combatants, was cut off from the main body; the Paraguayans, under Caraballo, coming in by a side-road, and fortifying during the night the narrow bush-road which formed the communication. On being informed of this Barreto turned back, and abandoned his rear-guard to its fate. The Count d'Eu, on hearing that Barreto was threatened by the Paraguayans, hurried off brigades of cavalry and infantry to his assistance, and rescued the rear-guard, but all the Paraguayan refugees had disappeared. Most of the Brazilian rear-guard saved themselves by abandoning their horses and by taking to the woods, living on what they could find till their friends came up. Barreto brought into camp between 3,000 and 4,000 Paraguayan women, children, and old men, who were started ahead, and thus were not recaptured.

A victory was obtained by a Brazilian force that marched against San Pedro, while 1,200 Paraguayans were trying to place a deep river between them and the greatly superior corps marching to attack them. Three hundred Paraguayans were surrounded and taken, the rest tried to cross the river, and, while doing so, they suffered so severely from the fire poured on them, that the Brazilian commander estimates their loss at 500 killed, out of the 1,200 engaged. All the cannon, two flags, some arms, etc., were taken.

These operations on the part of the allies developed the fact that Lopez was still strong. His position was in a range of mountains, having a height of 900 to 1,000 feet, beyond which the country gradually rises to the central chain of Paraguay, where the elevation reaches over 3,000 feet. In those highlands the Paraguayan women were raising food, while the men guarded the approaches and could retire from position to position into still more difficult regions; the gaps were well defended by abattis and earthworks; on the flat tops of the mountains Lopez had his heaviest cannon so placed as to sweep the gaps and command the works below; he was, however, very much in need of arms and ammunition. The Brazilian commander was aware of Lopez's pertinacity and his own difficulties, as set forth plainly and frankly in a statement subsequently made.

The attack upon Ascurra, which had been for several months the stronghold of Lopez, was retarded by heavy rains. When the Brazilians advanced, they received a serious check and were thrown back upon their base, their rear-guard being defeated during the retreat. Count d'Eu was baffled in every attempt to make a satisfactory reconnoissance of approaches to Ascurra, although he commanded the entire line from Asuncion to Villa Rica. On August 21st, the Argentine cavalry cut off 300 to 400 Paraguayans escorting some baggage, but the advanced troops of the allies fell back. The main army, according to official Brazilian reports, reached Perebebuy on the 10th of August. On the 12th, this place was attacked and taken after a stubborn struggle. The place was defended by 2,000 men. The taking of Perebebuy caused Lopez, as it appears, to abandon Ascurra. The allies continued their pursuit, and forced Lopez to accept battle on August 16th. Lopez was beaten, and left 23 cannon, his loss being estimated by the Brazilian reports at 2,000. At the Hondo another skirmish took place, with the same result. On August 18th the six vessels of Lopez, which were beached near Caraguatay, in the Tagy, were burned by the Paraguayans. The allied loss at the taking of Perebebuy is given at 645 killed and wounded. The town was badly chosen for defence, being on the slope of a hill, and commanded from several points. The Paraguayans were caught as in a trap, the works being entered on three sides; but they resisted desperately, even the women taking part with lances and sticks, and hurling bottles and stones at the allied soldiery. General José Manoel Menna Barreto was killed.

After these reverses, Lopez retreated slowly, holding his ground as pertinaciously as could be expected. The Indians in the east of Paraguay seemed to remain loyal to him, and he sent officers to them to organize and train

them. He had still about 5,000 men, but began to be out of ammunition, while his cavalry was poorly mounted. He established his headquarters at St. Estanislas to collect supplies and men (50 miles from the river Paraguay). The loss of the Brazilians during the struggles in August is said, by Paraguayan sources, to have amounted to 8,000 men. The allies prepared to return from Paraguay, and the Argentine contingent was called back. Count d'Eu gave his command to General Polidoro.

Early in the year, the allies had appointed in Asuncion a provisional government. In August the Provisional Government issued a decree, offering free grants of land along the Upper Parana for the importation of live cattle. The Government also abolished the monopoly on yerba, the Paraguayan tea. This was the only tax imposed upon the people by the late government, and it yielded an immense revenue, the tea being purchased by the government at about twenty-five cents the twenty-five pounds, and sold to exporters at about $8.

In September, Lopez retired still farther, to San Joaquin, the allies remaining rather inactive, as pursuit became more and more difficult. In November, the Brazilians crossed the Tejui-Guaza River, and surrounded the position of Lopez, which was promptly abandoned, the Paraguayans being closely pursued by cavalry, which pushed on to Ingatime, where machinery for making gunpowder was found and destroyed. Lopez then retreated beyond the Maracaya. The latest news from the seat of war was very contradictory. The allies several times reported the flight of Lopez to Bolivia; but these reports were up to the end of the year found to be incorrect, as he still continued his guerilla warfare. At the close of the year the Argentine, as well as a considerable portion of the Brazilian troops, were called home, a small force being regarded as sufficient to prevent the return of Lopez to power.

PARDEE, RICHARD G., a promoter and organizer of Sabbath-schools, and an author, born in Sharon, Schoharie County, N. Y., October 12, 1811; died in New York, February 4, 1869. The first sixteen years of his life were spent upon his father's farm, attending, as he had opportunity, the district school. In 1828 he went to Seneca Falls, where he acted for a short time as clerk in the post-office, and afterward obtained a situation in a dry-goods store. In 1840 he removed to Palmyra, in Wayne County, and was there engaged in business until 1852, when he removed to Geneva, and a year later to New York City, having accepted the position of General Agent for the New York Sunday-school Union. Here he remained for a period of ten years, exhibiting marked enterprise and efficiency in the management of the affairs of the Union, developing and extending its influence until it became a conspicuous feature in the religious institutions of that city. About 1863 he resigned his position in order to labor more effectually in the Sunday-school, although, at the same time, he entered into the employment of a life-insurance company. During the last five years of his life he visited nearly every State in the Union, attending conventions, lecturing before Sunday-schools, and everywhere showing an indefatigable assiduity in the promotion of the Sunday-school work, laboring among all denominations alike. He was the author of a volume entitled "The Sabbath-school Index," several articles in religious periodicals, giving his experiences in, and views on, Sunday-school matters, and also of a work on horticulture.

PARK, ROSWELL, D. D., an Episcopal clergyman, college professor and president, and author, born in Conn., in 1807; died in Chicago, Ill., July 16, 1869. He entered the United States Military Academy at West Point in July, 1827, and graduated in 1831, ranking first in his class. He was immediately appointed second-lieutenant of the Corps of Engineers, and served as assistant-engineer in the construction of Fort Adams, Newport Harbor, from 1831 to 1833; of Fort Warren, Boston Harbor, from 1833 to 1836, and of the Delaware Breakwater, at the mouth of Delaware Bay, in 1836. On the 30th of September, 1836, he resigned his commission, and was immediately appointed Professor of Natural Philosophy and Chemistry in the University of Pennsylvania, where he remained till 1842. In 1842 he received deacon's, and, in 1843, priest's orders in the Protestant Episcopal Church, and was, for two years, employed in the pastorate. But teaching was his appropriate vocation, and, in 1845, we find him the Principal of Christ-Church Hall, a high-school in Pomfret, Conn., which he conducted with great success till 1852. In 1850, Norwich University, Vt., conferred on him the honorary degree of D. D., and called him to the presidency of the university. He declined, but two years later accepted the presidency of Racine College, Wisconsin, retaining the position till 1859, and serving as chancellor of the college from 1859 to 1863. In 1863 he removed to Chicago, and founded a literary and scientific school for young men near that city, to which he gave the name of Immanuel Hall. Of this school he was the rector and proprietor till his death. Dr. Park had a high reputation as a physicist, and kept up his acquaintance with physical science through life. He was the author of "A Sketch of the History of West Point," 1840; "Pantology, or a Systematic Survey of Human Knowledge," 1841; "Hand-Book for American Travellers in Europe," 1858; "Jerusalem and Other Poems," 1857, and a number of occasional addresses, lectures, etc.

PEABODY, GEORGE, a banker of London, and the most liberal philanthropist of ancient or modern times, born in Danvers, Mass., February 18, 1795; died in London, Eng., November 4, 1869. He was descended from a

good family of the old English stock, his ancestor Francis Paybody having come to New England in 1637, and having attained to a prominent position and considerable wealth in the colony during a long life there. Some of his numerous descendants, and among them the parents of George Peabody, had met with misfortunes and were poor. In consequence of their poverty they were unable to give any considerable opportunities of education to their children. After acquiring the scanty rudiments of an education, little more than the ability to read and write, George Peabody became, at the age of eleven years, a clerk in the grocery-store of Sylvester Proctor in Danvers. Three years later, he went to Vermont and lived for a year with his grandfather, Mr. Dodge, at Thetford. In 1811, his elder brother, David, had opened a dry-goods shop in Newburyport, Mass., and sent for George, from Thetford, to become his clerk. Not long after he entered upon his duties there, a destructive fire occurred, and his brother, with many others, was ruined. He next went with an uncle—John Peabody, who had at one time been esteemed wealthy, but who had failed in 1811—to Georgetown, D. C. Here his uncle started a store, conducting business from prudential considerations in his nephew's name, though he was still a minor, and very soon intrusting it entirely to his management. His genius for mercantile pursuits soon developed itself, and attracted the attention of some eminent business men. Meantime fearing that, if he continued in business in his own name, he would be held responsible for debts of relatives which he had never contracted, he withdrew, in 1814, to become the partner of Mr. Elisha Riggs, in the wholesale dry-goods trade, that gentleman supplying the capital, the management of which he confided to the young merchant. At Baltimore, next year, the new house entered upon a large and growing business, insomuch that, in 1822, it could afford to establish branches in New York and Philadelphia. The business still increasing, Mr. Peabody soon had the opportunity of making repeated voyages to Europe for the purchase of goods, and several times on his transatlantic journeys was intrusted with affairs of moment by the State of Maryland. By the retirement of Mr. Riggs, in 1829, he became the head of his house, and in 1837 settled in London, four years afterward withdrawing from the firm of Peabody, Riggs & Co., and establishing himself as a banker. At this time he was already a man of large wealth. He had also performed noteworthy service for the public. During the commercial and financial crisis of 1837, he was appointed by the Maryland Legislature one of three commissioners to negotiate a loan. This duty was none of the lightest. In England all American securities were looked upon with suspicion because of the neglect of some of the States to pay the interest on their debt held abroad, and because of the numerous failures which were weekly reported. Mr. Peabody's influence, however, was sufficient to obtain the loan, and, in appreciation of his service on this occasion, the State afterward officially recorded her obligation "for his generous devotion to the interests and honor of Maryland." During these trying days he struggled manfully to sustain the credit of his native country, and it is not awarding him too much praise to say that the restoration of confidence in the ability and purpose of the United States to pay their debts was due more to his efforts than to those of any other man. He had won a high reputation in both Europe and America for commercial ability, strict integrity, and a wise foresight and discrimination in his business transactions, and in a few years his house became the leading one for American securities in Europe, and the one on which letters of credit were very generally drawn. His courtesy and attention to Americans who had letters of credit on George Peabody & Co., were very gratifying to the recipients and spread his fame widely. His house in London became the headquarters of American news and acquaintance. In 1851, when the prospects of the American department of the great World's Fair in London were very dark, Congress refusing an appropriation, Mr. Peabody came forward, and by his liberality supplied the deficiency. Toward Dr. Kane's Arctic expedition he gave $10,000. An American writer in London, since his death, gives the following account of his remarkable courtesies to American travellers:

> During 1851 Mr. Peabody commenced inviting to dinner every person who brought a letter of credit on his house. The thing had been unknown heretofore. He showed to the stranger particular attentions. A day or two after his arrival there was a polite note of invitation to dinner at the "Star and Garter," or to a Sunday's *fête* at Hampton Court, or to a sail on the Thames, or, at least, to an "At Home" at Club Chambers, left at his door. Simply as a business investment, his outlays paid. From 1851 to 1861, on which latter year he retired from active interest in his firm, the drafts upon him in American letters of credit increased twenty-fold. To defend themselves, the other leading houses were obliged to adopt his plan, and to-day the American stranger, visiting the great metropolis, owes it to Mr. Peabody's example that he finds not his money only, but a social welcome, in the bills of exchange he presents.
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> At the head of the dinner-table, as the host of the numerous *fêtes* given at Richmond Hill, Blackwall, and Hampton Court, in his spacious suite of apartments at Club Chambers, or among guests at his extemporized pleasure-parties, Mr Peabody was one of the most genial of men. His gentle bearing, quiet humor, constant attention, and thorough good-breeding—added to his appreciation of whatever was good in the social qualities of others, laughing among the heartiest at a well-told story or brilliant repartee, and never flagging in his interest up to the latest hour of night—made him, as a friend and companion, one of the most desirable of men. It was on the 4th of July, 1851, that Mr. Peabody gave the international entertainment at Willis's Rooms, which brought him his first English notoriety. He had become somewhat known among Americans before this as a giver of good dinners. Not being in English society, however (for up to 1861 even he had never been presented at court, nor was a member of any one of the leading clubs—indeed, his nomination at the Reform had been black-balled), there were grave difficulties in

the way. Mr. Peabody sought Mr. Abbott Lawrence, and laid before the minister his plans. The latter approved, and presented them in turn to the Duke of Wellington. The Duke liked the idea, promised to mention it to his friends, and agreed to accept Mr. Peabody's invitation when it should come. This stamped the affair. Where the Duke went all could go. It was without exaggeration the affair of the season. Mr. Peabody spared no expense. Lablache, Alboni, and Grisi, lent the concert the aid of their voices; duchesses waltzed with Governors of States, and members of Parliament flirted with Massachusetts belles, long past the small hours of the night; newspapers chronicled the wonderful success of the rich American's banquet; and on the morning of July 5, 1851, George Peabody's name was in the mouths of half the kingdom.

The one hundredth anniversary of the corporate existence of Danvers, Massachusetts, occurred on the 16th of June, 1852, and that day was celebrated in a manner befitting the occasion. Among the invitations to attend the festivities was one to George Peabody, who replied, expressing regret that he could not be present to join in the celebration of this the centennial of his native town. He, however, sent the committee a sentiment enclosed in an envelope, "which was not to be opened until his name should be called in due course at the dinner-table." After the dinner had been eaten and several speeches made, Mr. Peabody's name was called, the envelope opened, and this sentiment read: "Education—a debt due from the present to future generations." In continuation he wrote: "In acknowledgment of the payment of that debt by the generation which preceded me in my native town of Danvers, and to aid in its prompt future discharge, I give to the inhabitants of that town the sum of $20,000, for the promotion of knowledge and morality among them." To this sum he afterward made repeated additions, taking great interest in the Peabody Institute and Library, erected and supplied with books and apparatus through his liberality. In all, he gave to this institute $200,000, and $50,000 more to found an institution on a similar plan in North Danvers.

Mr. Peabody's commercial credit never suffered serious reverse. There was but a single time during his residence in London—and that occupying the brief period of two or three days only—when his financial solidity was in question. It was in the early autumn of 1857. There had been great failures in New York. Remittances from America to England ceased. The storm increased. Private bankers refused to discount the best paper, and the Bank of England denied the application for an extraordinary loan to Overend and Gurney. Failures commenced in the city; whispers against the oldest houses were overheard; a draft of the broker of the Rothschilds, for £10,000, on Brown, Shipley, and Co., was rejected when offered for discount, and Peabody was said to be tottering. Mr. Peabody then took the bold step of his life. Without consultation with friends, as if on his usual errand to 'Change, he stepped into the parlor of the Bank of England, placed before the directors a list of his assets, and asked the loan of £1,000,000. Such, at least, was London rumor. What took place in that modern Star Chamber is not on record. Before the close of business hours it was stated, as if on authority, that the great American house was safe. Mr. Peabody's credit stood impregnable.

Five years after this event Mr. Peabody paid a visit to the United States, and one of his first acts was to contribute the sum of $300,000 for the founding of an educational institution in his adopted city of Baltimore. To this he afterward added $200,000, and in 1866 the donation was increased by $500,000, and on the 22d of September, 1869, he gave $400,000 more, making a total contribution of $1,400,000. In 1858 the corner-stone of the building was laid, but, the rebellion soon after breaking out, its erection and dedication were delayed until after the close of the war. In his letters to the trustees of this institution Mr. Peabody expressed the hope that it would be "so conducted throughout its whole career as to teach political and religious charity, toleration, and beneficence, and prove itself to be, in all contingencies and conditions, the true friend of an inestimable Union, of the salutary institutions of free government, and of liberty regulated by law."

While in the United States, Mr. Peabody was the recipient of marked attention from all classes of people wherever he went. Numerous public receptions were tendered him, all of which were declined, save one in Danvers, which was one of the most enthusiastic that was ever bestowed upon a philanthropist.

In 1858 Mr. Peabody returned to England, and set about putting into practical effect a scheme of benevolence which had occupied his mind for several years previous. This was, "under a sense of gratitude" for his success in England, "to make a donation for the benefit of the poor of London." To this end he consulted his friends, C. M. Sampson, Sir James Emerson Tennent, his partner, J. S. Morgan, and the Right Rev. Bishop McIlvaine, of Ohio. In a letter dated "London, March 12, 1862," and addressed to Charles Francis Adams, the United States minister to England, Lord Stanley, M. P. (now Earl of Derby), and others, whom he appointed trustees, he wrote, after explaining the motives which actuated him: "My object being to ameliorate the condition of the poor and needy of this great metropolis, and to promote their comfort and happiness, I take pleasure in apprising you that I have determined to transfer to you the sum of £150,000, which now stands available for this purpose on the books of Messrs. George Peabody and Co., as you will see by the accompanying correspondence." This sum was increased by a further donation of £200,000 in 1864, and just before his death by £150,000 additional, making the whole amount £500,000 —$2,500,000.

Mr. Peabody's object, though stated by him as the amelioration of the condition and augmentation of the comforts of the poor generally, was practically the helping of the industrious poor. The most reasonable way of benefiting these would be, he thought, to provide at very moderate rent decent homes for them. In that great city the children of the poor grow up amid surroundings of painful squalor, and in habitations where all the virtues are in danger of being excluded with fresh air and cleanliness. Mr. Peabody thought it no blessing to overweigh those whom he benefited with a sense of their dependence, and argued to himself that the good done would be all the greater by making the poor free agents in it. He would not maintain paupers, for that was the work of society by other means. He wished to help the poor to help themselves. Consequently, he thought it wise to charge a rent below the average, but to give far better accommodations than ever private landlords could offer. He might also have reckoned upon creating a desire to build a better kind of dwellings than have usually been erected for tenants.

Four great buildings, known by the name of Peabody, have been erected in four of the poorest quarters of London, and others are now in course of erection. It has been said that they did not quite fulfil his design; that the tenants did not like the provision which required them to keep the rooms and halls clean, and preferred to pay the same or higher rents where they could have the privilege of living as filthily as they pleased. It was alleged also that for the most part these tenements had passed into the occupancy of a class above those for whom they were at first intended—clerks on small salaries, poor but industrious journeymen-mechanics—who availed themselves of the opportunity of obtaining a low rent when they could afford one a grade higher. There may have been some grounds for these criticisms, but it is a sufficient answer to most of them that Mr. Peabody, who was not at all inclined to too great leniency in such matters, visited these tenement-houses often, *incognito*, and that he came away expressing himself fully satisfied with the way the trustees had carried out his intentions. It should be said that a part of the income was reserved, to be devoted to the relief of the tenants in deserving cases.

In 1866 Mr. Peabody again visited the United States, and was received with a hearty welcome. He had already given so largely to objects of benevolence that he had begun to experience the luxury of giving, and it was his principal errand here to bestow upon his native country largesses which should transcend what he had given in England. As we have already noticed, he increased his gifts to the Institute and Conservatory of Music at Baltimore to $1,000,000; for the founding of an Institute of Archæology at Cambridge, in connection with Harvard College, he gave $150,000, and to Yale College, for a department of Physical Science, $150,000. But his most magnificent donation was the gift of $2,100,000 to a board of trustees for the promotion of education in the South, without restriction of race or condition; a gift which, under the circumstances of the South at the time, was one of the highest boons which could have been bestowed upon her. This fund has been wisely managed, and has stimulated the liberality of others, and through its influence, direct and indirect, education in the South has taken great strides in advance. To other objects, during this visit, he made donations of more than $200,000, and distributed among his kindred about $1,500,000 in addition. In 1867 he returned to England, and was tendered by the Queen a baronetcy or the Grand Cross of the Order of the Bath, but declined them both, and in answer to a question as to what gift he would accept, said: "A letter from the Queen of England, which I may carry across the Atlantic and deposit as a memorial of one of her most faithful sons." The Queen promptly complied with this request, writing Mr. Peabody a most graceful letter of acknowledgment of his "more than princely munificence," and adding to it a portrait of herself. The letter and portrait are both deposited in the Peabody Institute at Danvers.

The gratitude of the citizens of London manifested itself in the erection of a fine statue of him in that city. Early in 1868 he visited the Continent, and, after purchasing an estate in Hungary, spent some time in Rome, where he liberally endowed an Art School, and where the citizens in gratitude erected a statue to his memory. His health was failing, but he felt that he must once more revisit his native land before his death, and on the 10th of June, 1869, he landed in New York, and, after some days' rest, proceeded to Boston and to his beloved Danvers. He now endowed the Peabody Museum, at Salem, with $150,000, gave $30,000 to Newburyport for a Library, $30,000 to Phillips Academy, Andover, $20,000 to the Massachusetts Historical Society, $20,000 to the Maryland Historical Society, $25,000 to Kenyon College, $10,000 to the Public Library at Thetford, Vt., $60,000 to Washington College, Virginia, and crowned his previous benevolence to the cause of Southern Education by a further gift of $1,400,000 to the trustees of that fund for its purposes. On the 30th of September, 1869, he took his departure for London, and four weeks later died in that city. His known charities to the various objects of benevolence, aside from his gifts to near and distant relatives amount to, in round numbers, eight and a half million dollars. Those who knew him best say that he also gave considerable sums secretly. He left a property of five millions or more, mostly to his relatives. It was his own testimony, and that of those who were most intimately acquainted with him, that these great benefactions were really so many triumphs over a

disposition naturally parsimonious and fond of hoarding; and it was from a sense of benefits conferred on him by Divine Providence that he overcame the natural tendencies of his nature, and exercised his strong will in giving, till it became a delight to him to give; till, in the words of Mr. Gladstone, "he taught us how a man may be the master of his fortune, and not its slave." The extent of his benefactions is undoubtedly greater than that of any man of ancient or modern times, and entitles him to a place among the world's best and noblest heroes. Intellectually he was surpassed my many, but in the greatness of benevolence he stands alone in all the history of the past.

The preservation of the remains of Mr. Peabody for transportation to the United States was intrusted to the hands of Dr. Parry. The process carried out consisted in injecting the whole body through the arteries with a solution of arsenic, containing also some bichloride of mercury.

Twenty-four hours afterward another liquid, consisting of a saturated solution of tannic acid, was thrown in, with a view of effecting the gradual conversion of the gelatinous structures into the tanno-gelatin, or the basis of leather. None of the viscera were removed or disturbed, and, before the opening into the chest required for the injection, practised through the aorta, was closed, an arsenical paste, or rather cream, consisting of arsenic, camphor, and spirits, was introduced into the thoracic cavity; also through an opening in the diaphragm into the cavity of the abdomen, and freely distributed about.

Death had taken place about two days and a half before the process was commenced, and decomposition had set in, so as to produce great distention of the abdomen; but the process was found to check all this, and, when completed, all signs of a tendency to decomposition were removed. Under the silk shroud, and upon the floor of the coffin, there was placed a bed of well-burnt animal charcoal.

PENNSYLVANIA. The Legislature of the State of Pennsylvania met at Harrisburg on the 5th of January, and continued its sessions from day to day until the 20th of April. In that time it passed a large number of acts, very few of which, however, are of general interest. A United States Senator was elected to succeed Charles R. Buckalew, whose term of office expired on the 4th of March. The choice fell upon John Scott, of Huntingdon County. On the 8th of March, the Governor submitted the fifteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution, and "unhesitatingly recommended the prompt ratification of the same." The ratification was made in the Senate on the 11th, by a vote of 18 to 15, and the vote of the House was taken on the 25th, and resulted in the approval of the amendment, 62 to 33. Among the acts of the session was one providing for the registration of electors. An act on this subject had been passed in 1868, which was pronounced to be unconstitutional by the Supreme Court. At the election in October of that year, loud complaints were made of illegal voting, especially in the city of Philadelphia; and accordingly, early in this session, a new registry act was introduced, which recieved the approval of the Governor on the 17th of April. It provides that a list of qualified voters shall be made on the first Monday in June by the assessors, who shall take the tax-list and strike therefrom the names of all who have died or removed from the district, or in any other way lost their right to vote, making careful inquiry with regard to all the persons who are enrolled on the list. The assessors are also to add the names of such persons as are qualified to vote, so far as they can ascertain them by inquiry, at the same time assessing a tax upon such persons. Another list is to be made of all white freemen above twenty-one years of age claiming to be qualified, taking the residence, occupation, name of employer, if any, and whether naturalized or native. The completed list is to be subject to public inspection, and names added from time to time on the personal application of those claiming the right to vote. All such lists, with the assessments, etc., are to be returned to the county commissioners at least ten days before the election, and no additions will be made to them thereafter. Any person claiming the right to vote on the day of election, whose name is not upon the list, "shall produce at least one qualified voter of the district as a witness to the residence of the claimant, in the district in which he claims to be a voter, for the period of at least ten days next preceding said election, which witness shall take and subscribe a written, or partly written and partly printed, affidavit to the facts stated by him, which affidavit shall define clearly where the residence is of the person so claiming to be a voter; and the person so claiming the right to vote shall also take and subscribe a written, or partly written and partly printed, affidavit, stating, to the best of his knowledge and belief, where and when he was born; that he is a citizen of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and of the United States; that he has resided in the Commonwealth one year, or if formerly a citizen therein, and has moved therefrom, that he has resided therein six months next preceding said election; that he has not moved into the district for the purpose of voting therein; that he has paid a State or county tax within two years, which was assessed at least ten days before said election; and, if a naturalized citizen, shall also state when, where, and by what court he was naturalized, and shall also produce his certificate of naturalization for examination; the said affidavit shall also state when and where the tax claimed to be paid by the affiant was assessed, and when, where, and to whom paid; and the tax receipt therefor shall be produced for examination, unless the affiant shall state

on his affidavit that it has been lost or destroyed, or that he never received any; but, if the person so claiming the right to vote shall take and subscribe an affidavit that he is a native-born citizen of the United States (or, if born elsewhere, shall state the fact in his affidavit, and shall produce evidence that he has been naturalized, or that he is entitled to citizenship by reason of his father's naturalization), and shall further state in his affidavit that he is, at the time of taking the affidavit, between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-two years, that he has resided in the State one year, and in the election district ten days next preceding such election, he shall be entitled to vote, although he shall not have paid taxes; the said affidavits of all persons making such claims, and the affidavits of the witnesses to their residence, shall be preserved by the election board, and at the close of the election they shall be enclosed with the list of voters, tally-list, and other papers required by law to be filed by the return judge with the prothonotary, and shall remain on file therewith in the prothonotary's office, subject to examination, as other election papers are; if the election officers shall find that the applicant or applicants possess all the legal qualifications of voters, he or they shall be permitted to vote, and the name or names shall be added to the list of taxables by the election officers, the word 'tax' being added where the claimaint claims to vote on tax, and the word 'age' where he claims to vote on age; the same words being added by the clerks in each case respectively on the lists of persons voting at such election."

The right to vote of any person whose name is upon the list may be challenged by any "qualified citizen of the district," and the same proof will then be required as in the case of a person whose name is not upon the list at all.

After some further provisions regarding the powers and duties of assessors, inspectors, and judges of election, the act contains the following:

SEC. 11. On the petition of five or more citizens of the county, stating under oath that they verily believe that frauds will be practised at the election about to be held in any district, it shall be the duty of the Court of Common Pleas of said county, if in session, or, if not, a judge thereof in vacation, to appoint two judicious, sober, and intelligent citizens of the county to act as overseers at said election; said overseers shall be selected from different political parties, where the inspectors belong to different parties, and, where both of said inspectors belong to the same political party, both of the overseers shall be taken from the opposite political party; said overseers shall have the right to be present with the officers of the election, during the whole time the same is held, the votes counted and the returns made out and signed by the election officers; to keep a list of voters, if they see proper; to challenge any person offering to vote, and interrogate him and his witness under oath, in regard to his right of suffrage at said election, and to examine his papers produced; and the officers of said election are required to afford to said overseers so selected and appointed every convenience and facility for the discharge of their duties; and if said election officers shall refuse to permit said overseers to be present and perform their duties as aforesaid, or if they shall be driven away from the polls by violence and intimidation, all the votes polled at such election district may be rejected by any tribunal trying a contest under said election: *Provided*, That no person signing the petition shall be appointed an overseer.

Some special provisions are made respecting registration in the city of Philadelphia which require greater care in the preparation of lists, and forbid the assessors to take down the names of boarders at hotels, taverns, restaurants, and sailors' boarding-houses in that city, for the proof of residence must be by the testimony of two citizens who are householders and electors.

The constitutionality of this act was soon brought in question, chiefly on account of the difference between the regulations required in the city of Philadelphia and those prescribed for other parts of the State. The provision of the constitution supposed to be violated was that which says—"elections shall be free and equal." An action was brought in the Supreme Court by several citizens of Philadelphia, who asked that tribunal to declare the act of April 17th unconstitutional, and enjoin the authorities of the city from carrying it into effect. The case was first tried at *nisi prius* in the month of June, before Judge Sharswood, and a decision rendered in accordance with the demand of the petitioners. The judge took the ground that the law made the elections unequal because it prescribed one mode of registration for the city of Philadelphia, and another for the rest of the State, and that it infringed their freedom, by imposing conditions upon the right of suffrage, which, if not complied with by the citizen, would prevent him from voting at all. The question was tried before the full bench of five judges, early in July, and the former decision reversed, Judges Agnew, Williams, and Read, maintaining the constitutionality of the law, and Sharswood and Thompson dissenting. The opinion of the majority was read by Judge Agnew. He argued at considerable length that difference of regulation, according to the circumstances and requirements of different localities, did not make the elections unequal, and contended that there was nothing in the law subversive of the rights of the people, as the conditions imposed were only such as were necessary to secure the great ends of freedom and equality of elections. His conclusions are summed up in the following paragraphs:

But it is unnecessary to discuss this subject at greater length. Enough has been said to show that free and equal elections are the true end to be secured, and that the system of laws regulating the elections is only the means of securing the end; that this system of regulation is the subject of legislation over which the Legislature exercises a sound discretion; that no clause in the constitution requires uniformity of regulation, or prohibits legislation according to the obstacles which different localities present to prevent a free and equal election; and that it is a mistake to substitute uniformity of regulation for the free and equal election which it is the object of the

regulation to secure. We have also shown that none of the features of this law subvert the rights of the true electors of this city, and that it is the only test of the constitutionality of any provision contained in the law.

It is true there is a kind of liberty this registry law will destroy. It is that licentiousness, that adulterous freedom which surrenders the polls to hirelings and vagabonds, outcasts from home and honest industry; men without citizenship or stake in the government; men who will commit perjury, violence, and murder itself. To prevent this is the purpose of this law, and it should have the aid of fair men of all parties to give it a fair trial, and secure its true end. It may have defects—doubtless it has; and what system devised by the wit of man has not? But its defects, if any, should be remedied as they are disclosed by experience. The law is not unconstitutional. It is a part of the political system of the State, on which its offices and its very continuance depend; and we, as a court, have no right to put hands upon the whole system on the grounds of mere hardship, and for defects of regulation which are not clear or palpable violations of the letter or very spirit of the constitution.

The political campaign was opened by the Republicans, the State Central Committee of that party having met in February, and resolved that the next Union Republican State Convention should be held in the city of Philadelphia on the 23d of June. The State officers to be elected were the Governor of the Commonwealth, and one judge of the Supreme Court. On the appointed day, the delegates who had been chosen in the various districts assembled, and were called to order by Galusha A. Grow, chairman of the State Central Committee. James A. Graham, of Alleghany County, was chosen as president on the permanent organization. General John W. Geary was nominated for the office of Governor by 122 votes out of a total of 133; and Henry W. Williams, of Alleghany County, was nominated for Judge of the Supreme Court, by acclamation. A committee of thirty, consisting of one from each senatorial district, prepared the following platform, which was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we rejoice in the glorious national victory of 1868, which is bringing peace, happiness, and prosperity, to us as a nation.

Resolved, That we wholly approve the principles and policy of the Administration of General Grant, and we heartily indorse every sentiment contained in his inaugural address, and especially do hereby ratify and approve the late amendment to the Constitution of the United States proposed by Congress, known as the fifteenth amendment.

Resolved, That we have confidence that the General Administration will wisely and firmly protect the interests of the nation in respect to our just claims against Great Britain, and that we indorse the action of the Senate in rejecting the Johnson-Clarendon treaty, known as the Alabama claims.

Resolved, That we heartily sympathize with the struggling people of all nations in their efforts to attain universal freedom and the inalienable rights of man.

Resolved, That we cordially indorse the administration of Governor John W. Geary, as wise, economical and honest, and that it deserves, as it has received, the approval of the people of Pennsylvania, and we especially commend his uniform efforts to restrain the evils of special legislation.

Resolved, That in Hon. Henry W. Williams, our candidate for the Supreme Bench, we present a learned, pure, and patriotic jurist, who will adorn the high position to which we propose to elect him.

Resolved, That we reiterate and affirm our adherence to the doctrine of protection as proclaimed in the ninth resolution of the platform adopted at the State Convention of March 7, 1866.

Resolved, That we indorse the ticket this day nominated, and pledge to it our hearty and cordial support.

Resolved, That the chairman of this convention is hereby authorized to appoint a chairman of the State Central Committee on the joint recommendation of the candidates this day nominated; and that the State Central Committee shall consist, during the coming campaign, of the same number of delegates from each county as the last committee, and they be appointed by the senatorial and representative delegates, except Alleghany County, which shall have eight members.

The Democratic Convention was held at Harrisburg, on the 14th day of July, and nominated Asa Packer for the office of Governor, and C. L. Pershing for Judge of the Supreme Court. The principles of the party were embodied in the following declarations:

1. That the Federal Government is limited to the grants contained in the Federal Constitution; that the exercise of doubtful constitutional powers is dangerous to the stability of the Government and the safety of the people; and the Democratic party will never consent that the State of Pennsylvania shall surrender her great right of local self-government.

2. That the attempted ratification of the proposed fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution by the radical members of the last Legislature, and their refusal to submit the same to a vote of the people, was a deliberate breach of their official duty and an outrage upon every citizen of the State, and the resolution making such ratification should be promptly repealed, and the amendment submitted to the people at the polls for acceptance or rejection.

3. That the Democratic party of Pennsylvania is opposed to conferring upon the negro the right to vote; and we do emphatically deny that there is any right or power in Congress or elsewhere to impose negro suffrage upon the people of this State in opposition to their will.

4. That reform in the administration of the Federal and State governments in the management of their financial affairs is imperatively demanded.

5. That the movements now being made for the amelioration of the condition of the laboring man have our most cordial coöperation.

6. That the legislation of the late Republican Congress, outside of the Constitution, the disregard of the majority therein of the will of the people and sanctity of the ballot-box, in the exclusion from their seats in Congress of Representatives clearly elected, the establishment of military governments in States in the Union, and the overthrow of all civil government therein, are acts of tyranny and usurpation that tend directly to the destruction of all republican government, and the creation of the worst forms of despotism.

7. That our soldiers and sailors, who carried the flag of our country to victory, must be gratefully remembered, and the guarantees given in their favor most faithfully carried into execution.

8. Equal rights and protection for naturalized and native-born citizens at home and abroad; the assertion of American nationality which shall command the respect of foreign powers and furnish an example of encouragement to people struggling for national integrity, constitutional liberty, and undivided rights.

9. That the present internal revenue and tax-

ing system of the General Government is grossly unjust, and means ought to be at once adopted to cause a modification thereof.

General Hancock had been asked to allow his name to be used for the position of Governor, and a letter was read before the convention in which he declined that honor, though he declared that, if he were in civil life, no distinction would be more agreeable to him than to be Governor of Pennsylvania. General Hancock was a citizen of the State, and a distinguished officer of the army during the late war.

The election took place on the 12th of October, and resulted in the choice of the Republican candidates. The total vote for Governor was 576,508, of which Geary received 290,552, and Packer 285,956, the majority of the former was 4,596. The whole vote for Judge of the Supreme Court was 573,941, Williams receiving 291,366, and Pershing 282,575—majority for Williams, 8,791. A full list of members of the Legislature was chosen at the same election, of whom 19 Senators and 60 Representatives were Republican, and 14 Senators and 40 Representatives were Democrats.

The finances of Pennsylvania are in a very promising condition. The fiscal year began on the 1st of December, 1868, and at that time there was a surplus in the Treasury of $1,012,925.37. The receipts during the year amounted to $5,241,711.28, which gives a total amount of funds at the disposal of the Treasurer of $6,254,636.65. Of this, $4,853,774.16 were paid out as follows:

Ordinary expenses paid during the year ending November 30, 1869	$2,485,114 97
Loans, etc., redeemed at the Treasury	109,644 09
Loans redeemed by Commissioners of the Sinking Fund	362,762 09
Interest paid at Treasury	170,665 74
Interest paid by the Commissioners of the Sinking Fund	1,725,587 97

This left a surplus in the Treasury at the end of the year amounting to $1,400,862.49. The question of disposing of these surplus funds each year, so as to save the interest on the money, was considered in the Legislature at the last session, and the Governor was requested to "submit some plan to the Senate to secure the State from loss by the accumulation of large amounts of surplus funds in the Treasury." In response to this request, the Governor suggested that all such funds could, "with safety and benefit to the State, be employed in the purchase of its outstanding bonds, and in saving the interest on them which would accumulate prior to their maturity." This plan was not adopted at that session, and, in his message to the Legislature of 1870, Governor Geary renewed his suggestion.

The entire debt of the State, on the 30th of November, was $32,814,540.95. On the 1st of January, 1867, it amounted to $37,704,409.77, which shows that a reduction has been made in three years of $4,889,868.82. The reduction during the last fiscal year amounted to $472,406.18. The different items of the debt at present are as follows:

Funded debt, viz.:		
6 per cent. loans	$25,311,180 00	
5 per cent. loans	7,277,384 38	
4½ per cent. loans	112,000 00	
		$32,700,564 38
Unfunded debt, viz.:		
Relief notes in circulation	$96,397 00	
Interest certificates outstanding	13,036 82	
Interest certificates unclaimed	4,448 38	
Domestic creditors' certificates	44 67	
		113,976 57
Amount of public debt November 30, 1869		$32,814,540 95

The loans of the State fall due as follows:

Amount of overdue loans, including bank charter loans and relief notes unredeemed				$200,493 25
Amount payable in	1870,	interest 5	per cent.	1,493,815 65
" "	1871, "	6	"	2,520,750 00
" "	1872, "	6	"	4,907,150 00
" "	1872, "	5	"	92,850 00
" "	1877, "	6	"	7,909,600 00
" "	1877, "	5	"	3,994,400 00
" "	1878, "	5	"	321,000 00
" "	1879, "	6	"	400,000 00
" "	1882, "	6	"	9,973,050 00
" "	1882, "	5	"	1,185,900 00
" "	1882, "	4½	"	112,000 00
Amount of loans				$33,810,067 90

The sinking fund of the State consists of bonds of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company to the amount of $6,300,000, and bonds of the Sunbury and Erie Railroad Company amounting to $3,500,000, making $9,800,000 in all.

With regard to the general management of the public funds, the Governor, in his last message, cast some grave reflections upon the integrity of the men who are generally elected to the office of State Treasurer. In urging an increase of the salary of that official, he said: "It is only $1,700, a sum entirely insufficient to command the services of any responsible man, who is required to furnish a bond, with good and approved sureties, for $80,000, and to run the risk of handling at least five or six million of dollars per annum, without the unlawful use of the State funds, and subsidies from sources that dare not be revealed to the public, because they are positively prohibited by law, under penalties of no ordinary magnitude. Yet there are but few men who have held this office, however poor they may have been when they took charge of it, who have not become rich. There is certainly some advantage to be gained by the holding of the position of State Treasurer, unknown to the public, but which readily accounts for the disgraceful scramble, and for the political and moral debauchery which the people of this State seem to be doomed annually to witness, in the election of that officer; and, because of the disgrace it brings upon their representatives, the people hang their heads in indignation and shame."

The public school system of Pennsylvania deservedly holds a very high rank. The State has no school fund, and the revenues for this object are derived mainly from taxation in the different districts. The estimated value of the school property is $14,045,632, and the expense of maintaining the schools during the past year has been $6,986,148.92. There are 1,977

school districts in the State, in which there are 13,936 schools, employing 17,142 teachers. The whole number of children of school-age in the State is 975,753, of whom 815,758 attend the public schools; 85,000 attend private schools, and 75,000 do not attend any school. The average attendance of the public schools is 548,075, and the average cost of tuition for each pupil is 97 cents per month. The average salaries of male teachers per month is $39.00, and of female teachers, $30.52. The increase in the most important items concerning the public schools during the past year, as compared with the same statistics of the previous year, is shown in the following statement:

In number of districts	53
In number of schools	270
In number of graded schools	63
In number of school directors	202
In number of teachers	371
In number of pupils	15,238
In the average number of pupils	37,971
In the cost of tuition	$227,434 83
In total cost, including expenditures of all kinds	$785,610 96

The whole number of students who have attended the four State normal schools has been 10,237, of whom 321 have graduated. These institutions were attended during the past year by 4,178 students, who were instructed by 76 teachers. A State normal school for the sixth district has recently been established at Bloomsburg, in Columbia County, and opened under the most favorable auspices. Its buildings are the finest of the kind in the State, and were erected at a cost of upward of $100,000. A normal school will probably be established at California, in Washington County, during 1870, and efforts have been made to secure the establishment of another at West Chester, for which the sum of $65,000 has already been subscribed.

There are upward of 30 incorporated colleges in Pennsylvania, of which only about 15 are in a flourishing condition. The aggregate endowment of these is reported to be $287,000; their libraries contain 97,938 volumes, and their apparatus is valued at $82,450. During the past year the number of students in attendance was 2,901, of whom 198 have graduated; the number of professors was 149.

Great credit is due to Pennsylvania for the establishment and successful management of soldiers' orphans' schools, where the destitute orphan children of the soldiers who lost their lives in the late war are fed, clothed, and educated, at the public expense. These institutions now meet with the cordial support and encouragement of the people of the State. The increasing number of applicants renders it necessary that some definite limit to admissions should be determined upon by law. It has, therefore, been recommended that "the indigent children of Pennsylvania soldiers, who served in Pennsylvania regiments, and who died prior to January 1, 1866, from wounds received, or disease contracted, in the service of the United States during the late war, shall be hereafter admitted and none others." The entire cost of supporting these schools for the year ending May 31, 1869, was $500,971.62. The number of pupils in attendance at the end of the year was 3,631.

By a recent act of the Legislature, the management of the charitable institutions of the State has been vested in a Board of Public Charities, composed of five gentlemen. This change in the management of these institutions is regarded as one of great importance, and calculated to lead to beneficial results. During the year 212 patients were admitted into the State Lunatic Hospital at Harrisburg, being a greater number of admissions than in any previous year since the opening of the hospital. The number remaining in the hospital at the end of the year was 410—212 males and 198 females. Of those discharged during the year, 40 were restored, 42 improved, and 48 unchanged; the number of deaths was 28. The accommodations of the hospital have not been sufficient for the number of applicants, and preference has been given to recent cases over those of long standing. The receipts into the treasury for the year 1869 were $91,438.78, while the expenditures amounted to $91,359.17. The number admitted into the Pennsylvania Hospital for the Insane, at Philadelphia, during the year 1869, was 220; the number discharged was 243, leaving 313 (157 males and 156 females) under treatment at the end of the year. The highest number of patients in the hospital at any one time during the year was 347; the average number for the year was 330. Of those discharged, 115 were cured, 21 much improved, and 33 unchanged; 31 died during the year. All classes of insane persons are admitted into this institution, without regard to the duration or curability of their disease. The enlightened system for the instruction and amusement of the inmates reflects credit upon the State. The pleasure-grounds, workshops, museums, and reading-rooms, have proved highly successful in the treatment of the insane. Much encouragement is given to out-door games and in-door amusements. At least three evenings of every week are devoted to entertainments of some kind in the lecture-room; while billiard-rooms, bowling-alleys, gymnasiums, and officers' tea-parties, have produced very beneficial results.

The subject of prison discipline has been brought prominently before the people of the State by the recent report of the commissioner appointed "to visit, for philanthropic purposes, the prisons and almshouses in the various counties of the Commonwealth." While the construction and management of some of the county prisons are commended, others are represented to be "unsafe, where prisoners could not be held unless loaded with chains, where the sexes were not separated, where there was no discipline, nor any effort

made toward the moral and religious improvement of the inmates; the buildings totally unfit for the purposes of a prison; and where the prisoners become schooled in vice, and eventually graduated prepared for a life of lawlessness." Other prisons are defective from a want of a proper classification of the criminals. The attention of the Legislature has been called to this bad condition of the county prisons, and the necessity that exists for a thorough reform of the penal system of the State. During the year ending December 31, 1869, 1,550 applications for pardon were made to the Executive, of which 62, or four per cent., were granted, 1,108 rejected, and 380 were still under consideration at the close of the year. Seven criminals suffered the penalty of death during the year.

An unusual martial spirit has prevailed throughout the State during the past year. In 1866 there were 8 volunteer companies, in 1867, 88; in 1868, 67; which number increased in 1869 to 184. During the year ending November 30, 1869, 107 companies were organized, of which 56 are in Philadelphia. In his last message to the Legislature, Governor Geary says of this force: "This is a small but efficient and well-equipped force, which, in case of riot, rebellion, or other public danger, would be ready at once to imperil itself for the enforcement of the laws, and the protection of the lives and property of the citizens. It is, therefore, desirable that the Legislature should give the volunteers such practical aid as would, in some degree, compensate them for the time and money expended to maintain their organizations, in which the people are as much interested as the volunteers themselves."

On the 6th of September a disaster occurred in the Avondale coal-mine, in Luzerne County, resulting in the loss of 108 lives. Early on the morning of that day, 108 miners entered the mine as usual for their daily labor, and, while they were there engaged in work, the shaft, constructed chiefly of combustible materials, became ignited, and soon the only entrance to the mine was filled with burning timbers, fire, and smoke. The immense wooden structure above the shaft also took fire, and was soon reduced to ashes. No assistance could be rendered the sufferers from without, and, there being no means of escape, all of the unfortunate miners instantly perished. Their bodies were subsequently recovered. As nearly all of those who perished had families dependent upon them for support, the suffering caused in the neighboring community was extreme. The condition of these suffering families enlisted the sympathy of the general public, and generous subscriptions were sent for their relief from various parts of the country. The investigation into the causes of this disaster revealed a culpable carelessness in the construction and management of mines, whereby the lives of the miners were constantly endangered. Public sentiment demanded that the subject should receive the careful attention of the Legislature, and that a law should be passed prescribing such regulations in the construction, ventilation, and working of mines, as would secure proper safeguards to the lives of the miners. In presenting this subject to the Legislature in his last annual message, Governor Geary said: "The inquiry, therefore, into the causes which produced this shocking catastrophe, the various theories that have been promulgated concerning it, the remedies for the prevention of similar occurrences hereafter, the construction and ventilation of collieries, and the modes of conducting their operations so that the operatives may prosecute their labor without imperilling their lives, are proper subjects for legislative consideration. Such laws as you may enact can most certainly be enforced by competent inspectors in the mining districts, who should be chosen with strict regard to character, integrity, capability and scientific knowledge; and whose duties should be so specifically defined that they cannot be misunderstood. I therefore most respectfully and earnestly recommend that this whole subject receive the attention its importance demands, and that a law be passed, so general in its character and so stringent in its provisions, that the people of this Commonwealth will never again be appalled by a calamity, within her limits, so sad as that of Avondale."

PERKINS, Rev. JUSTIN, D. D., an American Congregationalist clergyman, and missionary to the Nestorians, born in West Springfield, Mass., March 12, 1805; died at Chicopee, Mass., December 31, 1869. The first eighteen years of his life were passed upon his father's farm, but in the spring of 1823, having made a profession of religion, he was desirous of qualifying himself for the missionary work, and, in anticipation therefor, prepared for college in his native town, and in Westfield, and, in 1829, graduated at Amherst College. The next year he taught in the academy of that town, and the two following years studied at the Andover Seminary, after which he held, for a time, the office of tutor in Amherst College. Having, in January, 1833, received from the American Board an appointment with a view to the commencement of a mission among the Nestorians, he sailed from Boston, with Mrs. Perkins, September 21, 1833. He remained for a time at Tabreez, but established himself at Oroomiah in November of 1834. Here, almost unaided, he laid the foundation of the mission whose history is so identified with his missionary life. Schools were established which grew into noble seminaries of learning. The people had never seen printed books, the few copies of the Scriptures existing among them being manuscripts, in the ancient Syriac, which were kept carefully wrapped up and hid away in secret places, to save them from the ravages of the Mohammedans. The reading-matter for the schools, for several years, was created

by the slow motion of the pen. Dr. Perkins early commenced reducing the modern Syriac to a written form, and translating into it portions of the Scriptures. In 1841 Dr. P. visited this country, accompanied by Mar Yohannan, the Nestorian bishop. In August of 1869, wearied and worn by his labors, he came home to die.

PERU, a republic in South America. President, elected in 1868, Colonel José Balta. Minister of the United States, General Alvin P. Hovey (appointed in May, 1866). Area, 510,107 square miles; population, estimated in 1859 at 2,500,000. In 1868 the Ministers of Government, Justice, and Foreign Affairs presented to Congress the following budget for the next year: Government, $9,083,772.10; Justice, $4,414,121.70; Foreign Affairs, $1,468,932.92. The national debt, on December 31, 1866, amounted to $50,140,621. The army, in 1866, consisted of 10,608 men; the navy consisted of 11 vessels, with 108 guns. The merchant navy, in 1861, consisted of 110 seagoing vessels, together of 24,284 tons.

In the beginning of 1869, bills were passed by the Peruvian Congress authorizing the Government to issue bonds to the amount of 60,000,000 soles (one sole equal to $1.25), which were to be applied to the construction of railways connecting the most important points throughout the republic.

In May, the republic recognized the insurgents of Cuba as a belligerent power, by the following decree of her President:

LIMA, *May* 13, 1869.

JOSÉ BALTA, *Constitutional President of Peru:*

Whereas the insurrection in Cuba has for its object the independence of the island, and that the bonds being broken that bound Cuba to the Government of Spain, there are two parties that carry on the war with a political object and should be regarded by other nations in a spirit consonant with international right:

That the Government and the people of Peru sympathize with the noble cause proclaimed by the Cubans; that the commander of the revolutionary forces of Cuba has asked the recognition of his party as belligerents:

That Peru should recognize the political status of the insurgents, not considering them as subjects of a government actually at war with Peru, and without prejudice to the manifestations that Peru may hereafter make in their behalf, I decree:

1. That the Government of Peru recognizes as belligerents the political party that is now struggling for Cuban independence.

2. The citizens, ships, and other appurtenances of Cuba serving the cause of independence, shall be considered as friends by Peru.

The Minister of Foreign Affairs is charged with the execution and circulation of this decree.

JOSÉ BALTA.

J. A. BARRENECHEA.

The Government took an important step toward colonizing the Amazon region, by the following liberal decree:

The Government will concede a free passage to natives of this country or to foreigners who may desire to settle in the Amazon region. The local authorities will distribute the public lands to the settlers, in accordance with the laws of Peru. The Government will furnish to the immigrants, before commencing their voyage, all the agricultural and other necessary implements gratis, the local authorities supplying them with seeds, etc.

The pensioners of the state who may desire to emigrate to the Amazon will, in addition to the above-mentioned privileges, receive their pay in the place of their settlement. The payments will be made by the department treasuries, according to the established custom. The government concedes a monthly payment of eight soles for six months to the foreign or Peruvian settlers, a sufficient time in which to gather the first harvest.

The prefects of departments will open a careful register of the number and nationality of the settlers, together with all important circumstances that may occur.

The emigrants oblige themselves to remain at least four years in the Amazonian regions. Those who receive money for their passage to the country of the Amazon must commence their voyage within three months from said receipt; those who fail to do so must return the passage-money and pay the expenses they may have occasioned the Government.

The opening up of the headlands of the Amazon within the Peruvian territory is of great prospective importance; the most valuable drug and dyestuffs are found there; timber of great importance abounds; there are open valleys, well watered, having a virgin soil; any climate, from the coldest to the torrid, can be reached; and the country abounds in game, while the numerous rivers are alive with fish. The principal difficulty—that of reaching this region—is now obviated by the decree, since the Government will land the immigrants at the place designated, and, besides, take care of them until the time for gathering the first crop has passed by. Add to these benefits the fact that Brazil has declared the free navigation of her Amazonian waters, and Peru followed her example, and that a railway is being projected by the most influential and wealthiest men of the republic, to connect Lima with the Peruvian head-waters of the King of Rivers, thus offering two outlets for the products of the settlers. Protected by the Government forces, the other danger, of attacks from the Indians, who are hostile and warlike, is diminished.

The agreements made December, 1868, between the United States minister, General Hovey, and Antonio Barrenechea, Minister of Foreign Relations, for the settlement of all outstanding claims of the citizens of both countries, were ratified and exchanged in June.

In the month of September, the fears of great earthquakes (predicted by the German *savant*, Falb) were increased by the alarming accounts of earthquakes continually occurring in the south, the extraordinary tidal phenomena noticed along the coast, the sea rising higher than for many years past, and the proximity of the earth to those planets known to exercise a most unpleasant influence upon it.

Many families left the capital, and even the merchants took their most valuable effects from the bonded warehouses of the custom-house; fully 20,000 people left the two cities of Lima and Callao. The earthquake period

passed by, however, with only a slight shock on October 1st. Nothing unusual occurred, and the people returned to their homes.

The Government, pressed for money, and with a multitude of clamorous creditors, negotiated a loan with the firm Dreyfus, at Paris, by the sale of 2,000,000 tons of guano, under terms highly advantageous to the purchaser. The Peruvian capitalists were, naturally, indignant at seeing the probability of such a rich prize slipping from their hands, more especially as they had made offers more acceptable in public opinion than those of Dreyfus. Basing their claim on an existing law, these capitalists maintained the legal rights held by Peruvians over foreigners in all cases where the national treasure of guano was concerned. After a long period of suspense, the Supreme Court of Peru decided this point in favor of the Peruvian bankers and against the house of Dreyfus.

An important decree received the President's approval, authorizing the construction of a land and submarine telegraph from Lima to Tumbez, the border port adjacent to the Republic of Ecuador. Already a land line is in operation from Lima to the city of Trujillo, nearly 260 miles to the north, and, with the exception of a few miles of submarine wire, the whole northern coast of Peru will be speedily traversed by this line. This enterprise is directed by M. Carlos Paz-Soldan, who represents a company composed of some of the most prominent Peruvian capitalists, who, without asking subsidy or guarantee from the Government, have agreed to finish the work, placing Lima in direct telegraphic communication with Panama in four years from the beginning of the work. From Tumbez north the line will be submarine, and it is confidently expected that the facilities offered to the public and to the Governments of Peru and Ecuador, for the speedy transmission of messages, will render the undertaking profitable in its results. At all events, this is another proof of the progressive spirit of Peru, and an evidence that the Government of Colonel Balta is interested and decided in aiding all measures that tend toward promoting the welfare and consequent peace of the country.

PETERS, Absalom, D. D., a Congregationalist clergyman and author, born at Wentworth, Grafton County, N. H., September 19, 1793; died in New York City, May 18, 1869. He was a son of General Absalom Peters, and, upon his mother's side, a lineal descendant of John Rogers, the Smithfield martyr. At sixteen years of age young Absalom made application for admission to the Military Academy at West Point, and, while awaiting the result, went to Troy as clerk in a store. Subsequently his conversion turned him aside alike from military and mercantile occupations, to fit himself for the work of the ministry, and, applying himself to study, he graduated at Dartmouth College in 1816, and at Princeton Seminary in 1819. The same year he accepted a commission as a home missionary for Northern New York, and spent some months in a tour of preaching in the destitute portions of Washington and Warren Counties. In 1820 he was ordained, and installed pastor of the First Church, in Bennington, Vt., and dismissed December 14, 1825, to accept the secretaryship of the United Domestic Missionary Society, and as such to aid in the formation of the American Home Missionary Society, of which he was the first secretary, continuing such until 1837. During this period he edited the *Home Missionary and Pastor's Journal*, and in 1838 commenced editing the *American Biblical Repository*. In 1844 he was installed pastor of the First Congregational Church in Williamstown, Mass., where, for thirteen years, he labored acceptably and with success, both in the town and in the college, and, in view of advancing age, was dismissed at his own request, September 4, 1857. While in the discharge of his pastoral duties in Williamstown, he originated and edited for a brief time the *American Eclectic*, and also projected the *American Journal of Education*, which was, however, soon merged in Dr. Henry Barnard's journal of the same title. His latter years were spent in literary labors and correspondence. After he reached his seventieth year, he wrote and published his first volume of poems. During a life of more than seventy-five years he had never known sickness, and his last illness, though severe and somewhat protracted, did not impair the vigor of his intellect, or provoke any symptoms of impatience.

PICKENS, Francis W., a Southern statesman, diplomatist, and political leader, born in Togadoo, St. Paul's Parish, S. C., April 7, 1807; died in Edgefield, S. C., January 25, 1869. He was the son of Andrew J. Pickens, an eminent lawyer of South Carolina, was educated at South Carolina College, Columbia, and was admitted to the bar in 1829. Three years after, he commenced his political career in the State Legislature, of which he was elected a member during the memorable nullification excitement. He ranged himself on the side of the nullifiers, and, proving an excellent debater, he took a prominent place among the advocates of the extreme State-Rights doctrine. In 1834 he was elected to Congress, of which he remained a member for ten years. Declining a reëlection in 1844, he retired into private life. Reappearing on the political stage in 1850, he was elected a delegate to the Nashville Southern Convention, which met in 1850–'51 to consider the course to be pursued by the South under the alleged aggressions of the North. His services were next called into requisition in 1854, when he was chosen to preside over the South Carolina State Convention for the election of delegates to the General Democratic Convention; and in 1856 he went to Cincinnati as delegate to that Convention. In 1857 President Buchanan appointed him

minister to Russia in which country he remained about three years; and on his return home, toward the end of 1860, he was elected Governor of his native State. This was on the eve of the war; and, in those ever-memorable events which marked the outbreak of hostilities between the North and the South, the deceased ex-Governor took a prominent part. The name of Governor Pickens is inseparably associated with the story of Fort Sumter, and with the overt acts which precipitated the war. Governor Pickens was one of the most active promoters of secession. No sooner had he been inaugurated as Governor, than he boldly declared for the disruption of the Union, even at the risk of war; and, immediately after the Charleston Convention had passed the Ordinance of Secession, he issued his proclamation, declaring the withdrawal of South Carolina from the Union an accomplished fact, taking steps at the same time for organizing an independent government. He then demanded of Major Anderson the surrender of Fort Sumter, and, upon the refusal of that officer to comply with the demand, ordered that fire should be opened upon the fort. Upon the capture of Sumter, he addressed the people of Charleston, calling God to witness, in the course of his speech, that, so long as he remained their Chief Magistrate, no power on earth should ever lower from the fortress the flags that had been raised in place of the national ensign, unless they were lowered and trailed in a sea of blood. While he continued as Chief Magistrate of the State, Governor Pickens did all in his power to support the Confederate Government in its prosecution of the war; but in 1862 he was succeeded in that office by Governor Bonham, and after the close of the war he sank into comparative obscurity, in which he remained until his death.

PIERCE, Franklin, LL. D., an American statesman, fourteenth President of the United States, born in Hillsborough, New Hampshire, November 23, 1804; died at Concord, New Hampshire, October 8, 1869. He was of Revolutionary stock, his father, General Benjamin Pierce, having participated in the battle of Bunker Hill, and served throughout the Revolutionary War, not leaving the army till 1784. He was, subsequently, for thirteen consecutive years, a member of the State Legislature, and in 1827–'29, Governor of the State. The son, Franklin, was sent at an early age to the academies at Hancock and Francetown, and in 1820, at the age of sixteen, entered Bowdoin College, at Brunswick, Maine. During his college course he taught school for one or more winters, to replenish his somewhat scanty finances.

Leaving college in 1824, where he had graduated with honor, he returned to Hillsborough, but, choosing law as his profession, he soon entered the office of Judge Woodbury, at Portsmouth. Moving thence to Northampton, Mass., he spent the last two years of his preparatory studies in the law-school there, and in the office of Judge Parker at Amherst, and in 1827 was admitted to the bar. His entry was not a brilliant one, his first case proving a failure; but he was not discouraged, and, by careful study and discipline, soon attained a high position as a lawyer, in a bar of remarkable ability. He early took a deep interest in politics, as was natural, his father being a leader of the Democratic party in the State. In 1829, the year of his father's second election as Governor, he was elected to the State Legislature from Hillsborough. He was continued in the Legislature for four years, being chosen Speaker in 1832–'33.

In 1833 he was elected to Congress, where he remained for four years. His record there was not particularly brilliant. He worked faithfully as a member of the Judiciary and other committees, always advocating the measures proposed by President Jackson. He sustained Jackson's opposition to the improvement system, opposed the establishment of a military academy at West Point, and sided with the Administration in every measure. Being elected, in 1836, United States Senator from New Hampshire, he took his seat in the Senate at the beginning of the Administration of Mr. Van Buren, in 1837, the youngest member of that body. He saw that his time for distinction was yet to come. Such men as Clay, Webster, Calhoun, Benton, Woodbury, and Silas Wright, occupied every avenue to reputation, and engrossed the attention of all hearers. Pierce spoke little, working on committees and familiarizing himself with the affairs which demanded his attention, and soon came to be looked upon as authority on the subjects of Revolutionary pensions and the defence of the country.

In 1840 Mr. Van Buren was defeated; and, for the first time in twelve years, the administration was taken from the hands of the Democrats and transferred to the Whigs. An extra session of Congress was called by President Harrison, who did not live to see it assemble, and an effort was to be made to overthrow some of the acts in regard to national banking, the tariff, etc., which had been the especial favorites of the Democracy. During this time Mr. Pierce was looked upon by the Democrats as their ablest defender, and some of his speeches on the questions of the day are among his most eloquent efforts.

A political life is not necessarily a pecuniarily successful one, and Mr. Pierce, who had in 1834 married a daughter of the Rev. Dr. Appleton, ex-President of Bowdoin College, found a family growing up around him with very little provision made for their future support. He, therefore, in 1842, gave up his seat in the Senate and removed again to Concord. Although he entered the Senate without a reputation as a lawyer, he returned to find a most remunerative practice awaiting him. A writer of the day says: "It is a convincing

proof of his eminent powers that he at once placed himself in the very first rank at a bar so distinguished for ability as that of New Hampshire. * * * Far more than any other man whom it has been my fortune to meet, he makes himself *felt* by one who tries a case against him. From the first, he impresses on his opponent a consciousness of the necessity of a deadly struggle. From the beginning to the end of the trial of a case, nothing with him is neglected which can by any possibility honorably conduce to success. His manner is always respectful and deferential to the court, captivating to the jury, and calculated to conciliate the good-will even of those who would be otherwise indifferent spectators." A chief justice of New Hampshire wrote: "The eloquence of Mr. Pierce is of a character not to be easily forgotten. He understands men, their passions, and their feelings. His language always attracts the hearer. A graceful and manly carriage, bespeaking him at once the gentleman and the true man, a manner warmed by the ardent glow of an earnest belief, an enunciation ringing, distinct, and impressive beyond that of most men, a command of brilliant and expressive language, and an accurate taste, together with a sagacious and instinctive insight into the points of his case, are the secrets of his success."

In 1846 President Polk offered him the position of Attorney-General of the United States. He declined it, however, giving as his reasons that public life never suited his taste, and that he longed for the quiet and independence of the private citizen; that he could not arrange his business to leave, and that Mrs. Pierce's health demanded a quiet and private life. Previous to this he declined a nomination to the United States Senate. From 1842 to 1847 he accepted no public office, refusing the nomination for Governor, but taking an active interest in the politics of the State.

Mr. Pierce had said in his letter to President Polk that nothing except the voice of his country in time of war would call him from his seclusion. When the Mexican War broke out in 1847, he enrolled himself first volunteer of a company raised in Concord, and soon received the colonelcy of the 9th Regiment. In March he was commissioned a brigadier-general, his brigade consisting of regiments from the extreme North, the extreme West, and the extreme South. Hawthorne, who saw him previous to his departure from New York, says:

> He had been intensely occupied, since his appointment, in effecting the arrangements necessary on leaving his affairs, as well as by the preparations, military and personal, demanded by the expedition. The transports were waiting at New York to receive the troops. He was now in the midst of bustle with some of the officers of his command about him, mingled with the friends whom he was to leave behind. The severest point of the crisis was over, for he had already bidden his family farewell. His spirits appeared to have risen with the occasion. He was evidently in his element, nor, to say the truth, dangerous as was the path before him, could it be regretted that his life was now to have the opportunity of that species of success which, in his youth at least, he had considered the best worth struggling for. He looked so fit to be a soldier that it was impossible to doubt, not merely his good conduct, which was as certain before the event as afterward, but his good fortune in the field and his fortunate return.

He sailed on the 27th of May, in the bark Kepler, arriving at Vera Cruz one month later, joining General Scott at Puebla on the 7th of August. In the battle of Contreras he was severely wounded by the falling of his horse, but continued with his brigade during the day. He was also with his troops at Churubusco, and after the battle was appointed by General Scott one of the commissioners to arrange an armistice. He remained in Mexico during the war, and, at its close, resigned his commission and returned to his practice. In 1850 he was chosen President of the convention called to revise the State constitution, and by his influence procured the removal of the tests by which Catholics were excluded from certain offices.

In the Baltimore Convention of 1852, after thirty-five ballotings for candidate for the presidency, in which he had not received a vote, his name was brought forward by the Virginia delegation, and he was nominated on the forty-ninth ballot by a majority of 271 votes. He received in the following November the votes of all the States except Massachusetts, Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee, obtaining 254 votes of the electoral college, while General Scott had only 42. In his inaugural address he maintained that slavery was fully recognized in the Constitution, and that the fugitive-slave law was constitutional, and should be strictly executed. He appointed, as his Cabinet, William L. Marcy, Secretary of State; James Guthrie, Secretary of the Treasury; Jefferson Davis, Secretary of War; James C. Dobbin, Secretary of the Navy; Robert McClelland, Secretary of the Interior; James Campbell, of Pennsylvania, Postmaster-General, and Caleb Cushing, Attorney-General. The principal events of his Administration were the question of the bounding of the Mesilla Valley, now Arizona; exploring routes for the proposed railroad from the Mississippi to the Pacific; the affair of Martin Koszta; the repeal of the Missouri Compromise; the famous Ostend Conference; the Treaty of 1854 between the United States and Great Britain, providing for commercial reciprocity between this country and the British Provinces; the filibuster invasion of Nicaragua by William Walker; the dismissal of the British minister and consuls in 1855 for sanctioning the enlistment of recruits for the British army; and the Kansas troubles. President Pierce signed bills to reorganize the consular and diplomatic system of the United States; to organize court claims; to provide a retired list for the navy, and to confer the title of lieutenant-general on Winfield Scott. He vetoed, in 1856, a bill making appropriations for the completion and reform

of certain public works, and a bill appropriating 10,000,000 acres of public lands to the States for the relief of the indigent insane; in 1855 he vetoed a bill for the payment of the French spoliation claims, and a bill increasing the annual appropriation for the Collins line of steamers. Before the adjournment of Congress, in August, 1856, the House amended the army appropriation bill so as to provide that no part of the army should be employed to enforce laws passed by the Territorial Legislature of Kansas, until Congress should have decided it to be a valid legislative body. The Senate refused to concur in the amendment, and Congress then adjourned. The President immediately issued a proclamation, calling an extra session of Congress to convene on August 21st, when the bill was passed without any proviso. Congress came together again in December. The President's message was chiefly devoted to the Kansas troubles, taking strong grounds against the Free-State party. His administration ended March 4, 1857.

Of his political course as President, which at the time drew down upon him such severe censures from those who differed from him in opinion, perhaps the best, certainly the most charitable, explanation is to be found in the language of his intimate friend and biographer, Nathaniel Hawthorne, who, in his life of President Pierce, said:

> When the series of measures known under the collective term of the Compromise were passed by Congress, in 1850, and put to so searching a test, here at the North, the reverence of the people for the Constitution, and their attachment to the Union, General Pierce was true to the principles which he had long ago avowed. At an early period of his Congressional service, he had made known, with the perfect frankness of his character, those opinions upon the slavery question which he has never since seen occasion to change in the slightest degree. There is an unbroken consistency in his action with regard to this matter. It is entirely of a piece, from his first entrance upon public life until the moment when he came forward, while many were faltering, to throw the great weight of his character and influence into the scale in favor of those measures through which it was intended to redeem the pledges of the Constitution, and to preserve and renew the old love and harmony among the sisterhood of States. His approval embraced the whole series of those acts, as well those which bore hard upon Northern views and sentiments, as those in which the South deemed itself to have made more than reciprocal concessions. No friend nor enemy that knew Franklin Pierce would have expected him to act otherwise, with his view of the whole subject. Whether looking at it through the medium of his conscience, his feelings, or his intellect, it was impossible for him not to take his stand as the unshaken advocate of union, and of the mutual steps of compromise which that great object unquestionably demanded.

At the Democratic National Convention of 1856, at Cincinnati, Mr. Pierce, though a candidate, did not unite the suffrages of his party, and, after numerous ballotings, Mr. Buchanan was made the nominee. Soon after the close of his term of office, President Pierce sailed for Europe with his wife, whose health had been seriously impared since the death of their last surviving son in 1853, by a railroad accident, just before her husband's inauguration. They visited Madeira, and made a protracted tour of Europe, returning home in 1860. The journey was an interesting one, but the bereaved mother could not rally from her great affliction, and died in 1863. During the war of 1861–'65, ex-President Pierce remained in retirement, taking no active part in the strife, though, in accordance with his lifelong views, his sympathies were understood to be with the South. The death of his wife, to whom he was tenderly attached, saddened him greatly, and that of his intimate friend, Hawthorne, added to his depression. For two or three years past his health had been very feeble, and he had had several severe attacks of illness.

In private life, General Pierce was greatly esteemed and loved; of amiable and winning manners, a faithful friend, a tender and devoted husband, a kind and cordial neighbor, and a devout Christian, his death saddened many hearts who knew little and cared less for his political career or his views on national subjects.

PORTUGAL, a kingdom in Europe. King, Luiz I., born October 31, 1838; succeeded his brother, King Pedro V., November 11, 1861. Heir-apparent, Carlos, born September 28, 1863. A new ministry was formed on the 11th of August, 1869, composed as follows: Duke of Loulé, President and Minister of the Interior; J. L. de Castro Pereira Corte Real, Minister of Justice; A. J. Braamcamp, Minister of Finance; General Maldonado d'Eça, Minister of War; L. A. Rebello da Silva, Minister of Marine; J. T. Lobo de Avala, Minister of Public Works; Minister of Foreign Affairs, Mendez Leal. Area, 36,510 square miles; population in 1864, 3,984,045; with the Azores and Madeira (in 1864), 4,347,441. The population of the Portuguese colonies in Africa and Asia is given (in the *Gotha Almanac* for 1870) as 3,872,959, of whom 2,000,000 are set down for Angola, Ambriz, Benguela, Mosammedes.* The revenue in the budget for 1869–'70 was estimated at 15,616,096 milreis, and the expenditures at 21,109,960. Public debt in June, 1868, 196,562,673 milreis. The strength of the army in the kingdom was in May, 1868, 1,567 officers and 28,092 soldiers; in the colonies, 1st line, 9,453; 2d line, 21,411. The fleet, in 1868, consisted of 30 armed and 12 non-armed vessels; total, 42 vessels, with 366 guns. The imports of Portugal, in 1866, amounted to 26,410,000 milreis; the exports to 17,290,000 ms. The movement of shipping in 1867 was as follows:

Flag.	Vessels entered.	Vessels cleared.
Portuguese	6,424	6,511
Foreign	3,920	4,252
Total	10,344	10,763

The railroads in operation amounted, in 1869, to 96.5 geographical miles.

Portugal, in 1869, suffered from serious finan-

* For a list of Portuguese colonies in Asia and Africa, see AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1866.

cial difficulties. There was, in the beginning of 1869, a large deficit in the annual budget. The King himself, in his speech to the Cortes, on January 2d, admitted that the difficulties could only be overcome by good order in the administration, by diminution in the expenditure, and by self-sacrifice. It is stated that, for ten years past, Portugal has been spending £4,-200,000 a year on an income of £3,500,000 a year. The deficit in 1866–'67 was £1,117,482; in 1867–'68 it was £1,298,596. Portugal has not had a budget without a deficit for thirty years. The expenditure has increased every year during that period; the revenue has been stationary during that time. The public debt has increased from £20,000,000 in 1854, to £47,-000,000 in 1867. In addition to this, the Government had embroiled itself with foreign capitalists, who had carried out some of the greatest public enterprises in Portugal. The Government had seized the Southeastern Railway of Portugal, which measure chiefly affected British interests; but disputes also took place in reference to the Northern Railway, constructed almost exclusively by French capital. In both cases the capital yielded very small returns, and, as a natural consequence, great dissatisfaction and mutual recrimination ensued. This went to such an extent as to assume a national character on the part of the Portuguese, and successive ministries, although desirous of settling the pending disputes, were prevented by the decided opposition of the Cortes. The question of the Southeastern Railway was the cause of the fall of two ministries, the Cortes not having ratified the terms agreed to by the Government; the dispute lay in reality with the nation, who considered that their honor was involved. This dispute was, however, at last settled. The Government took possession of the railway in default of completion of the company's obligations, as it states, and assigned a sum of about £520,000 as compensation; not, however, as a right, but in equity, and subject to the consent of the Cortes. The public feeling was very much excited against the Southeastern Company of Portugal, and a large portion of the nation repeatedly urged confiscation. The trade of Portugal had fallen off greatly during the past two years, and is said to have been influenced unfavorably by the introduction of the paper currency in Brazil, where a large amount of Portuguese capital is retained, waiting for a favorable turn in the exchange.

The Cortes was opened on the 2d of January. The candidate of the opposition, Mendez Leal, being chosen president, the ministers resigned, and their resignation was accepted by the king. But the friends of the ministry manifested their adhesion to it so energetically, that the officers of the army and navy assured the king he could rely upon them and fearlessly choose his ministers. All the officers of the Parliament resigned, a motion against their election having been made by forty-four deputies. In the session of January 21st, the deputies were informed that the King had resolved upon retaining his Cabinet. A royal decree dissolved the House of Deputies, and ordered a new session to begin on May 4th. To alleviate the financial pressure, the King assigned to the Treasury a part of the income of his family, by the following letter to the Marquis da Bandeira, the Prime Minister:

MY DEAR MARQUIS: The late administrative crisis being at an end, and while we are still occupied with the financial question, which rightly deserves our attention, I hasten to acquaint you, as President of the Council of Ministers, that the Queen, myself, and my sons, are desirous to be the first to contribute as much as is in our power to diminish the heavy burdens of the Treasury. The Queen proposes to cede the tenth part, myself 36,000,000 reis, and my sons 4,000,000 reis, from our annual civil lists, for the necessities of the state during the next financial year. I assure you that, whatever the circumstances, the country will find me and the royal family always ready to perform our share in bearing the burdens of the state.

Believe me to be, yours, affectionately,
LUIZ.

Political discontent spread, however, and culminated in serious disorders in the capital. The financial measures were not well received by the Chambers. To obviate the threatening outbreak of general discontent, a new ministry was formed, in August, under the Duke of Loulé, as President of the Council and Minister of the Interior, whose accession was considered a pledge for an honorable arrangement with the foreign capitalists. Political agitation continued, however. In December, a military movement was set on foot by the Duke of Saldanha, and the public peace was disturbed at Oporto. In the night of December 10th, placards were posted in the streets of Lisbon, summoning the people to arms in the name of a republic. On the next day numerous arrests were made; but the excitement again passed away. The General Cortes assembling on January 5, 1870, was opened by King Luiz, who, in his speech, referred with gratification to the state of tranquillity which now existed at home and abroad, and promised to introduce important measures of reform and economy.

Concerning its colonial policy, the Portuguese Government informed the powers of Europe of its determination to abolish completely the slave-trade in all its colonies, which was accomplished by a royal decree on February 26, 1869. The Portuguese Governor of Macao issued, in regard to the Coolie trade, the following proclamation:

The Governor of the provinces of Macao and Timor determines as follows: The Portuguese consul in the port of Callao, Lima, having communicated to this Government, by a dispatch dated the 9d of August last, the horrible act committed by a farmer in the suburbs of that city upon forty-eight Chinese immigrants who had been transported to that country as laborers, by marking them with a red-hot iron, as was formerly the custom with African slaves; and that furthermore many laborers, or Chinese colonists, were wandering about the streets of that city soliciting the charity of the public, having been abandoned

by their masters when, being mutilated, they were judged useless to perform the services for which they had contracted; it is therefore determined, with the advice of the council, that, failing the receipt of official information that energetic measures have been taken to prohibit atrocities of such a nature, so barbarous and so contrary to the civilization of the age, his Majesty not determining to the contrary, the following regulations shall be observed:

1. Until further notice, the licenses conceded by this Government to open emigration-houses for the port of Callao, Lima, shall be suspended.

2. Furthermore, there shall not be admitted for examination by the Superintendent of Emigration, and there shall not be registered at the office of the Procurator of Chinese Affairs, contracts for any Chinese emigrants or colonists destined as above mentioned.

On August 3d the Chambers authorized the Government to grant concessions for the establishment of submarine telegraph lines from the coast of Portugal to Brazil.

PRESBYTERIANS. I. OLD AND NEW SCHOOL PRESBYTERIANS OF THE UNITED STATES.—Both the Old School and the New School General Assemblies met in New York City on the 20th of May. Their proceedings throughout had in an unusual degree a relation to each other, and deserve to be considered side by side. The conviction seemed to prevail among the members of both bodies, that this would be the last occasion on which they would meet in separate sessions, and that they were, to all intents and purposes, except in form, one body. One new Synod and six Presbyteries from the South were represented in the Old School General Assembly. Immediately on the opening of the Assembly, a committee of seven was appointed to confer with a similar committee of the New School on the subject of reunion. The examination of the votes of the Presbyteries showed that only a very small number had unconditionally approved of the terms of reunion which had been sent down by the General Assemblies of 1868, but that the most of them had declared in favor of reunion on modified conditions. On the seventh day of the session (May 27th), the joint committee reported the plan of reunion as it had been agreed upon in conference. It was adopted by a vote (including absentees who afterward recorded their votes) of 276 yeas to 8 nays. It is in full as follows:

The Committee of Conference appointed by the two General Assemblies have attended to the duties assigned to them, and, after a very free interchange of views, with prayer to Almighty God for His guidance, are unanimous in recommending to the Assemblies for their consideration, and, if they see fit, their adoption, the accompanying three papers, to wit:

1. Plan of Reunion of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America;

2. Concurrent Declarations of the General Assemblies of 1869; and

3. Recommendation of a day of prayer.

WILLIAM ADAMS, Chairman.

G. W. Musgrave,	C. D. Drake,	James B. Shaw,
A. G. Hall,	Wm. M. Francis,	W. Strong,
L. H. Atwater,	John C. Grier,	Daniel Haines,
Willis Lord,	J. F. Stearns,	Wm. E. Dodge,
H. R. Wilson,	R. W. Patterson,	J. S. Farrand,
Robert Carter,	S. W. Fisher,	J. L. Knight.

HENRY DAY, Secretary.

I.—PLAN OF REUNION OF THE PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

Believing that the interests of the Redeemer's kingdom would be promoted by the healing of our divisions, and that the two bodies bearing the same name, having the same constitution, and each recognizing the other as a sound and orthodox body according to the principles of the confession common to both, cannot be justified by any but the most imperative reasons in maintaining separate, and, in some respects, rival organizations; we are now clearly of the opinion that the reunion of those bodies ought, as soon as the necessary steps can be taken, to be accomplished, upon the basis hereinafter set forth:

1. The Presbyterian churches in the United States of America, namely, that whose General Assembly convened in the Brick Church in the city of New York, on the 20th day of May, 1869, and that whose General Assembly met in the Church of the Covenant in the said city on the same day, shall be reunited as one church, under the name and style of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, possessing all the legal and corporate rights and powers pertaining to the Church previous to the division in 1838, and all the legal and corporate rights and powers which the separate churches now possess.

2. The reunion shall be effected on the doctrinal and ecclesiastical basis of our common standards; the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments shall be acknowledged to be the inspired word of God, and the only infallible rule of faith and practice; the Confession of Faith shall continue to be sincerely received and adopted as containing the system of doctrine taught in the Holy Scriptures; and the government and discipline of the Presbyterian Church in the United States, shall be approved as containing the principles and rules of our policy.

3. Each of the said Assemblies shall submit the foregoing basis to its presbyteries, which shall be required to meet on or before the 15th day of October, 1869, to express their approval or disapproval of the same, by a categorical answer to the following question:

Do you approve of the reunion of the two bodies now claiming the name and rights of the Presbyterian Church in the United States of America, on the following basis, namely: "The reunion shall be effected on the doctrinal and ecclesiastical basis of our common standards; the Scriptures of the Old and New Testaments shall be acknowledged to be the inspired word of God, and the only infallible rule of faith and practice; the Confession of Faith shall continue to be sincerely received and adopted as containing the system of doctrine taught in the Holy Scriptures; and the government and discipline of the Presbyterian Church in the United States shall be approved as containing the principles and rules of our polity?"

Each presbytery shall, before the 1st day of November, 1869, forward, to the stated clerk of the General Assembly with which it is connected, a statement of its vote on the said basis of reunion.

4. The said General Assemblies now sitting shall, after finishing their business, adjourn, to meet in the city of Pittsburg, Pennsylvania, on the second Wednesday of November, 1869, at 11 o'clock A. M.

If the two General Assemblies shall then find and declare that the above-named basis of reunion has been approved by two-thirds of the presbyteries connected with each branch of the Church, then the same shall be of binding force, and the two assemblies shall take action accordingly.

5. The said General Assemblies shall then and there make provision for the meeting of the General Assembly of the united Church on the third Thursday of May, 1870. The moderators of the two present assemblies shall jointly preside at the said Assembly of 1870, until another moderator is chosen. The moderator of the Assembly now sitting at the Brick Church aforesaid shall, if present, put all votes and decide questions of order; and the moderator of the

other assembly shall, if present, preach the opening sermon; and the stated clerks of the present Assemblies shall act as stated clerks of the Assembly of the united Church until a stated clerk or clerks shall have been chosen thereby; and no commissioner shall have a right to vote or deliberate in said assembly until his name shall have been enrolled by the said clerks, and his commission examined and filed among the papers of the Assembly.

6. Each presbytery of the separate Churches shall be entitled to the same representation in the Assembly of the united Church in 1870, as it is entitled to in the Assembly with which it is now connected.

II.—CONCURRENT DECLARATIONS OF THE GENERAL ASSEMBLIES OF 1869.

As there are matters, pertaining to the interests of the Church when it shall have become reunited, which will manifestly require adjustment on the coming together of two bodies which have so long acted separately, and concerning some of which matters it is highly desirable that there should be a previous good understanding, the two Assemblies agree to adopt the following declarations, not as articles of compact or covenant, but as in their judgment proper and equitable arrangements, to wit:

1. All the ministers and churches embraced in the two bodies should be admitted to the same standing, in the united body, which they may have held in their respective connections, up to the consummation of the union.

2. Imperfectly organized churches are counselled and expected to become thoroughly Presbyterian, as early within the period of five years as may be permitted by the highest interests to be consulted; and no other such churches shall be hereafter received.

3. The boundaries of the several Presbyteries and Synods should be adjusted by the General Assembly of the united Church.

4. The official records of the two branches of the Church for the period of separation should be preserved, and held as making up the one history of the Church; and no rule or precedent, which does not stand approved by both the bodies, should be of any authority until reëstablished in the united body, except in so far as such rule or precedent may affect the rights of property founded thereon.

5. The corporate rights now held by the two General Assemblies, and by the Boards and Committee, should, as far as practicable, be consolidated, and applied for their several objects, as defined by law.

6. There should be one set of Committees or Boards for Home and Foreign Missions and the other religious enterprises of the Church, which the churches should be encouraged to sustain, though free to cast their contributions into other channels if they desire to do so.

7. As soon as practicable after the union shall have been effected, the General Assembly should reconstruct and consolidate the several Permanent Committees and Boards which now belong to the two Assemblies, so as to represent, as far as possible, with impartiality, the views and wishes of the two bodies constituting the united Church.

8. The publications of the Board of Publication and of the Publication Committee should continue to be issued as at present, leaving it to the Board of Publication of the united Church to revise these issues and perfect a catalogue for the united Church, so as to exclude invidious references to past controversies.

9. In order to a uniform system of ecclesiastical supervision, those theological seminaries that are now under Assembly control may, if their boards of direction so elect, be transferred to the watch and care of one or more of the adjacent Synods; and the other seminaries are advised to introduce, as far as may be, into their constitutions, the principle of synodical or Assembly supervision; in which case they shall be entitled to an official recognition and approbation on the part of the General Assembly.

10. It should be regarded as the duty of all our judicatories, ministers, and people in the united Church, to study the things which make for peace, and to guard against all needless and offensive references to the causes that have divided us; and, in order to avoid the revival of past issues by the continuance of any usage, in either branch of the Church, that has grown out of former conflicts, it is earnestly recommended to the lower judicatories of the Church that they conform their practice in relation to all such usages, as far as is consistent with their convictions of duty, to the general custom of the Church prior to the controversies that resulted in the separation.

III.—RECOMMENDATION OF A DAY OF PRAYER.

That the counsels of Infinite Wisdom may guide our decisions, and the blessing of the Great Head of the Church rest upon the results of our efforts for reunion, it is earnestly recommended to the churches throughout both branches of the Presbyterian Church, that they observe the second Sabbath of September, 1869, as a day of fervent and united prayer to Almighty God, that He would grant unto us all "the spirit of counsel and might, the spirit of knowledge and of the fear of the Lord," and, in the new relations now contemplated, enable us to "to keep the unity of the Spirit in the bonds of peace."

Suitable action was taken to communicate the result of these proceedings to the Presbyteries, and for the taking and reception of their votes upon them.

The committee which had been appointed to confer with similar committees to consult upon a plan of reunion of all Presbyterian bodies, as proposed by the Philadelphia "Union Convention" of 1867, reported progress. The subject of reunion with the Southern Presbyterian Church was considered. No definite conclusion was arrived at, since, in the frame of mind of the Southern people, the prospect of such reunion did not seem promising. The Assembly reiterated its hope of last year, that a more favorable time would come. The Board of Publication were instructed to enter upon the preparation of books in the Spanish and Portuguese languages.

The increase in the contributions of the Church was reported not to be in proportion to the growth in the wants of benevolent and missionary enterprises. Authority was given for the preparation of a statement exhibiting to each Presbytery and Synod the proportional amount which it seemed desirable it should contribute. Increased interest was reported in Sunday-schools, baptisms, benevolence, missions, and in all things tending to the increased prosperity and spirituality of the Church. Measures were taken to protect the property interests of the Church against adverse decisions of the Kentucky courts, which go to place the churches in that State under the control of the "Declaration and Testimony Secession." The Supreme Court of the United States is to be appealed to.

The Board of Foreign Missions employs 62 missionaries, 13 ordained native preachers, 10 native licentiates, 86 assistant missionaries, and 198 native helpers. The number of churches is 48; of communicants, 1,838; of children in Sunday-schools, 7,400. Two new missions have been established among the Winnebago

and the Navajoe Indians. Twenty-six ministers and assistant missionaries have been added to the force. Two missionaries have died. The work is in better condition than ever before.

New School General Assembly.—Five Southern Presbyteries were represented in the New School General Assembly. At the opening of this body a committee of five was appointed to confer with a similar committee from the General Assembly on the attitude of the reunion question. In the mean time, the New School portion of the joint committee of thirteen of the previous year's Assemblies reported the result of the action they had taken toward obtaining a decisive vote on the acceptance of the terms of reunion. The Old School body had expressed a desire for a modification of the first article of the basis, but too late to be acted on by the New School Assembly of 1868. In pursuance of this expression, however, many of the Old School Presbyteries were voting for reunion on the basis of "the standards pure and simple," which was a different question from the one that was before the New School Presbyteries. The committee also thought that the plan of reunion would be more acceptable to the New School Presbyteries, if the tenth article, permitting the examination of ministers going from one Presbytery to another, were omitted. They have therefore recommended that the Presbyteries, besides voting on the basis itself, should express their assent to the Old School amendment, and to the omission of the tenth article, so that the General Assemblies might have light sufficient to enable them to act on the subject without remanding it to the Presbyteries.

One hundred Presbyteries had voted in favor of reunion on the basis as it was sent to them, and four had declared against it. A large number had favored the suggested amendments, and some had added supplementary conditions and amendments of their own proposing.

On the seventh day of the session (May 27th) the report of the joint committee (of five from each branch, who were appointed on the first day) was received and adopted unanimously. It is given above.

The following communication was received from a committee of the General Synod of 1868 of the Reformed Church. It had been unanimously adopted by that body.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF EVANGELICAL CHURCHES.

Whereas, The Constitution of the Church confides to the General Synod the duty of "regulating and maintaining a friendly correspondence with the highest judicatories or assemblies of other religious denominations, for the purpose of promoting union and concert in general measures, which may be calculated to maintain sound doctrine, preventing conflicting regulations relative to persons under censure of the judicatories of either denomination, and to produce concert and harmony in their respective proceedings to promote the cause of piety and religion;" and

Whereas, It is the conviction of this Synod that wholesome fraternal measures may be adopted for combining and unifying the Evangelical denominations in support of the common doctrines of Christianity, without involving any surrender of the distinctive features and individual characteristics of these denominations; and

Whereas, The doctrinal and governmental system of the Reformed Church is broad and catholic, presenting a basis on which general measures for the promotion of piety and religion may be prosecuted: therefore

Resolved, That the Synod hereby appoints a committee of three ministers and three elders, to present, in its behalf, to the highest judicatories and assemblies of other Evangelical denominations, at their next annual meetings, for their consideration and adoption, the following plan of a National Council of the Evangelical denominations in these United States:

1. Such Council shall have for its great object the concerting of proper measures for promoting, *not* organic, but fraternal union, for the maintenance of the common doctrines and ethics of the Christian Church, whose one head is the Lord Jesus.

2. That its powers shall be simply advisory, and be exercised, not for the purpose of assailing what any denomination represented therein may regard as necessary for its welfare, but to secure concert of action for the furtherance of the Gospel, by diminishing sectarian rivalries and oppositions.

3. Such Council, when convened, may consider and recommend such general measures as may tend to give expression to the proper and essential unity of all who love the Lord Jesus Christ, whether in this or other lands, and draw them closer together in aggressive labors to bring the whole world into subjection to Christ.

4. The Council shall be a delegated body, and may consist of five representatives—three ministers and two laymen—from each Evangelical denomination, acceding to this recommendation, but no denomination, as such, shall be held responsible in any legislative sense for what the Council may choose to recommend.

5. The Council shall meet, provided the higher judicatories and assemblies of sister churches accede to this suggestion, on the third Tuesday of October, 1869, in the city of New York, at 10 o'clock A. M., in the Reformed Church on Washington Square.

Favorable action was taken on this invitation in both General Assemblies. Both bodies made the Pope's invitation to Protestants to return to the Roman Catholic Church, and the proper reply to be made to it, subjects for the consideration of special committees. In accordance with resolutions subsequently adopted by both General Assemblies, the moderators of both drew up a joint reply to the papal letter of invitation, stating the differences which separate the Protestant Churches from the Church of Rome. Among the visiting delegations who were received by the two bodies, that of Protestants from Bohemia deserves to be stated.

Final Ratification of the Plan of Reunion.—Pursuant to the terms on which they had adjourned from New York, the two General Assemblies met at Pittsburg on the 10th of November. Reports were read in the New School General Assembly from all the Presbyteries, numbering 118. All but three were in favor of the plan of reunion. In the Old School General Assembly, report was made that all the Presbyteries but twelve had responded to the overture for reunion. One hundred and twenty-eight Presbyteries had

voted in the affirmative and three in the negative. Fifty-eight Presbyteries had voted unanimously in favor of reunion. A report was then adopted in both General Assemblies, declaring the basis of reunion ratified by the votes of more than two-thirds of the Presbyteries of both branches of the Church, and that it be of practical force. The report provided for the appointment of a committee of five from each branch of the Church, to take into consideration the affairs of the Boards and Committees, and report, to the Assembly of the United Church next to be held, what changes are necessary. It also provided for the appointment of another joint committee of ten (five from each General Assembly), to propose to the General Assembly of the united Church a proper adjustment of boundaries of Presbyteries and Synods, and a ratio of representation, and other measures of adaptation to the different circumstances of the united Church. Ceremonies appropriate to the consummation of the reunion were celebrated in imposing style in a joint meeting of the General Assemblies, which was held on the 12th of November, and signalized the closing proceedings of both Assemblies.

The following are the statistics of the two branches for 1869:

OLD SCHOOL SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Communicants.
Albany	99	73	11,196
Alleghany	92	107	14,124
Atlantic	21	87	4,423
Baltimore	98	121	11,157
Buffalo	47	37	4,995
Chicago	113	117	8,413
Cincinnati	105	121	12,084
Illinois	126	163	10,703
Indiana	62	90	7,295
Iowa	67	105	4,795
Kansas	33	40	1,536
Kentucky	43	118	4,936
Missouri	71	107	4,681
Nashville	20	13	794
New Jersey	250	208	27,958
New York	226	168	23,538
Northern India	29	13	333
Northern Indiana	62	101	6,863
Ohio	108	147	12,197
Pacific	44	34	1,899
Philadelphia	240	220	33,519
Pittsburg	118	154	19,831
St. Paul	48	61	2,051
Sandusky	41	61	3,714
Southern Iowa	58	85	4,941
Wheeling	106	165	18,614
Wisconsin	43	55	3,321
Total	2,881	2,740	258,908

Number of Synods, 27; of Presbyteries, 143; of licentiates, 187; of candidates for the ministry, 376; of licensures, 85; of ordinations, 98; of installations, 172; of churches organized, 95; of members added, 27,171; of baptisms, 15,569; of persons in Sunday-schools, 239,389.

Contributions: for Congregational purposes, $3,180,102; for the Boards, $868,578; for disabled ministers, $37,196; for miscellaneous purposes, $397,892; for the freedmen, $27,310; for the contingent fund, $15,708; whole amount, $4,526,281.

SYNODS.	Ministers.	Churches.	Members.
Albany	87	65	8,281
Utica	71	72	7,205
Onondaga	70	68	8,573
Geneva	102	86	9,564
Susquehanna	37	36	3,336
Genesee	138	106	14,210
New York and New Jersey	208	174	25,788
Pennsylvania	124	95	17,512
West Pennsylvania	33	34	3,881
Michigan	120	123	11,405
Western Reserve	98	75	8,381
Ohio	50	65	4,689
Cincinnati	57	46	4,214
Indiana	49	66	5,128
Wabash	39	56	3,401
Illinois	88	101	6,675
Peoria	103	66	7,349
Wisconsin	44	36	1,961
Iowa	64	73	3,295
Minnesota	44	46	2,281
Missouri	44	51	2,877
Kansas	24	21	573
Tennessee	17	26	2,388
Alta California	29	22	1,422
Total	1,848	1,631	172,589

Number of Presbyteries, 113; of licentiates, 116; of candidates, 303; of baptisms, 8,296; of persons in Sunday-schools, 192,264.

Funds.—Home missions, $142,377; foreign missions, $116,364; education, $29,492; publication, $14,491; church erection, 43,013; ministerial relief, $18,966; freedmen, $12,594; General Assembly, $12,998.43; congregational, $2,886,940; miscellaneous, $363,98.2.

II. UNITED AND REFORMED PRESBYTERIANS.—The General Assembly of the *United Presbyterian Church* met at Monmouth, Ill., on the 26th of May. A report was rendered respecting the correspondence with the Associate Reformed Presbyterian Church, South. The United Presbyterian commissioner had been well received, but the Associate Reformed Synod decided it was not at present expedient to establish a correspondence between the two churches. Upon this showing, the General Assembly resolved that another commissioner should not be appointed until the other body should express its readiness to enter into correspondence. The committee for conference with representatives of other Presbyterian bodies on the subject of union reported that insuperable difficulties seemed to exist at present in the way of union, the chief of which grew out of the diversity of views that prevail on the subject of psalmody. The Assembly acknowledged, by resolution, the Christian spirit, and particularly the increasing regard shown for the distinctive principles of its own church by the Old School and New School churches, and continued the committee, while it declined to modify its views on psalmody. The Assembly, having been called upon, on appeal, to adjudicate in a case where a church-member had married his deceased wife's sister, determined to give the Church an opportunity to make a full expression on the subject. An overture was therefore prepared, calling for a vote, whether the declaration in the Westminster Confession—"the man may not marry any of his wife's kindred nearer in blood than he

may of his own, nor the woman of her husband's kindred nearer in blood than of her own"—should be repealed.

The Assembly reviewed the testimony of the Church against secret societies. A vote of thanks was offered to his Highness the Maharajah Duleep Singh, for the interest which he has taken in the missions of the Church. The progress of the China mission is impeded by the death of Mrs. McKelvey, and the purpose of Mr. Nevin to return to this country for his health. The Assembly resolved to withdraw its force from that field, unless Mr. Nevin should announce his firm purpose to return, in which case it is pledged to sustain him.

The following are the statistics of the United Presbyterian Church: Number of pastors, 401; without charge, 164; licentiates, 43; students of theology, 45; congregations, 726; mission stations, 44; members, 65,624; increase by profession, 4,121; by certificate, 3,998; decrease, 5,059; infant baptisms, 4,171; adult baptisms, 504; number of Sunday-schools, 555; teachers employed, 6,068; scholars, 43,806; contributions by Sunday-schools, $19,133.

The total of contributions to the Boards was $138,588, or $21,000 less than the previous year. The amount paid to pastors was $318,-374. The receipts for home missions were $35,270.72; seventy-nine missionaries are employed in this work. The missions to the freedmen have 2,334 pupils in day-schools, and 2,821 in Sunday-schools. The receipts for foreign missions were $50,624.52. There are five missions—in Syria, India, Egypt, China, and Italy—with 11 stations and 33 out-stations, with a missionary force of 26 Americans and seventy natives. There are 40 mission-schools, with about 1,080 scholars.

Monmouth College, Monmouth, Ill., has 368 students. Westminster College is also supported by this Church.

The General Synod of the *Reformed Presbyterian Church* met at Cedarville, O., on the 19th of May. The action of the previous General Synod in the case of George H. Stuart was reaffirmed by the action of the Synod toward certain Presbyteries. A Philadelphia Presbytery, which had protested against the action toward Mr. Stuart, was not recognized, and another Presbytery was declared in its place. The Presbytery of Alleghany, which had also offered a protest, was pronounced out of the communion of the Church, and the Presbytery of Saharunpur, in India, was declared in secession for having suspended relations with the General Synod, in consequence of disapproval of its action in reference to Mr. Stuart. Nevertheless, the Synod took measures to retain its hold on the mission at Saharunpur. The commission for the arrangement of terms of union with the United Presbyterian Church reported substantially the basis which is given below, and was continued. The Synod reiterated its approval of the proposed amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which has for its end the formal recognition of the Christian religion.

The joint committee from the United Presbyterian General Assembly and the Reformed Presbyterian General Synod met in Pittsburg, Pa., on the 10th of November, and agreed upon the following plan for the union of those two bodies:

Whereas, An organic union between the General Assembly of the United Presbyterian Church and the General Synod of the Reformed Presbyterian Church is most desirable and of the utmost importance to the maintenance and more general diffusion of the principles which are held in common: therefore

Resolved, That these churches agree to form an organic union on the basis of the principles embraced in their respective "Testimonies," and the other subordinate standards which they hold in common.

Resolved, That these churches, when united, shall be called the United Presbyterian Church, consisting of the Reformed Presbyterian Church and the United Presbyterian Churches, and that the United Supreme Judicatory of the United Church shall be called the "General Assembly of the United Presbyterian Church of North America."

Resolved, That the different boards and institutions of the respective churches shall not be affected by this union, but shall have the control of their funds, and retain all their corporate or other rights and privileges, until the interests of the Church shall require a change.

The Synod of the *Reformed Presbyterian Church* (O. S.), which met at Newburg, N. Y., on the 26th of May, adopted a resolution, deploring the irreligious character of the Government of the United States. It declared that irreligion found expression in the Constitution of the United States, that fundamental law leaving the Government, which establishes it, "destitute of all constitutional warrant for worshipping God, and with no constitutional obligation to abstain from violating His law." It assumed that such a Constitution could not be accepted and approved by a Christian people without sin, and that it was a duty of citizens to refuse to coöperate with a government thus constituted. It concluded by approval of the efforts which have been made by Christians of all denominations "in behalf of certain proposed amendments to the national Constitution."

The Synod established a fund for the benefit of superannuated ministers and the needy families of deceased ministers; determined to establish a new missionary post at Killis, in Syria; to coöperate with the Synod of Ireland in the foreign missionary field; and to continue the prosecution of missionary work among the freedmen in Washington. The educational interests of this Church are represented by a theological seminary, and Northwood College, in Ohio, where colored students are educated. It also coöperates with the trustees of Monmouth College. The Synod declined to participate in the National Council of Evangelical Churches, which was called by the Reformed Church.

III. CUMBERLAND PRESBYTERIANS.—The General Assembly of the Cumberland Presbyterian Church met at Murfreesborough, Tenn., May

20th. The principal feature of the session was the consideration of communications from a convention of colored ministers of the denomination, which met at the same time. The object of the latter was to consult upon the means of organizing and strengthening the Church among the colored people. The convention, among other things, asked that the Synod be authorized to create presbyteries of colored ministers, and that provision be made for the organization of a synod of colored ministers, when the requisite number of presbyteries shall have been formed. The first request was referred to the synods, and the second was laid over until an occasion should arise to decide upon it. The convention also sought assistance in building and furnishing churches for colored congregations; and asked that a plan be devised by which colored ministers could receive theological instruction. The matter of help in building churches was commended to the whole Church. The colored ministers were invited to select a location for a theological institution, and measures were taken to coöperate with them in establishing it. It was agreed on both sides that it would be for the best for the ministers of the two races to meet in separate judicatures. The Assembly advised against establishing new schools of a higher grade than a preparatory, recommending that advanced scholars be directed to the institutions already established. On account of defects in the returns, no report of statistics has been rendered. The number of colored ministers is computed at 58. Cumberland University has 17 teachers and 758 students, including those in the preparatory departments. New departments have been organized, and the library has been very much enriched. McGee College Mission has 190 students. Other institutions are reported prosperous. A theological department is to be established at "Camp Blake," where fifty-three students have already been cared for. It has been offered the theological library of the late Dr. Murdoch, of Yale College. The Board of Publication (capital $6,-989.91) has issued nearly 25,000 volumes. Its receipts for the year were $9,807.

IV. Southern Presbyterian Church.—The General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church in the United States (Southern branch) met at Mobile, Ala., on the 20th of May. The Rev. Stuart Robinson, who has been conspicuous for several years past by his participation in the "Declaration and Testimony" movement in Kentucky, was chosen moderator. A prominent subject of attention related to the work among the freedmen. The committee, who had been appointed to correspond with the Northern Church, reporting that their correspondence had developed no practical plan of coöperation in this work, the Assembly determined, on the motion of the committee, that it was "not prepared to take any steps contemplating the proposed concert of action." A general and uniform plan of operations among the colored people was finally adopted. It contemplates, "for the present, separate, particular churches, with their own deacons and elders, and, at the same time, instruction by an educated white ministry, until they can prove their ability to produce a competent ministry of their own." It provides, with the consent of the colored people concerned, for the establishment of separate colored churches, to be united with adjacent white churches under a common pastorate; they are to elect deacons and ruling elders, and to be represented in the upper courts by the pastors in charge of them, and by the ruling elders of the white churches with which they are associated, "until they are sufficiently educated to warrant their becoming independent." Where no white churches are accessible, evangelists may establish colored mission churches, and preside over their sessions in admitting members and exercising discipline. Suitable colored men may be made exhorters, under the direction of pastors or evangelists, and, where colored candidates are able to stand examination, they may be licensed and installed over colored churches, either still holding their connection with the white churches, or ecclesiastically separated from them. The plan provides for the appointment of synodical committees to carry it into effect, and advises that assistance be rendered colored candidates for the ministry, and encouragement be given colored Sunday-schools. The report on foreign missions was very favorable. The subject of the spiritual care of the Southern people who have emigrated to Brazil, and, contingently, of the propagation of the Gospel in that region, was referred to the missionary committee, with instructions to take such action upon it as they should think proper. Approval was rendered of evangelistic work, and recommendation made of efforts to increase the measure of its influence. An effort will be made to raise the minimum of pastors' salaries (last year $600) to $750. Reports of evangelistic labors, from 13 of the 47 presbyteries connected with the General Assembly, showed good results. All the interests of the Church were represented as in a flourishing condition. Among the new presbyteries reported was that of Central Ohio, which is connected with the Synod of Kentucky.

The number of Sunday-school scholars in 18 presbyteries is about 8,000.

The receipts of the sustentation fund were $31,708.50, from 652 contributing churches. All the funds show increase—in receipts and in the number of contributing churches—over the previous year.

The cash receipts of the publication fund were $29,746.20; assets over and above liabilities, $36,819.74. Pages printed, 17,833,500.

The Union Theological Seminary reports 4 teachers and 26 students, and the theological seminary at Columbia, S. C., 26 students. The library of the former contains 5,800, and that of the latter, 18,117 volumes.

The receipts of the Board of Foreign Missions for 11 months were over $20,000. The missionary force will consist of 16 missionaries, and 14 assistants, including women and native helpers. The missions are, to the Choctaws, in Brazil, China, and Italy. There is a boys' and girls' school at Hanchow, China.

The receipts of the Committee on Education were $11,548.71; expenses, $12,211.23. There were 83 applicants for aid. Students for the ministry, 245. Contributions were reported to Davidson, Stewart, Kings, and Hampton Sidney Colleges, and to Columbia Theological Seminary. The whole contribution of the Church to education was not less than $33,000.

PRUSSIA,* a kingdom in Europe. King, Wilhelm I., born March 22, 1797; succeeded his brother Friedrich Wilhelm III. on February 2, 1861. Heir-apparent, Friedrich Wilhelm, born October 18, 1831. The ministry, in 1868, consisted of the following members: Count Otto von Bismarck-Schönhausen, Presidency and Foreign Affairs (appointed in 1862); Baron von der Heydt, Finance (1866); General Dr. von Roon, War (1859) and Navy (1861); H. Count von Itzenplitz, Commerce and Public Works (1862); Dr. von Mühler, Worship, Instruction, and Medical Affairs (1862); Leonhard, Justice (December, 1867); Von Selchow, Agriculture (1862); F. A. Count zu Eulenburg, Interior (1862). Ambassador of the United States at Berlin, George Bancroft (1867); Prussian ambassador in Washington, Baron von Gerolt.

The area of Prussia, inclusive of the new territory acquired in 1866, and of the duchy of Lauenburg, is 135,806 square miles. The total population, according to the census of December 3, 1867, was 24,043,296. This includes 18,228 soldiers who at that time were located in the other States of the North-German Confederation. The population of each of the old provinces, and of the new territories, in 1867, was, according to the official census, as follows:

OLD PROVINCES.	
Prussia	3,090,960
Posen	1,537,338
Brandenburg	2,716,022
Pomerania	1,445,635
Silesia	3,585,752
Saxony	2,067,066
Westphalia	1,707,726
Rhine provinces	3,455,358
Hohenzollern	64,632
Jade	1,748
NEW TERRITORY	
Hanover	1,937,637
Schleswig-Holstein	981,718
Hessen-Nassau	1,379,745
Lauenburg	49,978
Garrisons outside of the kingdom	18,228
Total	24,039,543

The population of towns of more than 2,000 inhabitants is 6,894,478; of towns and hamlets of less than 2,000 inhabitants, 561,872: total population of towns, 7,456,350.

The Prussian Diet, sitting in the beginning of 1869, was closed on March 6th, by a speech from the throne, read by Count Bismarck, in which the results of the Diet's deliberations and enactments, as well as the policy of the Prussian Government, are expressed as follows:

The Government can assert that it has succeeded in reconciling opinions which, though contradictory, were equally to be respected, and that it has, in fact, triumphed over one of the difficulties inseparable from parliamentary existence in carrying a measure which gives decisive evidence of our progress in constitutional development.

After carefully examining the budget passed by the Diet, the Government of his Majesty sanctions it almost without alteration, and the Government has granted the extraordinary credits necessary for completely meeting the expenditure.

The Government will proceed with conscientious solicitude and economy with the regulation of the budget, and will take as the basis of the next financial proposals the necessity of reëstablishing the balance between receipts and expenditures.

The Government expresses to you the thanks of his Majesty for the attention you have devoted to the law regulating the difficulties pending between the state and the town of Frankfort, and which, consequently, has enabled the Government to settle that matter in conformity to the paternal sentiments of his Majesty, and in an amicable manner.

The proposals relative to the improvement of the judicial functions, and for the introduction of juridical uniformity throughout all parts of the monarchy, have been partially approved by the two Chambers.

So far as concerns the ulterior reforms which it is equally desirable to carry out, the Government believes that it can calculate upon the realization of a common understanding.

Thanks to your constant efforts, it has been possible to introduce notable ameliorations in the legislation for isolated provinces.

The desire of the Government to take into consideration the wishes of these provinces, and at the same time the general public interest, has met with the warm support of the two Chambers of the Diet.

If the discussions on public instruction have not been productive of any definite result, the Government will from that fact discover a motive more fully to utilize the time until next session, in thoroughly elucidating the question, so as to be in a position to lay a more complete scheme before the Diet.

So far as concerns the development of our corporative institutions, the Government has not yet been able to present the complete proposition to the Diet, but the preliminary confidential discussions which have been deemed necessary, while considering the vast range of this question, and the manifold difficulties attendant upon its satisfactory solution, justify the hope that an understanding upon it will be arrived at which will be in accordance with the interests of the country.

Notwithstanding this apparent good understanding between the Prussian Government and the deputies, the financial question continued to be agitated with a degree of animosity, especially when Count Bismarck retired for the summer, ostensibly to restore his health, and when the administration was intrusted to Count Eulenburg and Von Mühler, who were regarded as uncompromising reactionists.

A new session of the Diet was opened,

* For statistics of the religious denominations, of the nationalities, and of industry, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1863.

October 6th, by the King of Prussia in person. He said that an unavoidable deficit in the finances rendered an augmentation of the taxes necessary, and announced that reforms would be introduced, placing the eastern provinces on a basis of self-government, and that new laws in regard to public education would be submitted. He also alluded to the success of his efforts to preserve peace and friendly relations with foreign powers. He "relies confidently" on the deputies not refusing their assent to the propositions of the Government.

On finding that his propositions concerning taxes would be rejected by the Diet, the Finance Minister, Von der Heydt, resigned (in October), and was succeeded by Camphausen, whose appointment strengthened the national liberal element in Count Bismarck's ministry. His programme, laid before the Diet on October 30th, was described by him as one to "restore order in the administration of the finances, while the resources of the country should be spared as much as possible." His proposed "consolidation," calculated to furnish means for covering a portion of the deficit, and to improve the method of paying the public debt, was passed by a large majority of the Diet, in December, 1869. The Lower House adopted a resolution to extend the jurisdiction of the Federation over the entire civil law.

According to the budget, the national debt of Prussia, at the end of 1869, amounted to 442,639,372 thalers, 184,471,491 of which are, however, railway debts. The interest and sinking fund for the payment of the principal will, in 1870, require 28,648,600 thalers; 10,228,511 thalers of this sum, however, belong to the railways, and will be covered by their profits. The expenses of the national debt have risen 948,970 thalers since 1869. Of the above sum, 377,925,827 thalers belong to the old provinces, viz.: 211,225,925 thalers state debt bearing interest, 133,061,000 thalers railway debt bearing interest, 2,553,902 thalers provincial debt bearing interest, 12,835,000 thalers interest-bearing notes, and 18,250,000 thalers bank-notes bearing no interest. The debts of the provinces united to the kingdom, in 1866, are as follows: Hanover, 21,096,291 thalers, 16,261,120 thalers of which are railway debts; Hesse, 15,249,950 thalers, of which 15,107,600 thalers for railways; Nassau, 20,158,755 thalers, of which 16,472,514 thalers for railways; Hesse-Homburg, 99,429 thalers; Frankfort, 7,754,171 thalers, of which 3,569,257 thalers for railways; Schleswig-Holstein, 354,948 thalers.

The German military organization is complete, and, according to a statement in the Prussian *Military Gazette*, in January, 1869, "a million of soldiers can, at any moment, be placed under arms by a single telegram from Berlin." The Prussian troops, it adds, consist of 325 battalions of infantry, 268 squadrons of cavalry, 11 regiments of artillery, with 1,146 guns, and 12 battalions of engineers, making 410,000 soldiers in all. To these should be added the Federal contingents, which are as follows: Saxony, 29 battalions, 24 squadrons, 96 batteries, and 6 guns; Brunswick, 3 battalions, 4 squadrons and 6 guns; Mecklenburg-Strelitz, 1 battalion; and Hesse-Darmstadt, 10 battalions, 8 squadrons, 24 guns, and 1 battalion of engineers; total, 53,000 men. "But," says the *Military Gazette*, "this force of 463,000 only represents the standing army of North Germany. In case of emergency, Prussia can also command the services of the troops of Baden, Wurtemberg and Bavaria, and immediately order a levy of her reserve, consisting of 120 battalions of infantry, 76 squadrons of cavalry, 240 guns, and 12 battalions of engineers; or an army of 143,000 men. An additional force of 200,000 men is at her disposal for the occupation of towns and garrisons. The above numbers do not include the officers, military train, military laborers, nor special corps of any kind."

The Prussian Government has made extraordinary efforts to create a respectable navy. In fact, a few years ago it would have scarcely been an exaggeration to say that the long-boat of a British man-of-war was a fair match for Prussia's whole fleet. But Count Bismarck has already found himself able to assert that the Prussian navy is now second to none in the Baltic Sea. The extraordinary rapidity with which iron-clad after iron-clad has been built and launched in the Prussian ports, and the scarcely disguised pretensions of the Prussian Government to the supremacy of the Baltic Sea, have created no little jealousy and anxiety in Russia. In 1868, at the suggestion of Count Bismarck, the Prussian and Russian fleets cruised and manœuvred together during the summer months; but a proposal to renew the same exercises this year has met at St. Petersburg with an unqualified refusal. This incident has caused much sensation in Russian naval circles, the general impression being that the Government is aware of the present superiority of the Prussian navy. The influential Russian organ, *Golos*, of St. Petersburg says in a remarkable article on this subject: "After seizing Kiel and the bay of Jahde, Prussia has constructed in that bay the naval port of Keppens, and thus at once become a naval power and a dangerous rival to us in the Baltic. When the canal between the Baltic and the North Sea, the construction of which is already seriously contemplated at Berlin, is completed, the naval power of Prussia, which formerly only existed in the dreams of Prussian patriots, will become an accomplished fact." The *Golos*, after accusing Prussia of false dealing in her relations with Russia, proceeds: "Our commercial legislation has been such that if the Prussian Minister of Commerce had been asked for his advice he could not have invented any thing more advantageous for Prussian interests. The sliding scale of customs tariffs which have been re-

cently abolished, and the obstacles created by our bureaucracy, have drawn nearly all our northern maritime commerce into Prussian harbors. The Crimean War, and the construction of the railway communication between our western provinces and Königsberg, have made that port the headquarters of our northern trade. * * * Moreover, the mercantile marine of North Germany increases yearly, while merchant-ships under the Russian flag are scarcely ever seen on foreign waters." "If France," the *Goloss* significantly adds, "does not think proper to put a stop to Prussian impetuosity, that power will in a few years absorb the whole of Germany, or, in other words, become the arbiter of Europe."

In January, 1869, Count Bismarck made some startling disclosures in the Diet concerning a Hanoverian legion formed in peace, and the dangers threatening Prussia by the agitations of ex-King George of Hanover and the ex-Elector of Hesse. On the ground of the ex-King of Hanover's ill-disguised hostility and pretensions, his property was sequestrated, as also that of the ex-Elector of Hesse (the latter in February, 1869). The king addressed a strong protest to all German sovereigns, in which he endeavors to refute the charges made by the Prussian Government against him, and concludes by saying:

The first adviser of the Prussian Crown has pleaded for this new act of violence at the Diet. Part of the accusations by which he has done this are but a repetition, without any proof, of the pretended facts of a legion and the provocation of hostilities, which I have mentioned above, in conjunction with the equally renovated fiction of conditions and suppositions of the property treaty of September 29, 1867, which, by the spirit as well as by the text of the treaty, are proved not to exist. The other parts of the accusations are inventions of a similar value. They are those of the existence of a committee in Hietzing hostile to Prussia, which does not exist, and never has existed; then of the attempt to recruit Poles in Switzerland. These statements are so inconsistent that they do not need to be seriously contradicted.

It is also below my dignity to mention the way and the manner in which the first adviser of the Crown of Prussia has brought forward these frivolous accusations. I only state the fact that imperial Europe has loudly proclaimed its indignation; and I can only express my regret that, on the part of his Majesty the King of Prussia, no disapprobation of the behavior of the first adviser of the Crown has come to my knowledge.

His Majesty the King of Prussia, giving his sanction to the project of law concerning the sequestration of my family property, has created an obstacle on that road which still permitted him a return to the fulfilment of the duties of the treaty. For he has made the fulfilment of the duties undertaken by the treaty dependent upon a foreign will. Having already formally protested against the Royal Ordinance of March 2, 1868, concerning the sequestration of the property of my house, I again see myself now obliged solemnly to protest against the law, which renders more difficult the reëstablishment of the lawful state. Hoping that your Majesty will also receive the present communication with that sympathy of which your Majesty has given me so many proofs, I am, with the highest esteem and friendship, your Majesty's most friendly brother.

This Hanoverian Legion, said to have been organized in France by the connivance of the ex-King of Hanover, was, however, in consequence of the vigorous measures of Prussia, disbanded, and the agents of the ex-King then entered into negotiations for their settlement in Algiers as colonists, with the view of inducing their families and relations to join them.

The value of the property of King George of Hanover, now in the hands of the Prussian Government, is estimated at 13,382,000 thalers. This estimate does not include the contents of the royal castles. The cost of administering the above property is about 180,000 thalers a year.

The Prussian King, regarding himself as a guardian of Protestanism, issued the following decree:

The great movements which in our age are making themselves felt in the religious life both of nations and individuals, and are pressing forward to a decision, and the tasks they impose on the Protestant Church of our country, are apparent to all, and admonish us to entreat the support of Almighty God. It is therefore my will that a day be set apart in the Protestant churches of my country for special prayer that God may pour out His blessing on the present important deliberations as to the constitution of our Church, and to implore Him to protect the Protestant Church from all dangers that threaten it; and, to strengthen the ties which unite its members to each other and to the Church universal, I have appointed the 10th of November, the birthday of Dr. Martin Luther, for this purpose, and hereby commission the minister and the highest ecclesiastical authorities of Prussia to make the necessary arrangements.

According to an official compilation, the invested capital of all the railroads in the original provinces of Prussia amounted, at the end of 1867, to 462,464,800 thalers. The total expenditure was equivalent to 54 per cent. of the total receipt.

One hundred and five million tons of coal were produced in Prussia in 1867.

Berlin has now an area of 23,184 acres. It has 700 public buildings, 61 of which are devoted to divine service, 107 to instruction, 73 to sanitary purposes, 200 to the Government, 87 to the municipality, and 170 to the military. There are over 33,000 private houses (21,919 dwelling-houses, 1,164 factory buildings, and 10,180 stables and barns).

At the present day the political journalism of Berlin is represented by nine large, well-printed newspapers, published daily, or in some cases twice a day, with supplements of varying size. Then there are two law journals, partly political also, two humorous journals published weekly, the *Kladderadatsch* and the *Wespen*, and about two hundred papers besides, of all sorts and descriptions, for special departments of social or professional interest, as art, science, fashion, etc.

The emigration from Prussia has considerably increased in the last year, and reached, in 1868, the unprecedented number of 36,234 souls, 25,306 of whom emigrated from the old provinces.

PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. *Message of President* GRANT *to the two Houses of Congress at the commencement of the second session of the Forty-first Congress, December* 6, 1869.

To the Senate and House of Representatives:

In coming before you for the first time as Chief Magistrate of this great nation, it is with gratitude to the Giver of all good for the many benefits we enjoy. We are blessed with peace at home, and we are without entangling alliances abroad to forebode trouble; with a territory unsurpassed in fertility, of an area equal to the abundant support of five hundred millions of people, and abounding in every variety of useful mineral in quantity sufficient to supply the world for generations; with abundant crops; with a variety of climate adapted to the production of every species of the earth's riches, and suited to the habits, tastes, and requirements of every living thing; with a population of forty millions of free people, all speaking one language; with facilities for every mortal to acquire an education; with institutions closing to none the avenues of fame or any blessing of fortune that may be coveted; with freedom of the pulpit, the press, and the school; with a revenue flowing into the national treasury beyond the requirements of the Government. Happily, harmony is rapidly being restored within our own borders. Manufactures, hitherto unknown in our country, are springing up in all sections, producing a degree of national independence unequalled by that of any other power. These blessings, and countless others, are intrusted to your care and mine for safe keeping for the brief period of our tenure of office. In a short time we must each of us return to the ranks of the people who have conferred upon us our honors, and account to them for our stewardship. I earnestly desire that neither you nor I may be condemned by a free and enlightened constituency, nor by our own consciences. Emerging from a rebellion of gigantic magnitude, aided as it was by the sympathies and assistance of nations with which we were at peace, eleven States of the Union were, four years ago, left without a legal State government. A national debt had been contracted; American commerce was almost driven from the seas; the industry of one-half of the country had been taken from the control of the capitalist and placed where all labor rightfully belongs, in the keeping of the laborer. The work of restoring State governments loyal to the Union, of protecting and fostering free labor, and providing means for paying the interest on the public debt, has received ample attention from Congress. Although your efforts have not met with the success in all particulars that might have been desired, yet, on the whole, they have been more satisfactory than could have been reasonably anticipated.

Seven States which passed ordinances of secession have been fully restored to their places in the Union. The eighth (Georgia) held an election, at which she ratified her constitution, republican in form, elected a Governor, members of Congress, a State Legislature, and all other officers required. The Governor was duly installed, and the Legislature met and performed all the acts required of them by the reconstruction acts of Congress. Subsequently, however, in violation of the constitution they had just ratified, as since decided by the Supreme Court of the State, "they unseated the colored members of the Legislature, and admitted to seats some members who are disqualified by the third clause of the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution, one article which they themselves had contributed to ratify." Under these circumstances, I would submit to you whether it would not be wise, without delay, to enact a law authorizing the Governor of Georgia to convene the members originally elected to the Legislature, requiring each member to take the oath prescribed by the reconstruction acts, and none to be admitted who are ineligible under the third clause of the fourteenth amendment.

The freedmen, under the protection which they have received, are making rapid progress in learning, and no complaints are heard of lack of industry on their part, when they receive fair remuneration for their labor.

The means provided for paying the interest of the public debt, with all other expenses of the Government, are more than ample. The loss of our commerce is the only result of the late rebellion which has not received sufficient attention from you. To this subject I call your earnest attention. I will not now suggest plans by which this object may be effected, but will, if necessary, make it the subject of a special message during the session of Congress. At the March term, Congress, by a joint resolution, authorized the Executive to order elections in the States of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, to submit to them the constitutions which each had previously in conventions formed, and submit the constitutions, either entire or in separate parts, to be voted upon at the discretion of the Executive. Under this authority elections were called. In Virginia the election took place on the 6th of July, 1869. The Governor and Lieutenant-Governor elected have been installed. The Legislature met and did all required by this resolution, and by all the reconstruction acts of Congress, and abstained from all doubtful authority. I recommend that her Senators and Representatives be admitted, and the State be fully restored to her place in the family of States.

Elections were called in Mississippi and Texas, to commence on the 30th of November, 1869, and to last for two days in Mississippi, and four days in Texas. The elections have taken place, but the result is not known. It is to be hoped that the acts of the Legislatures of these States, when they meet, will be such as to receive your approval, and thus close the work of reconstruction.

Among the evils growing out of the rebellion, and not yet referred to, is that of an irredeemable currency. It is an evil which, I hope, will receive your most earnest attention. It is a duty, and one of the highest duties of Government, to secure to the citizens a medium of exchange of fixed and uniform value. This implies a return to a specie basis, and no substitute for it can be devised. It should be commenced now, and reached at the earliest practicable moment consistent with a fair regard to the interests of the debtor class. Immediate resumption, if practicable, would not be desirable. It would compel the debtor class to pay beyond their contracts the premium on gold at the date of purchase, and would bring bankruptcy and ruin to thousands. Fluctuation, however, in the paper value of the measure of all values, gold, is detrimental to the interests of trade. It makes the man of business an involuntary gambler, for, in all sales, where future payment is to be made, both parties speculate as to what will be the value of the currency to be paid and received. I earnestly recommend to you, then, such legislation as will insure a gradual return to specie payments, and put an immediate stop to fluctuations in the value of currency. The methods to secure the former of these results are as numerous as are the speculations on political economy. To secure the latter, I see but one way, and that is, to authorize the Treasury to redeem its own paper at a fixed price whenever presented, and to withhold from circulation all currency so redeemed until sold again for gold. The vast resources of the nation, both developed and undeveloped, ought to make our credit the best on earth, with a less burden of taxation than the citizen has endured for six years past. The entire public debt could be paid in ten years, but it is not desirable that the people should be forced to pay it in that time. Year by year the ability to pay increases in a rapid ratio, but the burden of interest ought to be reduced as rapidly as can be

done without a violation of contract. The public debt is represented, in great part, by bonds having from five to twenty and from ten to forty years to run, bearing interest at the rate of six per cent. and five per cent. respectively. It is optional with the Government to pay these bonds at any period after the expiration of the least time mentioned upon their face. The time has already expired when a great part of them may be taken up, and is rapidly approaching when all may be. It is believed that all which are now due may be replaced by bonds bearing a rate of interest not exceeding four and one-half per cent., and, as rapidly as the remainder become due, that they may be replaced in the same way. To accomplish this, it may be necessary to authorize the interest to be paid at either of three or four of the money centres of Europe, or by any Assistant Treasurer of the United States, at the option of the holders of the bonds. I suggest this subject for the consideration of Congress; also, simultaneously with this, the propriety of redeeming our currency, as before suggested, at its market value, at the time the law goes into effect, increasing the rate at which currency will be bought and sold from day to day, or week to week, at the same rate of interest as the Government pays upon its bonds.

The subject of the tariff and internal taxation will necessarily receive your attention. The revenues of the country are greater than the requirements, and may with safety be reduced; but, as the funding of the debt in a four or a four and a half per cent. loan would reduce the annual current expenses largely, thus, after funding, justifying a greater reduction of taxation than would be now expedient, I suggest a postponement of this question until the next meeting of Congress. It may be advisable to modify the taxation and tariff in instances where unjust or burdensome discriminations are made by the present laws; but a general revision of the laws regarding this subject, I would recommend the postponement of for the present.

I also suggest the renewal of the tax on incomes, etc., but at a reduced rate, say of three per cent., and this tax to expire in three years with the funding of the national debt as here suggested.

I feel safe in saying that the taxes and the revenues from imports may be reduced safely from sixty to eighty millions per annum at once, and may be still further reduced from year to year as the resources of the country are developed.

The report of the Secretary of the Treasury shows the receipts of the Government, for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1869, to be $370,943,747, and the expenditures, including interest, bounties, etc., to be $321,490,597. The estimates for the ensuing year are more favorable to the Government, and will, no doubt, show a much larger decrease of the public debt. The receipts in the Treasury beyond expenditures have exceeded the amount necessary to place to the credit of the sinking fund, as provided by law. To lock up the surplus in the Treasury and withhold it from circulation would lead to such a contraction of the currency as to cripple trade and seriously affect the prosperity of the country. Under these circumstances the Secretary of the Treasury and myself heartily concurred in the propriety of using all the surplus currency in the Treasury in the purchase of Government bonds, thus reducing the interest-bearing indebtedness of the country, and of submitting to Congress the question of the disposition to be made of the bonds so purchased. The bonds now held by the Treasury amount to about $75,000,000, including those belonging to the Sinking Fund. I recommend that the whole be placed to the credit of the Sinking Fund. Your attention is respectfully invited to the recommendations of the Secretary of the Treasury for the creation of the office of Commissioner of Customs Revenue, for the increase of salary to certain classes of officials, and the substitution of increased national bank circulation to replace the outstanding three per cent. certificates, and most especially to his recommendation for the repeal of laws allowing shares of fines, penalties, forfeitures, etc., to officers of the Government and to informers.

The office of Commissioner of Internal Revenue is one of the most arduous and responsible under the Government. It falls but little, if any, short of a Cabinet position in its importance and responsibilities. I would ask for it, therefore, such legislation as in your judgment will place the office upon a footing of dignity commensurate with its importance and with the character and qualifications of the class of men required to fill it properly.

As the United States is the freest of all nations, so, too, its people sympathize with all peoples struggling for liberty and self-government. But, while so sympathizing, it is due to our honor that we should abstain from enforcing our views upon unwilling nations, and from taking an interested part, without invitation, in the quarrels between different nations, or between governments and their subjects. Our course should always be in conformity with strict justice and law, international and local. Such has been the policy of the administration in dealing with these questions. For more than a year a valuable province of Spain, and a near neighbor of ours, in whom all our people cannot but feel a deep interest, has been struggling for independence and freedom. The people and Government of the United States entertain the same warm feelings and sympathies for the people of Cuba in their pending struggle that they manifested throughout the previous struggles between Spain and her former colonies, in behalf of the latter; but the contest has never assumed a condition which amounts to a war in the sense of international law, or which would show the existence of a *de facto* political organization of the insurgents sufficient to justify a recognition of belligerency. The principle is maintained, however, that this nation is its own judge when to accord the rights of belligerency, either to a people struggling to free themselves from a government they believe to be oppressive, or to independent nations at war with each other. The United States have no disposition to interfere with the existing relations of Spain to her colonial possessions on this continent. They believe that in due time Spain and the European powers will find their interest in terminating these relations, and establishing their present dependencies as independent powers, members of the family of nations. These dependencies are no longer regarded as subject to transfer from one European power to another. When the present relations of the colonies cease, they are to become independent powers, exercising the right of choice and of self-control in the determination of their future condition and relations with other powers. The United States, in order to put a stop to bloodshed in Cuba and in the interest of a neighboring people, proposed their good offices to bring the existing contest to a termination. The offer not being accepted by Spain, on a basis which we believed could be received by Cuba, was withdrawn. It is hoped that the good offices of the United States may yet prove advantageous for the settlement of this unhappy strife. Meanwhile, a number of illegal expeditions against Cuba have been broken up. It has been the endeavor of the Administration to execute the neutrality laws in good faith, no matter how unpleasant the task, made so by the sufferings we have endured from lack of like good faith toward us by other nations.

On the 26th of March last, the United States schooner Lizzie Major was arrested on the high-seas by a Spanish frigate, and two passengers taken from it and carried as prisoners to Cuba. Representations of these facts were made to the Spanish Government as soon as official information of them reached Washington. The two passengers were set at liberty, and the Spanish Government assured

the United States that the captain of the frigate in making the capture had acted without law; that he had been reprimanded for the irregularity of his conduct, and that the Spanish authorities in Cuba would not sanction any act that could violate the rights or treat with disrespect the sovereignty of this nation. The question of the seizure of the brig Mary Lowell, at one of the Bahama Islands by the Spanish authorities, is now the subject of correspondence between this Government and those of Spain and Great Britain. The Captain-General of Cuba, about May last, issued a proclamation, authorizing search to be made of vessels on the high-seas. Immediate remonstrance was made against this, whereupon the captain-general issued a new proclamation, limiting the right of search to vessels of the United States, so far as authorized under the treaty of 1795. This proclamation, however, was immediately withdrawn. I have always felt that the most intimate relations should be cultivated between the Republic of the United States and all independent nations on this continent. It may be well worth considering whether new treaties between the United States and them may not be profitably entered into to secure more intimate relations—friendly, commercial, or otherwise.

The subject of an interoceanic canal, to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, through the Isthmus of Darien, is one in which commerce is greatly interested. Instructions have been given to our minister to the Republic of the United States of Colombia, to endeavor to obtain authority for a survey by this Government, in order to determine the practicability of such an undertaking, and a charter for the right of way to build, by private enterprise, such a work, if the survey proves it to be practicable.

In order to comply with the agreement of the United States as to a mixed commission at Lima for the adjustment of claims, it became necessary to send a commissioner and secretary to Lima in August last. No appropriation having been made by Congress for this purpose, it is now asked that one be made, covering the past and future expenses of the commission.

The good offices of the United States to bring about a peace between Spain and the South American republics, with which she is at war, having been accepted by Spain, Peru, and Chili, a congress has been invited to be held in Washington during the present winter. A grant has been given to Europeans of an exclusive right of transit over the territory of Nicaragua, to which Costa Rica has given its assent, which, it is alleged, conflicts with the vested rights of citizens of the United States. The Department of State has now this subject under consideration. The minister of Peru having made representations that there was a state of war between Peru and Spain, and that Spain was constructing, in and near New York, thirty gunboats which might be used by Spain in such a way as to relieve the naval force in Cuba, and also to operate against Peru, orders were given to prevent their departure. No further steps having been taken by the representative of the Peruvian Government to prevent the departure of these vessels, and I, not feeling authorized to detain the property of a nation with which we were at peace on a mere Executive order, the matter has been referred to the courts to decide.

The conduct of the war between the allies and the Republic of Paraguay has made the intercourse with that country so difficult that it has been deemed advisable to withdraw our representative from her.

Toward the close of the last Administration a convention was signed at London for the settlement of all outstanding claims between Great Britain and the United States, which failed to receive the advice and consent of the Senate to its ratification. The time and the circumstances attending the negotiations of that treaty were unfavorable to its acceptance by the people of the United States, and its provisions were wholly inadequate for the settlement of the grave wrongs that had been sustained by this Government, as well as by its citizens. The injuries resulting to the United States by reason of the course adopted by Great Britain during our late civil war, in the increased rate of insurance, in the diminution of exports and imports, and other obstructions to domestic industry and production; in its effect upon the foreign commerce of the country; in the decrease and transfer to Great Britain of our commercial marine; in the prolongation of the war, and in the increased cost, both in treasure and in lives, if its suppression could not be adjusted and satisfied as ordinary commercial claims which continually arise between commercial nations; and yet the convention treated these simply as such ordinary claims, from which they differ more widely in the gravity of their character than in the magnitude of their amount. Great even as is that difference, not a word was found in the treaty, and not an inference could be drawn from it, to remove the sense of the unfriendliness of the course of Great Britain in our struggle for existence, which had so deeply and universally impressed itself upon the people of this country. Believing that a convention thus misconceived in its scope and inadequate in its provisions would not have produced the hearty, cordial settlement of pending questions which alone is consistent with the relations which I desire to have established between the United States and Great Britain, I regarded the action of the Senate in rejecting the treaty to have been wisely taken, in the interest of peace, and as a necessary step in the direction of a perfect and cordial friendship between the two countries. A sensitive people, conscious of their power, are more at ease under a great wrong wholly unatoned than under the restraint of a settlement which satisfies neither their ideas of justice nor their grave sense of the grievance they have sustained. The rejection of the treaty was followed by a state of public feeling on both sides, which I thought not favorable to an immediate attempt at renewed negotiations. I accordingly so instructed the minister of the United States to Great Britain, and found that my views in this regard were shared by her Majesty's minister. I hope that the time may soon arrive when the two Governments can approach the solution of this momentous question with an appreciation of what is due to the rights, dignity, and honor of each, and with the determination not only to remove the causes of complaint in the past, but to lay the foundation of a broad principle of public law which will prevent future difficulties, and tend to a firm and continued peace and friendship. This is now the only grave question which the United States have with any foreign nation.

The question of renewing a treaty for reciprocal trade between the United States and the British provinces on this continent has not been favorably considered by the Administration. The advantages of such a treaty would be wholly in favor of the British provinces, except possibly a few engaged in the trade between the two sections. No citizen of the United States would be benefited by reciprocity. Our internal taxation would prove a protection to the British producer almost equal to the protection which our manufacturers now receive from the tariff. Some arrangement, however, for the regulation of commercial intercourse between the United States and the Dominion of Canada may be desirable.

The commission for adjusting the claims of the Hudson Bay and Puget's Sound Agricultural Company upon the United States has terminated its labors. The award of $650,000 has been made, and all the rights and titles of the company on the Territory of the United States have been extinguished. Deeds for the property of the company have been delivered. An appropriation by Congress to meet this sum is asked.

The commissioners for determining the northwestern land-boundary between the United States and the British possessions, under the treaty of 1856, have completed their labor, and the commission has been dissolved.

In conformity with the recommendation of Congress, a proposition was early made to the British Government to abolish the mixed courts created under the treaty of April 1, 1862, for the suppression of the slave-trade. The subject is still under negotiation.

It having come to my knowledge that a corporate company, organized under the British law, proposed to land upon the shores of the United States, and to operate there, a submarine cable, under a concession from his Majesty the Emperor of the French, of an exclusive right for twenty years, of communication between the shores of France and the United States, with the very objectionable feature of subjecting all messages conveyed thereby to the scrutiny and control of the French Government, I caused the French and British legations at Washington to be made acquainted with the probable policy of Congress on the subject, as foreshadowed by the bill which passed the Senate in March last. This drew from the representatives of the company an agreement to accept as the basis of their operations the provisions of that bill, or of such other enactment on the subject as might be passed during the approaching session of Congress; also, to use their influence to secure from the French Government a modification of their concession so as to permit the landing upon French soil of any cable belonging to any company incorporated by the authorities of the United States, or of any State in the Union, and on their part not to oppose the establishment of any such cable. In consideration of this agreement, I directed the withdrawal of all opposition by the United States authorities to the landing of the cable and to the working of it until the meeting of Congress. I regret to say that there has been no modification made in the company's concession, nor, so far as I can learn, have they attempted to secure one. Their concession excludes the capital and the citizens of the United States from competition upon the shores of France. I recommend legislation to protect the rights of citizens of the United States, as well as the dignity and sovereignty of the nation against such an assumption. I shall also endeavor to secure by negotiation an abandonment of the principle of monopolies in ocean telegraphic cables. Copies of this correspondence are herewith furnished.

The unsettled political condition of other countries less fortunate than our own, sometimes induces their citizens to come to the United States for the sole purpose of becoming naturalized. Having secured this, they return to their native country and reside, without disclosing their change of allegiance. They accept official positions of trust or honor which can only be held by citizens of their native land. They journey under passports describing them as such citizens, and it is only when civil discord, after, perhaps, years of quiet, threatens their persons or their property, or when their native state drafts them into its military service, that the fact of their change of allegiance is made known. They reside permanently away from the United States, and they contribute nothing to its revenues; they avoid the duties of its citizenship, and they only make themselves known by a claim of protection. I have directed the diplomatic and consular officers of the United States to scrutinize carefully all such claims of protection. The citizen of the United States, whether native or adopted, who discharges his duty to his country, is entitled to its complete protection. While I have a voice in the direction of affairs I shall not consent to imperil this sacred right by conferring it upon fictitious or fraudulent claimants.

On the accession of the present Administration it was found that the minister for North Germany had made propositions for the negotiation of a convention for the protection of immigrant passengers, to which no response had been given. It was concluded that to be effectual all the maritime powers engaged in the trade should join in such a measure. Invitations have been extended to the Cabinets of London, Paris, Florence, Berlin, Brussels, the Hague, Copenhagen, and Stockholm, to empower their representatives at Washington to simultaneously enter into negotiations, and to conclude with the United States conventions identical in form, making uniform regulations as to the construction of the parts of vessels to be devoted to the use of immigrant passengers, as to the quantity of food, as to the medical treatment of the sick, and as to the rules to be observed during the voyage, in order to secure ventilation, to promote health, to prevent intrusion, and to protect the families, and providing for the establishment of tribunals in the several countries for enforcing such regulations by summary process.

And your attention is respectfully called to the law regulating the tariff on Russian hemp, and to the question whether to fix the charges on Russian hemp higher than they are fixed upon manilla is not a violation of our treaty with Russia, placing her products upon the same footing with those of the most favored nations.

Our manufactures are increasing with wonderful rapidity under the encouragement which they now receive. With the improvement in machinery already effected and still increasing, causing machinery to take the place of skilled labor to a large extent, our imports of many articles must fall off largely within a very few years.

Fortunately, manufactures are not confined to a few localities as formerly, and it is to be hoped will become more and more diffused, making the interest in them equal in all sections. They give employment and support to hundreds of thousands of people at home, and retain with us the means which otherwise would be shipped abroad.

The extension of railroads in Europe and the East is bringing into competition with our agricultural products like products of other countries. Self-interest, if not self-preservation, therefore, dictates caution against disturbing any industrial interest of the country. It teaches us also the necessity of looking to other markets for the sale of our surplus. Our neighbors south of us, and China and Japan, should receive our special attention.

It will be the endeavor of the Administration to cultivate such relations with all these nations as to entitle us to their confidence, and make it their interest as well as ours to establish better commercial relations.

Through the agency of a more enlightened policy than that heretofore pursued toward China, largely due to the sagacity and efforts of one of our own distinguished citizens, the world is about to commence largely-increased relations with that populous and hitherto exclusive nation. As the United States have been the initiators in this new policy, so they should be the most earnest in showing their good faith in making it a success. In this connection, I would advise such legislation as will forever preclude the enslavement of the Chinese upon our soil under the name of coolies, and also prevent American vessels from engaging in the transportation of coolies to any country tolerating the system. I also recommend that the mission to China be raised to one of the first class.

On my assuming the responsible duties of Chief Magistrate of the United States, it was with the conviction that three things were essential to its peace, perpetuity, and fullest development:

1. Among these is strict integrity in fulfilling all our obligations.

2. To secure protection to the person and property of the citizen of the United States in each and every portion of our common country, wherever he may

choose to move, without reference to original nationality, religion, color, or politics, demanding of him only obedience to the laws and proper respect for the rights of others.

3. Union of all the States, with equal rights, indestructible by any constitutional means.

To secure the first of these, Congress has taken two essential steps: first, in declaring by joint resolution that the public debt should be paid, principal and interest, in coin; and second, by providing the means for paying. Providing the means, however, could not secure the object desired without a proper administration of the laws for the collection of the revenues, and an economical disbursement of them. To this subject the Administration has most earnestly addressed itself, with results, I hope, satisfactory to the country. There has been no hesitation in exchanging officials in order to secure efficient execution of the laws—sometimes, too, where in a mere party view undeserved political results were likely to follow—nor any hesitation in sustaining efficient officials against remonstrances wholly political. It may be well to mention here the embarrassments possible to arise from leaving on the statute-books the so-called tenure-of-office acts, and to earnestly recommend their total repeal. It could not have been the intention of the framers of the Constitution, when providing that appointments made by the President should receive the consent of the Senate, that the latter should have the power to retain in office persons placed there by Federal appointment against the will of the President. The law is inconsistent with a faithful and efficient administration of the Government. What faith can the Executive put in officials forced upon him, and those, too, whom he has suspended for reasons? How will such officials be likely to serve an Administration which they know does not trust them? For the second requisite to our growth and prosperity, time and a firm but humane administration of existing laws, amended from time to time as they may prove ineffective, or prove harsh and unnecessary, are probably all that are required. The third cannot be attained by special legislation, but must be regarded as fixed by the Constitution itself, and gradually acquiesced in by force of public opinion.

From the foundation of the Government to the present time the management of the original inhabitants of this continent, the Indians, has been a subject of embarrassment and expense, and has been attended with continuous robberies, murders, and wars. From my own experience upon the frontiers in Indian countries, I do not hold either legislation or the conduct of the whites who come most in contact with the Indian blameless for these hostilities. The past, however, cannot be undone, and the question must be met as we now find it. I have attempted a new policy toward these wards of the nation (they cannot be regarded in any other light than wards), with fair results, so far as tried, and which, I hope, will be attended ultimately with great success. The Society of Friends is well known as having succeeded in living in peace with the Indians in the early settlement of Pennsylvania, while their white neighbors of other sects in other sections were constantly embroiled. They were also known for their opposition to all strife, violence, and war, and are generally noted for their strict integrity and fair dealings. These considerations induced me to give the management of a few reservations of Indians to them, and to throw the burden of the selection of agents upon the Society itself. The result has proved most satisfactory.

It will be found more fully set forth in the report of the Commissioner of Indian Affairs. For Superintendent and Indian Agents not in the reservations, officers of the army were selected. The reasons for this are numerous: Where Indian agents are sent, there, or near there, troops must be sent also. The agent and the commander of the troops are independent of each other, and are subject to orders from different departments of the Government. The army officer holds a position for life; the agent at the will of the President. The former is personally interested in living in harmony with the Indian, and in establishing a permanent peace, to the end that some portion of his life may be spent within the limits of civilized society; the latter has no such personal interest. Another reason is an economic one, and still another, the hold which the Government has upon a life-officer to secure a faithful discharge of his duties in carrying out a given policy. The building of railroads, and the access thereby given to all the agricultural and mineral regions of the country, are rapidly bringing civilized settlements into contact with all the tribes of Indians. No matter what ought to be the relations between such settlements and the aborigines, the fact is, that they do not harmonize well, and one or the other has to give way in the end. A system which looks to the extinction of a race is too horrible for a nation to adopt without entailing upon itself the wrath of all Christendom, and engendering in the citizen a disregard for human life and the rights of others dangerous to society. I see no substitute for such a system except in placing all the Indians on large reservations as rapidly as it can be done, and giving them absolute protection there. As soon as they are fitted for it they should be induced to stake their lands in severalty and to set up territorial governments for their own protection. For full details on this subject I call attention to the reports of the Secretary of the Interior and the Commissioner of Indian Affairs.

The report of the Secretary of War shows the expenditures of the War Department for the year ending the 30th of June, 1869, to be $80,644,042, of which $23,882,810 was disbursed in the payment of debts contracted during the war, and is not chargeable to current army expenses. His estimate of $34,531,031 for the expenses of the army for the next fiscal year is as low as it is believed can be relied on.

The estimates of bureau officers have been carefully scrutinized and reduced wherever it has been practicable. If, however, the condition of the country should be such, by the beginning of the next fiscal year, as to admit of a greater concentration of troops, the appropriation asked for will not be expended.

The appropriations estimated for river and harbor improvements and fortifications are submitted separately. Whatever amount Congress may deem proper to appropriate for these purposes will be expended. The recommendation of the General of the Army, that appropriations be made for the forts at Boston, Portland, New York, Philadelphia, New Orleans, and San Francisco, if for no others, is concurred in. I also ask your special attention to his recommendation of the general commanding the military division of the Pacific, for the sale of the Seal Islands, of St. George, and St. Paul, Alaska Territory, and suggest that it either be complied with, or that legislation be had for the protection of the seal fisheries, from which a revenue should be derived.

The report of the Secretary of War contains a synopsis of the reports of the head of bureaus of the commanders of military divisions, and of the districts of Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, and the report of the General of the Army in full. The recommendations therein contained have been well considered, and are submitted for your action. I, however, call special attention to the recommendation of the Chief of Ordnance for the sales of arsenals and lands no longer of use to the Government; also, to the recommendation of the Secretary of War, that the act of March 3, 1869, prohibiting promotions and appointments on the staff corps of the army be repealed. The extent of country to be garrisoned, and the number of military posts to be occupied, are the same with a reduced army as with a large one, and a large number of staff officers required is more dependent upon the latter than the former condition.

The report of the Secretary of the Navy, accompanying this, shows the condition of the navy when this Administration came into office, and the changes made since. Strenuous efforts have been made to place as many vessels in commission or render them fit for service, if required, as possible, and to substitute the sail for steam while cruising, thus materially reducing the expenses of the navy and adding greatly to its efficiency. Looking to our future, I recommend a liberal though not extravagant policy toward this branch of the public services.

The report of the Postmaster-General furnishes a clear and comprehensive exhibit of the operations of the postal service, and of the financial condition of the Post-Office Department. The ordinary postal revenues for the year ending the 30th of June, 1869, amounted to $18,344,510, and the expenditures to $23,698,131, showing an excess of expenditures over receipts, $5,353,620. The excess of expenditures over receipts for the previous year amounted to $6,427,192. The increase of revenues for 1869 over those of 1868 was $2,051,909, and the increase of expenditures was $967,538. The increased revenue in 1869 exceeded the increased revenue in 1868 by $936,336, and the increased expenditure in 1869 was $2,527,570 less than the increased expenditures in 1868, showing, by comparison, this gratifying feature of improvement, that, while the increase of expenditures over the increase of receipts in 1868 was $2,439,535, the increase of receipts over the increase of expenditures in 1869 was $1,084,371.

Your attention is called to the recommendations made by the Postmaster-General for authority to change the rule of compensation to the main trunk railroad lines for their services in carrying the mails, for having post-route maps executed, for reorganizing the efficiency of the special agency service, for the increase of the mail service on the Pacific, and for establishing mail service under the flag of the Union on the Atlantic; and most especially do I call your attention to his recommendation for the total abolition of the franking privilege. This is an abuse from which no one receives a commensurate advantage. It reduces the receipts for postal service from twenty-five to thirty per cent., and largely increases the service to be performed.

The method by which postage should be paid upon public matter is set forth fully in the report of the Postmaster-General.

The report of the Secretary of the Interior shows that the quantity of public lands disposed of during the year ending 30th of June, 1869, was 7,666,000 acres, exceeding that of the previous year by 1,010,409. Of this amount 2,899,544 acres were sold for cash, and 2,737,365 acres entered under the homestead law. The remainder was granted to aid in the construction of works of internal improvement, apportioned to these States as swamp lands, and located with warrants and scrip. The cash receipts from all sources were $4,472,886, exceeding those of the preceding year $2,840,140.

During the last fiscal year, 23,196 names were added to the pension-rolls, and 4,876 dropped therefrom, leaving at its close 107,963. The amount paid to pensioners, including the compensation of disbursing agents, was $8,422,884, an increase of $4,411,902 on that of the previous year.

The munificence of Congress has been conspicuously manifest in its legislation for the soldiers and sailors who suffered in the recent struggle to maintain that unity of government which makes us one people. The additions to the pension-rolls of each successive year since the conclusion of the hostilities result in a great degree from the repeated amendments of the act of the 14th of July, 1862, which extended its provisions to cases not falling within its original scope.

The large outlay which it thus occasioned is further increased by the more liberal allowance bestowed since that date upon those who, in the line of duty, were wholly or permanently disabled. Public opinion has given an emphatic sanction to these measures of Congress, and it will be conceded that no part of our public burden is more cheerfully borne than that which is imposed by this branch of the service. It necessitates further, next fiscal year, in addition to the amount justly chargeable to the naval pension fund, an appropriation of thirty million dollars. During the year ending the 30th of September, 1869, the Patent-Office issued 13,762 patents, and its receipts were $686,389—being $213,926 more than the expenditures.

I would respectfully call your attention to the recommendation of the Secretary of the Interior, for uniting the duties of supervising the education of freedmen with the other duties devolving upon the Commissioner of Education.

If it is the desire of Congress to make the census which must be taken during the year 1870 more complete and perfect than heretofore, I would suggest early action upon any plan that may be agreed upon. As Congress at the last session appointed a committee to take into consideration such measures as might be deemed proper in reference to the census, and to report a plan, I desist from saying more.

I recommend to your favorable consideration the claims of the Agricultural Bureau for liberal appropriations in a country so diversified in climate and soil as ours, and with a population so largely dependent upon agriculture. The benefits that can be conferred by properly fostering this Bureau are incalculable.

I desire respectfully to call the attention of Congress to the inadequate salaries of a number of the most important officers of the Government. In this message I will not enumerate them, but will specify only the Justices of the Supreme Court. No change has been made in their salaries for fifteen years, and within that time the labors of the court have largely increased, and the expenses of living have at least doubled. During the same time Congress has twice found it necessary to increase largely the compensation of its members, and the duty which it owes to another department of the Government deserves, and will undoubtedly receive, its due consideration.

There are many subjects not alluded to in this message which might with propriety be introduced, but I abstain, believing that your patriotism and statesmanship will suggest the topics and the legislation most conducive to the interests of the whole people. On my part I promise a rigid adherence to the laws, and their strict enforcement. U. S. GRANT.

Inaugural Address of President GRANT, *delivered March* 4, 1869.

Citizens of the United States:

Your suffrages having elected me to the office of President of the United States, I have, in conformity with the Constitution of our country, taken the oath of office prescribed therein. I have taken this oath without mental reservation, and with the determination to do to the best of my ability all that it requires of me. The responsibilities of the position I feel, but accept them without fear. The office has come to me unsought. I commence its duties untrammelled. I bring to it a conscientious desire and determination to fill it to the best of my ability to the satisfaction of the people.

On all leading questions agitating the public mind, I will always express my views to Congress, and urge them according to my judgment; and, when I think it advisable, will exercise the constitutional privilege of interposing a veto to defeat measures which I oppose. But all laws will be faithfully executed whether they meet my approval or not.

I shall, on all subjects, have a policy to recommend, but none to enforce against the will of the people. Laws are to govern all alike, those opposed, as well as those who favor them. I know no method to se-

cure the repeal of bad or obnoxious laws so effective as their stringent execution.

The country having just emerged from a great rebellion, many questions will come before it for settlement in the next four years, which preceding Administrations have never had to deal with. In meeting these, it is desirable that they should be approached calmly, without prejudice, hate, or sectional pride, remembering that the greatest good to the greatest number is the object to be attained.

This requires security of person, property, and for religious and political opinion, in every part of our common country, without regard to local prejudice. All laws to secure these ends will receive my best efforts for their enforcement.

A great debt has been contracted in securing to us and our posterity the Union; the payment of this, principal and interest, as well as the return to a specie basis, as soon as it can be accomplished without material detriment to the debtor class or to the country at large, must be provided for. To protect the national honor, every dollar of Government indebtedness should be paid in gold unless otherwise expressly stipulated in the contract. Let it be understood that no repudiator of one farthing of our public debt will be trusted in public place, and it will go far toward strengthening a credit which ought to be the best in the world, and will ultimately enable us to replace the debt with bonds bearing less interest than we now pay. To this should be added a faithful collection of the revenue, a strict accountability to the Treasury for every dollar collected, and the greatest practicable retrenchment in expenditure in every department of Government.

When we compare the paying capacity of the country now with the ten States in poverty from the effects of war, but soon to emerge, I trust, into greater prosperity than ever before, with its paying capacity twenty-five years ago, and calculate what it probably will be twenty-five years hence, who can doubt the feasibility of paying every dollar then with more ease than we now pay for useless luxuries? Why, it looks as though Providence had bestowed upon us a strong box in the precious metals locked up in the sterile mountains of the far West, of which we are now forging the key to unlock to meet the very contingency that is now upon us.

Ultimately it may be necessary to insure the facilities to reach these riches, and it may be necessary also that the General Government should give its aid to secure this access. But that should only be when a dollar of obligation to pay secures precisely the same sort of dollar to use now, and not before. While the question of specie payments is in abeyance, the prudent business man is careful about contracting debts payable in the distant future. The nation should follow the same rule. A prostrate commerce is to be rebuilt and all industries encouraged.

The young men of the country, those who from their age must be its rulers twenty-five years hence, have a peculiar interest in maintaining the national honor. A moment's reflection as to what will be our commanding influence among the nations of the earth in their day, if they are only true to themselves, should inspire them with national pride. All divisions, geographical, political, and religious, can join in this common sentiment. How the public debt is to be paid, or specie payments resumed, is not so important as that a plan should be adopted and acquiesced in.

A united determination to do is worth more than divided counsels upon the method of doing. Legislation upon this subject may not be necessary now, nor even advisable, but it will be when the civil law is more fully restored in all parts of the country, and trade resumes its wonted channels.

It will be my endeavor to execute all laws in good faith, to collect all revenues assessed, and to have them properly accounted for and economically disbursed. I will, to the best of my ability, appoint to office those only who will carry out this design.

In regard to foreign policy, I would deal with nations as equitable law requires individuals to deal with each other, and I would protect the law-abiding citizen, whether of native or foreign birth, wherever his rights are jeopardized or the flag of our country floats. I would respect the rights of all nations, demanding equal respect for our own. If others depart from this rule in their dealings with us, we may be compelled to follow their precedent.

The proper treatment of the original occupants of this land, the Indians, is one deserving of careful study. I will favor any course toward them which tends to their civilization and ultimate citizenship.

The question of suffrage is one which is likely to agitate the public so long as a portion of the citizens of the nation are excluded from its privileges in any State. It seems to me very desirable that this question should be settled now, and I entertain the hope and express the desire that it may be by the ratification of the fifteenth article of amendment to the Constitution.

In conclusion, I ask patient forbearance one toward another throughout the land, and a determined effort on the part of every citizen to do his share toward cementing a happy Union; and I ask the prayers of the nation to Almighty God in behalf of this consummation.

President GRANT'S *Proclamation for the Election in Virginia, May* 14, 1869.

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of Congress, approved April 10, 1869, I hereby designate the 6th day of July, 1869, as the time for submitting the constitution passed by the convention which met in Richmond, Virginia, on Tuesday, the 3d day of December, 1867, to the voters of said State registered at the date of such submission, viz., July 6, 1869, for ratification or rejection.

And I submit to a separate vote the fourth clause of section 1, article III., of said constitution, which is in the following words:

Every person who has been a Senator or representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or who held any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. This clause shall include the following officers: Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, auditor of public accounts, second auditor, register of the land-office, State treasurer, attorney-general, sheriff, sergeant of a city or town, commissioner of the revenue, county surveyor, constables, overseers of the poor, commissioner of the board of public works, judges of the supreme court, judges of the circuit court, judge of the court of hustings, justices of the county courts, mayor, recorder, aldermen, councilmen of a city or town, coroners, escheators, inspectors of tobacco, flour, etc., and clerks of the supreme, district, circuit, and county courts, and of the court of hustings, and attorneys for the Commonwealth; provided that the Legislature may, by a vote of three-fifths of both houses, remove the disabilities incurred by this clause from any person included therein, by a separate vote in each case.

And I also submit to a separate vote the 7th section of article III. of the said constitution, which is in the words following:

In addition to the foregoing oath of office, the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, members of the General Assembly, Secretary of State, auditor of public accounts, State treasurer, attorney-general, and all persons elected to any convention to frame a constitution

for this State, or to amend or revise this constitution in any manner, and the mayor and council in any city or town, shall, before they enter on the duties of their respective offices, take and subscribe to the following oath or affirmation, provided the disabilities therein contained may be individually removed by a three-fifths vote of the General Assembly: "I, ——, do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I have never voluntarily borne arms against the United States since I have been a citizen thereof; that I have voluntarily given no aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility thereto; that I have never sought or accepted, or attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever under any authority or pretended authority in hostility to the United States; that I have not yielded a voluntary support to any pretended government, authority, power, or constitution, within the United States, hostile or inimical thereto. And I do further swear (or affirm) that to the best of my knowledge and ability I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion, and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter, so help me God." The above oath shall also be taken by all the city and county officers before entering upon their duties, and by all other State officers not included in the above provision.

I direct the vote to be taken upon each of the above-cited provisions alone, and upon the other portions of the said constitution in the following manner, viz.:

Each voter favoring the ratification of the constitution (excluding the provisions above quoted) as framed by the convention of December 3, 1867, shall express his judgment by voting

FOR THE CONSTITUTION.

Each voter favoring the rejection of the constitution (excluding the provisions above quoted), shall express his judgment by voting

AGAINST THE CONSTITUTION.

Each voter will be allowed to cast a separate ballot for or against either or both of the provisions above quoted.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington this 14th day of May, in the year of our Lord 1869, and of
[SEAL.] the independence of the United States of America the ninety-third.

U. S. GRANT.

By the President:
HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

Respecting Wages of Labor, May 19, 1869.

Whereas, the act of Congress, approved June 25, 1868, constituted on and after that date eight hours a day's work for all laborers, workmen, and mechanics employed by or on behalf of the Government of the United States, and repealed all acts and parts of acts inconsistent therewith:

Now, therefore, I, Ulysses S. Grant, President of the United States, do hereby direct that, from and after this date, no reduction shall be made in the wages paid by the Government by the day to such laborers, workmen, and mechanics, on account of such reduction of the hours of labor.

In testimony whereof I have hereto set my hand, and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this 19th day of May, in the year of our Lord 1869, and of
[SEAL.] the independence of the United States the ninety-third.

U. S. GRANT.

By the President:
HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

Address of ANDREW JOHNSON *to the People of the United States.*

To the People of the United States:

The robe of office, by constitutional limitation, this day falls from my shoulders, to be immediately assumed by my successor. For him the forbearance and coöperation of the American people, in all his efforts to administer the Government within the pale of the Federal Constitution, are sincerely invoked. Without ambition to gratify, party ends to subserve, or personal quarrels to avenge at the sacrifice of the peace and welfare of the country, my earnest desire is to see the Constitution, as defined and limited by the fathers of the republic, again recognized and obeyed as the supreme law of the land, and the whole people—North, South, East, and West—prosperous and happy under its wise provisions.

In surrendering the high office to which I was called four years ago, at a memorable and terrible crisis, it is my privilege, I trust, to say to the people of the United States a few parting words, in vindication of an official course so ceaselessly assailed and aspersed by political leaders, to whose plans and wishes my policy to restore the Union has been obnoxious. In a period of difficulty and turmoil almost without precedent in the history of any people, consequent upon the closing scenes of a great rebellion and the assassination of the then President, it was, perhaps, too much, on my part, to expect of devoted partisans, who rode on the waves of excitement which at that time swept all before them, that degree of toleration and magnanimity which I sought to recommend and enforce, and which I believe in good time would have advanced us infinitely further on the road to permanent peace and prosperity than we have thus far attained. Doubtless had I at the commencement of my term of office unhesitatingly lent its powers or perverted them to purposes and plans "outside of the Constitution," and become an instrument to schemes of confiscation and of general and oppressive disqualifications, I would have been hailed as all that was true, loyal, and discerning; as the reliable head of a party, whatever I might have been as the Executive of the nation. Unwilling, however, to accede to propositions of extremists, and bound to adhere, at every personal hazard, to my oath to defend the Constitution, I need not, perhaps, be surprised at having met the fate of others whose only rewards for upholding constitutional right and law have been the consciousness of having attempted to do their duty, and the calm and unprejudiced judgment of history.

At the time a mysterious Providence assigned to me the office of President, I was, by the terms of the Constitution, the Commander-in-chief of nearly a million of men under arms. One of my first acts was to disband and restore to the vocations of civil life this immense host, and to divest myself, so far as I could, of the unparalleled powers then incident to the office and the times. Whether or not, in this step, I was right, and how far deserving the approbation of the people, all can now on reflection judge, when reminded of the ruinous condition of public affairs that must have resulted from the continuance in the military service of such a vast number of men.

The close of our domestic conflict found the army eager to distinguish itself in a new field, by an effort to punish European intervention in Mexico. By many it was believed and urged that, aside from the assumed justice of the proceeding, a foreign war, in which both sides would cheerfully unite to vindicate the honor of the national flag, and further illustrate the national prowess, would be the surest and speediest way of awakening national enthusiasm, reviving devotion to the Union, and occupying a force concerning which grave doubts existed as to its willingness, after four years of active campaigning, at once to return to the pursuits of peace. Whether these

speculations were true or false, it will be conceded that they existed, and that the predilections of the army were, for the time being, in the direction indicated. Taking advantage of this feeling, it would have been easy, as the Commander-in-chief of the army and navy, and with all the power and patronage of the presidential office at my disposal, to turn the concentrated military strength of the nation against French interference in Mexico, and to inaugurate a movement which would have been received with favor by the military and a large portion of the people.

It is proper, in this connection, that I should refer to the almost unlimited additional powers tendered to the Executive by the measures relating to civil rights and the Freedmen's Bureau. Contrary to most precedents in the experiences of public men, the powers thus placed within my grasp were declined, as in violation of the Constitution, dangerous to the liberties of the people, and tending to aggravate, rather than lessen, the discords naturally resulting from our civil war. With a large army and augmented authority, it would have been no difficult task to direct at pleasure the destinies of the republic, and to make secure my continuance in the highest office known to our laws.

Let the people whom I am addressing from the presidential chair during the closing hours of a laborious term consider how different would have been their present condition had I yielded to the dazzling temptation of foreign conquest, of personal aggrandizement, and the desire to wield additional power. Let them with justice consider that, if I have not unduly "magnified mine office," the public burdens have not been increased by my acts, and other and perhaps thousands or tens of thousands of lives sacrificed to visions of false glory.

It cannot, therefore, be charged that my ambition has been of that ordinary or criminal kind which, to the detriment of the people's rights and liberties, ever seeks to grasp more and unwarranted powers, and, to accomplish its purposes, panders too often to popular prejudices and party aims.

What, then, have been the aspirations which guided me in my official acts? Those acts need not, at this time, an elaborate explanation. They have been elsewhere comprehensively stated and fully discussed, and become a part of the nation's history. By them I am willing to be judged, knowing that, however imperfect, they at least show to the impartial mind that my sole ambition has been to restore the Union of the States, faithfully to execute the office of President, and, to the best of my ability, to preserve, protect, and defend the Constitution. I cannot be censured if my efforts have been impeded in the interests of party faction; and if a policy which was intended to reassure and conciliate the people of both sections of the country was made the occasion of inflaming and dividing still further those who, only recently in arms against each other, yet, as individuals and citizens, were sincerely desirous, as I shall ever believe, of burying all hostile feelings in the grave of the past. The bitter war was waged on the part of the Government to vindicate the Constitution and save the Union; and if I have erred in trying to bring about a more speedy and lasting peace, to extinguish heart-burnings and enmities, and to prevent troubles in the South which, retarding material prosperity in that region, injuriously affected the whole county, I am quite content to rest my case with the more deliberate judgment of the people, and, as I have already intimated, with the distant future.

The war, all must remember, was a stupendous and deplorable mistake. Neither side understood the other; and had this simple fact and its conclusions been kept in view, all that was needed was accomplished by the acknowledgment of the terrible wrong, and the expressed better feeling and earnest endeavor at atonement shown and felt in the prompt ratification of constitutional amendments by the Southern States at the close of the war. Not accepting the war as a confessed false step on the part of those who inaugurated it, was an error which now only time can cure, and which even at this late date we should endeavor to palliate. Experiencing, moreover, as all have done, the frightful cost of the arbitrament of the sword, let us, in the future, cling closer than ever to the Constitution as our only safeguard. It is to be hoped that not until the burdens now pressing upon us with such fearful weight are removed will our people forget the lessons of the war; and that, remembering them from whatever cause, peace between sections and States may be perpetual.

The history of late events in our country, as well as of the greatest governments of ancient and modern times, teaches that we have every thing to fear from a departure from the letter and spirit of the Constitution, and the undue ascendency of men allowed to assume power in what are considered desperate emergencies. Sylla, on becoming master of Rome, at once adopted measures to crush his enemies, and to consolidate the power of his party. He established military colonies throughout Italy; deprived of the full Roman franchise the inhabitants of the Italian towns who had opposed his usurpations; confiscated their lands, and gave them to his soldiers; and conferred citizenship upon a great number of slaves belonging to those who had proscribed him, thus creating at Rome a kind of bodyguard for his protection. After having given Rome over to slaughter, and tyrannized beyond all example over those opposed to him and the legions, his terrible instruments of wrong, Sylla could yet feel safe in laying down the ensigns of power so dreadfully abused, and in mingling freely with the families and friends of his myriad victims. The fear which he had inspired continued after his voluntary abdication, and even in retirement his will was law to a people who had permitted themselves to be enslaved. What, but a subtle knowledge and conviction that the Roman people had become changed, discouraged, and utterly broken in spirit, could have induced this daring assumption? What, but public indifference to consequences so terrible as to leave Rome open to every calamity which subsequently befell her, could have justified the conclusions of the dictator and tyrant in his startling experiment!

We find that, in the time which has since elapsed, human nature and exigencies in the Government have not greatly changed. Who, a few years past, in contemplating our future, could have supposed that in a brief period of bitter experience every thing demanded in the name of military emergency, or dictated by caprice, would come to be considered as mere matters of course; that conscription, confiscation, loss of personal liberty, the subjection of States to military rule, and disfranchisement, with the extension of the right of suffrage merely to accomplish party ends, would receive the passive submission, if not acquiescence, of the people of the republic!

It has been clearly demonstrated, by recent occurrences, that encroachments upon the Constitution cannot be prevented by the President alone, however devoted or determined he may be, and that, unless the people interpose, there is no power under the Constitution to check a dominant majority of two-thirds in the Congress of the United States. An appeal to the nation, however, is attended with too much delay to meet an emergency. While, if left free to act, the people would correct, in time, such evils as might follow legislative usurpation, there is danger that the same power which disregards the Constitution will deprive them of the right to change their rulers, except by revolution. We have already seen the jurisdiction of the judiciary circumscribed when it was apprehended that the courts would decide against laws having for their sole object the supremacy of party, while the veto-power, lodged in the

Executive by the Constitution for the interest and protection of the people, and exercised by Washington and his successors, has been rendered nugatory by a partisan majority of two-thirds in each branch of the national Legislature. The Constitution evidently contemplates that, when a bill is returned with the President's objections, it will be calmly reconsidered by Congress. Such, however, has not been the practice under present party rule. It has become evident that men who pass a bill under partisan influences are not likely, through patriotic motives, to admit their error, and thereby weaken their own organizations by solemnly confessing it under an official oath. Pride of opinion, if nothing else, has intervened, and prevented a calm and dispassionate reconsideration of a bill disapproved by the Executive.

Much as I venerate the Constitution, it must be admitted that this condition of affairs has developed a defect which, under the aggressive tendency of the legislative department of the Government, may readily work its overthrow. It may, however, be remedied, without disturbing the harmony of the instrument.

The veto-power is generally exercised upon constitutional grounds, and whenever it is so applied, and the bill returned with the Executive's reasons for withholding his signature, it ought to be immediately certified to the Supreme Court of the United States for its decision. If its constitutionality shall be declared by that tribunal, it should then become a law; but, if the decision is otherwise, it should fail, without power in Congress to reënact and make it valid.

In cases in which the veto rests upon hasty and inconsiderate legislation, and in which no constitutional question is involved, I would not change the fundamental law; for in such cases no permanent evil can be incorporated into the Federal system.

It is obvious that, without such an amendment, the Government, as it existed under the Constitution prior to the rebellion, may be wholly subverted and overthrown by a two-thirds majority in Congress. It is not, therefore, difficult to see how easily and how rapidly the people may lose—shall I not say have lost?—their liberties by an unchecked and uncontrollable majority in the law-making power; and, when once deprived of their rights, how powerless they are to regain them.

Let us turn for a moment to the history of the majority in Congress, which has acted in such utter disregard of the Constitution. While public attention has been carefully and constantly turned to the past and expiated sins of the South, the servants of the people, in high places, have boldly betrayed their trust, broken their oaths of obedience to the Constitution, and undermined the very foundations of liberty, justice, and good government. When the rebellion was being suppressed by the volunteered services of patriot soldiers amid the dangers of the battle-field, these men crept, without question, into place and power in the national councils. After all dangers had passed, when no armed foe remained, when a punished and repentant people bowed their heads to the flag and renewed their allegiance to the Government of the United States, then it was that pretended patriots appeared before the nation and began to prate about the thousands of lives and millions of treasure sacrificed in the suppression of the rebellion. They have since persistently sought to inflame the prejudices engendered between the sections, to retard the restoration of peace and harmony, and by every means to keep open and exposed to the poisonous breath of party passion the terrible wounds of a four-years' war. They have prevented the return of peace and the restoration of the Union, in every way rendered delusive the purposes, promises, and pledges by which the army was marshalled, treason rebuked, and rebellion crushed, and made the liberties of the people and the rights and powers of the President objects of constant attack. They have wrested from the President his constitutional power of supreme command of the Army and Navy. They have destroyed the strength and efficiency of the Executive Department by making subordinate officers independent of and able to defy their chief. They have attempted to place the President under the power of a bold, defiant, and treacherous Cabinet officer. They have robbed the Executive of the prerogative of pardon, rendered null and void acts of clemency granted to thousands of persons under the provisions of the Constitution, and committed gross usurpation by legislative attempts to exercise this power in favor of party adherents. They have conspired to change the system of our Government by preferring charges against the President in the form of articles of impeachment, and contemplating, before hearing or trial, that he should be placed in arrest, held in durance, and, when it became their pleasure to pronounce his sentence, driven from place and power in disgrace. They have in time of peace increased the national debt by a reckless expenditure of the public moneys, and thus added to the burdens which already weigh upon the people. They have permitted the nation to suffer the evils of a deranged currency, to the enhancement in price of all the necessaries of life. They have maintained a large standing army for the enforcement of their measures of oppression. They have engaged in class legislation, and built up and encouraged monopolies, that the few might be enriched at the expense of the many. They have failed to act upon important treaties, thereby endangering our present peaceful relations with foreign powers.

Their course of usurpation has not been limited to inroads upon the Executive Department.

By unconstitutional and oppressive enactments, the people of ten States of the Union have been reduced to a condition more intolerable than that from which the patriots of the Revolution rebelled. Millions of American citizens can now say of their oppressors, with more truth than our fathers did of British tyrants, that they have "forbidden the governors to pass laws of immediate and pressing importance, unless suspended until their assent should be obtained;" that they have "refused to pass other laws for the accommodation of large districts of people, unless those people would relinquish the right of representation in the Legislature—a right inestimable to them, and formidable to tyrants only;" that they have "made judges dependent upon their will alone for the tenure of their offices, and the amount and payment of their salaries;" that they have "erected a multitude of new offices, and sent hither swarms of officers to harass our people and eat out their substance;" that they have "affected to render the military independent of and superior to the civil power," "combined with others to subject us to a jurisdiction foreign to our Constitution, and unacknowledged by our laws," "quartered large bodies of armed troops among us," "protected them by a mock trial from punishment for any murders which they should commit on the inhabitants of these States," imposed "taxes upon us without our consent," deprived us in many cases of the benefit of trial by jury," "taken away our charters, excited domestic insurrection among us, abolished our most valuable laws, altered fundamentally the forms of our Government, suspended our own Legislatures, and declared themselves invested with power to legislate for us in all cases whatsoever."

This catalogue of crimes, long as it is, is not yet complete. The Constitution vests the judicial power of the United States "in one Supreme Court," whose jurisdiction "shall extend to all cases arising under this Constitution" and "the laws of the United States." Encouraged by this promise of a refuge from tyranny, a citizen of the United States, who, by the order of a military commander, given under the sanction of a cruel and deliberate edict of Congress, had been denied the constitutional rights of liberty

of conscience, freedom of the press and of speech, personal freedom from military arrest, of being held to answer for crime only upon presentment and indictment, of trial by jury, of the writ of *habeas corpus*, and the protection of civil and constitutional government—a citizen, thus deeply wronged, appeals to the Supreme Court for the protection guaranteed to him by the organic law of the land. At once a fierce and excited majority, by the ruthless hand of legislative power, stripped the ermine from the judges, transferred the sword of justice to the general, and remanded the oppressed citizen to a degradation and bondage worse than death.

It will also be recorded as one of the marvels of the times, that a party claiming for itself a monopoly of consistency and patriotism, and boasting, too, of its unlimited sway, endeavored, by a costly and deliberate trial, to impeach one who defended the Constitution and the Union not only throughout the war of the rebellion, but during his whole term of office as Chief Magistrate; but, at the same time, could find no warrant or means at their command to bring to trial even the chief of the rebellion. Indeed, the remarkable failures in his case were so often repeated that, for propriety's sake if for no other reason, it became at last necessary to extend to him an unconditional pardon. What more plainly than this illustrates the extremity of party management and inconsistency on the one hand, and of faction, vindictiveness, and intolerance, on the other? Patriotism will hardly be encouraged when, in such a record, it sees that its instant reward may be the most virulent party abuse and obloquy, if not attempted disgrace. Instead of seeking to "make treason odious," it would, in truth, seem to have been their purpose rather to make the defence of the Constitution and the Union a crime, and to punish fidelity to an oath of office, if counter to party dictation, by all the means at their command.

Happily for the peace of the country, the war has determined against the assumed power of the States to withdraw at pleasure from the Union. The institution of slavery also found its destruction in a rebellion commenced in its interest. It should be borne in mind, however, that the war neither impaired nor destroyed the Constitution, but, on the contrary, preserved its existence, and made apparent its real power and enduring strength. All the rights granted to the States, or reserved to the people thereof, remain therefore intact. Among those rights is that of the people of each State to declare the qualifications of their own State electors. It is now assumed that Congress can control this vital right, which can never be taken away from the States without impairing the fundamental principles of the Government itself. It is necessary to the existence of the States, as well as to the protection of the liberties of the people; for the right to select the elector in whom the political power of a State shall be lodged, involves the right of the State to govern itself. When deprived of this prerogative, the States will have no power worth retaining; all will be gone, and they will be subjected to the arbitrary will of Congress. The Government will then be centralized, if not by the passage of laws, then by the adoption, through partisan influence, of an amendment directly in conflict with the original design of the Constitution. This proves how necessary it is that the people should require the administration of the three great departments of the Government strictly within the limitations of the Constitution. Their boundaries have been accurately defined, and neither should be allowed to trespass upon the other, nor, above all, to encroach upon the reserved rights of the people and the States. The troubles of the past four years will prove to the nation blessings if they produce so desirable a result.

Upon those who became young men amid the sound of cannon and din of arms, and quietly returned to the farms, the factories, and the schools of the land, will principally devolve the solemn duty of perpetuating the Union of the States, in defence of which hundreds of thousands of their comrades expired, and hundreds of millions of national obligations were incurred. A manly people will not neglect the training necessary to resist aggression, but they should be jealous lest the civil be made subordinate to the military element. We need to encourage, in every legitimate way, a study of the Constitution for which the war was waged, a knowledge of and reverence for whose wise checks by those so soon to occupy the places filled by their seniors, will be the only hope of preserving the republic. The young men of the nation, not yet under the control of party, must resist the tendency to centralization—an outgrowth of the great rebellion—and be familiar with the fact that the country consists of united States, and that, when the States surrendered certain great rights for the sake of a more perfect union, they retained rights as valuable and important as those which they relinquished for the common weal.

This sound old doctrine, far different from the teachings that led to the attempt to secede, and a kindred theory that States were taken out of the Union by the rash acts of conspirators that happened to dwell within their borders, must be received and advocated with the enthusiasm of early manhood, or the people will be ruled by corrupt combinations of the commercial centres, who, plethoric from wealth, annually migrate to the capital of the nation to purchase special legislation. Until the representatives of the people in Congress more fully exhibit the diverse views and interests of the whole nation, and laws cease to be made without full discussion at the behest of some party leader, there will never be a proper respect shown by the law-making power either to the judicial or executive branch of the Government. The generation just beginning to use the ballot-box, it is believed, only need that their attention should be called to these considerations to indicate, by their votes, that they wish their representatives to observe all the restraints which the people, in adopting the Constitution, intended to impose upon party excess.

Calmly reviewing my administration of the Government, I feel that, with a sense of accountability to God, having conscientiously endeavored to discharge my whole duty, I have nothing to regret. Events have proved the correctness of the policy set forth in my first and subsequent messages; the woes which have followed the rejection of forbearance, magnanimity, and constitutional rule, are known and deplored by the nation.

It is a matter of pride and gratification, in retiring from the most exalted position in the gift of a free people, to feel and know that in a long, arduous, and eventful public life, my action has never been influenced by desire for gain, and that I can, in all sincerity, inquire, "Whom have I defrauded? whom have I oppressed? or off whose hand have I received any bribe to blind my eyes therewith?" No responsibility for wars that have been waged or blood that has been shed rests upon me. My thoughts have been those of peace, and my effort has ever been to allay contentions among my countrymen.

Forgetting the past, let us return to the first principles of the Government, and, unfurling the banner of our country, inscribe upon it, in ineffaceable characters, "The Constitution and the Union, one and inseparable."

ANDREW JOHNSON.

WASHINGTON, *March* 4, 1869.

The following documents relate to the session of the first Council of the Vatican, and the regulation of its business, with the allocution of Pope Pius IX. on the opening of the same:

Allocution addressed in a General Congregation before the first Session of the Vatican Council by Pius IX., December 2, 1869, to the Bishops assembled in Rome for the said Council:

VENERABLE BRETHREN: On the eve of the day on which we are to open the holy Œcumenical Council, nothing has appeared to us more seasonable, nothing could be more pleasing to us, than to see you all met together around us, venerable brethren, as we so much desire to see you, and to be able to speak to you with all the affection which fills our inmost heart. For since the matter of which we have to treat is most important, namely, the discovery of remedies for so many ills which in these days disturb both Christian and civil society, we have deemed it worthy of our apostolical care, and befitting the greatness of our task, that, before the transaction of the affairs of the Council begins, we should beg of God, on your behalf, as a pledge of every grace, the aid of the Heavenly benediction; and we have judged it necessary to give you the rules, as set forth and published in our apostolical letters, which we have decided on establishing for the right and orderly transaction of every thing in the proceedings of the Council. This it is, venerable brethren, which, with the favor of God, and of the Immaculate Mother of God, upon our wishes, we are to-day carrying out in this your solemn assembly; nor can we sufficiently express to you in words the great consolation which this hoped-for readiness of your arrival in such numbers, in due obedience to the apostolic voice, fills our heart, since from all parts of the Catholic world we see you hastening to this city of Rome on account of the Council we have summoned, and feel that you are united to us by the highest agreement of your souls, together with an excellent devotion toward us and toward the Apostolic See, and a wonderful ardor for the work of the kingdom of Christ, while the patient suffering of tribulations, for the sake of Christ, renders many of you most dear to our heart. But, venerable brothers, this your union with us is so much the more pleasing to us because, in clinging thereto, we tread in the footsteps of the Apostles, who have left us brilliant examples of their unanimous and constant union with the Divine Master. For you have learned from Holy Scripture that, when Christ our Lord was going a journey through cities and towns in Palestine, preaching and proclaiming the kingdom of God, all the Apostles with a like zeal kept close to His side, and, as St. Luke says, the twelve were faithfully with Him wherever He went. And this union of the Apostles was even more strikingly manifested at the time when the Heavenly Master was teaching in Capernaum, and spoke more in detail before the Hebrews of the mystery of the Divine Eucharist; for when those people in their carnal and blunted senses could not believe in a work of so much love, and showed themselves so weary of the Master that, as St. John testifies, many of the disciples went back and walked with Him no more, yet the love of the Apostles remained steadfast in obedient veneration of the Master, and when Jesus asked the Apostles whether they also would go away, Peter, being grieved, uttered these words, "Lord, to whom shall we go?" and added the reason why he had determined to follow the Lord with constant fidelity: "Thou hast the words of eternal life." Remembering these things, what ought we to think sweeter or more pleasant than this our assembly? What can we see more firm and stable? Although united in the name of Christ, we shall certainly have contradictions and struggles to undergo, the enemy will not be idle, for he desires nothing more than to sow cockles; but we, being mindful of the apostolic firmness and constancy which received from the Lord the reward of this praise, "You are they who have remained with Me in My trials," mindful also of our Redeemer, who declared plainly, "He who is not with Me is against Me," we shall have in like manner to be mindful of our office, and with all zeal to take care to follow Christ with unshaken faith and firmness, and to remain attached to Him always with minds of one accord. For the position we, venerable brethren, are placed in is, that we have to struggle with daily efforts in battle array against numerous and most fierce enemies. We must, therefore, employ the spiritual arms of our warfare, and bear the whole strength of the battle, relying both on the Divine authority, and using the shield of charity, of patience, of prayer, and of constancy. But there is no fear lest we fail in this contest, if we are determined to fix our eyes and our minds upon the Author and Finisher of our faith. For, if the Apostles derived sufficient courage and strength to bear bravely all adversity by fixing their eyes and their thoughts upon Christ, we also, looking upon Him in the saving pledge of our redemption, shall find in the divine virtue of this sight such strength and power that we shall overcome the slanders, the insults, and the devices of our enemies, and we shall draw with joy, from the cross of Christ, salvation for ourselves and also for many unhappy wanderers from the way of truth. But it is not enough to look upon our Redeemer; we must also put on such teachableness of mind that we may readily listen to Him with all our hearts. This it is indeed which the Heavenly Father Himself ordered by the authority of His Majesty, when Christ the Lord revealed His glory on the high mountain before chosen witnesses, and He said: "This is My beloved Son in whom I am well pleased, hear ye Him;" therefore we must with humble obedience of the mind listen to Jesus in every thing, and especially in that which He had Himself so much at heart, when, foreseeing the difficulties which would befall His disciples, He did not fail ardently and repeatedly to pray to His Father in the Last Supper, "Holy Father, preserve in Thy name those whom Thou hast given to Me, so that they may be one, even as We are one." Therefore, let one soul with one heart be in all. Truly we cannot have a greater consolation than if we continually yield the obedient hearing of the heart to the teachings of Christ; for thereby we shall know that we are with Christ, and we shall find in ourselves an evident pledge of eternal salvation, for he who is of God heareth God's word.

May the Almighty and Merciful God, with His powerful help, through the intercession of the Immaculate Mother of God, confirm these words of pontifical exhortation which we have drawn from the bottom of our heart, and may He graciously cause them to bring forth plenteous fruits. Lastly, may He turn His face upon you, venerable brethren, and fill both your bodies and your souls with the favor of His blessing; your bodies, indeed, so that you may have strength to bear, diligently and readily, all those labors from which your sacred functions cannot be free; your souls, in order that you may be filled with heavenly assistance, and may excel in examples of priestly life and in the splendor of all virtues, for the salvation of the Christian flock. And may the grace of this blessing be with you continually, and mercifully inspire all the days of your life, so that your days may be found full—full of holiness and of justice, full of the fruits of holy works in which our true riches and glory consist. Thus also may it happily be our lot that, when the course of our mortal pilgrimage is completed, we may not fear on that last day of life to say with the prophet-king, "I rejoiced in this which was said to me, we will go to the house of the Lord," and that we may surely trust to find the way open to us to the fountain of Zion, to the Heavenly Jerusalem.

Apostolic Letter of Pope Pius IX., prescribing the General Order to be followed in the Deliberations of the First Œcumenical Council of the Vatican.

PIUS IX., POPE,

Ad futuram rei memoriam.

In the midst of the numerous anguishes to which we are a prey, we are principally inclined to render thanks to the divine mercy which "comforteth us in all our tribulations,"* for it is that mercy which, after inspiring us with the thought of convoking this general and Œcumenical Holy Council, will permit us to inaugurate it happily. We rejoice in the Lord, with good cause, for commencing the salutary reunions of this Council on the solemn day of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary, and under her powerful and motherly auspices, and in our Vatican basilica, and before the ashes of the blessed Peter, who, "persevering in the solidity of the rock, preserves, with the government of the Church which was handed him, the solicitude of all the pastors and the keeping of all the sheep which were intrusted to him."†

As we do not lose sight of the fact that this Council was convoked by us in order that the cares of the holy pontiffs of the Church should be joined to ours, for the purpose of extirpating the errors which have sprung from the impiety of the present age, to remove the evils which afflict the Church, to correct morals and to restore the discipline of the two clergies; as we know with how much zeal, how much attention and solicitude we must provide for the regulating, in conformity with holy discipline and the maxims of the ancestors, of all that concerns the management, government, and execution of this important affair, for these motives, in the name of our apostolic authority, we decree what follows, and we order that it shall be executed by every one in this Council of the Vatican.

I.

OF THE CONDUCT TO BE HELD DURING THE COUNCIL.

The thought that "every best gift and every perfect gift is from above, coming down from the Father of lights,"‡ that nothing agrees better with the goodness of the heavenly Father than giving "the good Spirit to them that ask for it,"§ this thought has held us, when we opened to the faithful of Christ, on the occasion of the Council, the treasures of the Church, by our apostolic letters dated the 11th of April of this year, not only to exhort these same faithful to purify "their consciences from dead works to serve the living God,"‖ by multiplying their prayers, their supplications, their fasting, and other pious exercises, but also to order that the holy sacrifice of the Mass should be celebrated every day in the Catholic world to beseech the light and assistance of the Spirit of God, with the object of obtaining from the Lord the happy conclusion of this Council and fruits of salvation for the Church.

We now renew and confirm these exhortations and prescriptions, ordering moreover that in the churches of this noble city of Rome, during the whole duration of the Council, the litanies and other prayers will be recited for this object, on every Sunday, at the hours the most convenient to the faithful people.

But the bishops and other persons of the priestly order who will celebrate the Council must do something better and more excellent. Ministers of Christ, dispensers of the mysteries of God, they must "give in every thing the example of good works, in doctrine, in integrity, in gravity, uttering only wholesome and irreprehensible words, in such manner that our adversaries shall fear to speak ill of us."¶ Resting upon the ancient Councils, and particularly upon that of Trent, we exhort them all in the Lord to apply themselves with care, each according to his piety, to prayer, to the reading of holy books, to meditation upon heavenly things, in order to celebrate as often as possible, with a pure and chaste heart, the holy sacrifice of the Mass, to guard their souls from all human care, to preserve modesty in morals, temperance at meals, the religious spirit in all their acts. Far from us discord, jealousy, and culpable intentions; let the first of virtues, charity, reign everywhere, so that it may be said of this holy assembly of the bishops of the Church: "How good, how sweet it is for brothers to dwell together!"* Finally, let the Fathers watch over the people of their households, let them prescribe for them a Christian discipline, a holy life, for they are not ignorant of the grave words of the Apostle Paul to the bishops when he prescribes to them to rule well their own house.†

II.

OF THE RIGHT AND MODE OF PROPOSITIONS.

Although the right and charge of preparing the matters which shall be treated in the holy Œcumenical Council, and of asking the advice of the fathers, belong only to us and to this Apostolic See, we do not, however, confine ourselves to wish, but we urge all the Fathers of the Council who may have something to prepare concerning the general interest to do so in liberty. But, as it does not escape us that this faculty, unless exercised at the proper time and in a suitable manner, would prejudice not a little the order which must preside at the acts of the Council, we decree that these propositions shall be made in the following conditions: 1. They shall be put down in writing and submitted separately to a special congregation composed of both our venerable brethren, the cardinals of the holy Roman Church, and the Fathers of the Council, and which shall be instituted by us; 2. They must relate really to the general good of Christendom, and not solely to the particular advantage of such or such diocese; 3. They will be accompanied with a statement of the motives of utility or opportunity which shall have determined their authors to produce them; 4. They shall contain nothing in opposition to the constant sentiment of the Church and her inviolable traditions.

The special congregation which shall have received propositions shall examine the same diligently, and shall submit to our judgment its advice for the admission or rejection, in order that we, after mature deliberation, may decide whether they must be submitted to the synod.

III.

OF THE SECRECY TO BE PRESERVED IN THE COUNCIL.

Prudence compels us to prescribe for all the acts of the Council the law of secrecy, which has had to be enforced more than once in preceding Councils on account of the circumstances. This precaution seems more necessary than ever in a time when impiety, become so powerful, watches every opportunity for inciting to animadversion against the Catholic Church and her doctrine. In consequence, we forbid all and each of the Fathers, officers of the Council, theologians, canonists, and whosoever will assist in any manner the Fathers and officers in the matters of the Council, to reveal or make known: any one whatsoever, out of the Council, the decrees and all that shall be proposed for examination, as well as the discussions and the advices of the members. We order, moreover, that the officers of the Council, who are not clothed with the episcopal dignity, and all others who, having received from us a special mission, will have, in order to fulfil their office, to assist at the deliberations of the Council, shall take an oath to fulfil faithfully their duties, and to preserve the faith of secrecy concerning all that has been specified above, and all other matters that may be confided to them.

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* 2 Corinth., i. 4.
† S. Leo; 6 Sermo 2 in anniv. Assumpt. sue.
‡ James i. 17. § Luke xi. 13.
‖ Ep. ad Hebrs. ix. 14. ¶ Ep. ad Tit. ii. 7.

* Ps. cxxxii. 1. † 1 Timoth. iii. 4.

IV.

OF THE ORDER OF PRECEDENCE AND OF THE RIGHTS OF OTHERS TO BE PROTECTED.

As it is of great importance, for the tranquillity and good accord of minds, that each should preserve scrupulously and with modesty, in all the acts of the Council, the rank which becomes his dignity; and to cut short, as much as possible, all occasions of giving offence, we decree that all shall conform to the following order, according to the various dignities:

The first rank belongs to our venerable brethren, the cardinals of the holy Roman Church, bishops, priests, or deacons. The second, to the patriarchs; the third, by a special favor which we confer on them, to the primates, according to the order of their promotion. This concession is made only for this once, and will confer no right to the primates, nor prejudice the rights of others. The fourth rank will be reserved to the archbishops, according to the order of their promotion to the archiepiscopacy; the fifth, to the bishops, all according to the order of promotion; the sixth, to the abbots *nullius;* the seventh, to the general abbots and other superior-generals of the religious orders where solemn vows are made, even when they have only the title of vicars-general, provided that they exercise really a legitimate authority upon all their order with all the rights and privileges of a superior-general.

Otherwise, we decide, conformably to the discipline and the rules of the preceding Councils, that if it should happen, perchance, that some members should not sit in the place belonging to them, should express their opinion, even by the word *placet*, should assist at the congregations, or, in a word, should take part in any act of the Council during its sessions, no prejudice to any one, nor any new right, would result therefrom.

V.

OF THE JUDGES OF EXCUSES AND CONTESTS.

In order that the examination of the more serious matters with which the very holy Synod shall be occupied in every manner should be as little trammelled or delayed as possible by the taking up of cases concerning private individuals: We have resolved that the Synod should elect, by secret ballot, five of the Fathers of the Council, to *judge of the excuses*, who will receive and weigh, according to the rule of the discipline of the Councils and of the sacred canons, the procurations and excuses of the absent prelates, as well as the petitions of those who, before the closing of the Council, may think they have good reasons to retire. However, these judges will not decide upon these matters; they will refer them to the general congregation. We have resolved, moreover, that the same Synod should elect, by secret ballot, five other Fathers to judge the contests and difficulties relating to precedence. If these judges should not succeed in ending by a summary and *economical* judgment, as it is styled, all the contests relating to the order of sitting, the rights of precedence or other claims, if there should arise any among the assembled Fathers, they will submit them to the authority of the general congregation.

VI.

OF THE OFFICERS OF THE COUNCIL.

As it is of the highest importance that necessary and apt ministers and officers should be designated, in conformity with custom and the discipline of Councils, as all the acts of this synod should be made according to all the rules, we, keeping account of these sorts of ministers, do select and appoint;

1. General custodians of the Council: our beloved sons John Collonna and Dominic Orsini, Roman princes assisting at our pontifical throne.

2. Secretary of the Council: our venerable brother Joseph, Bishop of St. Hyppolite, to whom we adjoin, with the office and title of under-secretary, our beloved son Louis Jacobini, prothonotary apostolic, and in the capacity of coadjutors, our beloved sons Canons Camillo Santori and Angelo Jacobini.

3. Notaries of the Council: our beloved sons Luke Pacifici, Louis Colombo, John Simeoni, Louis Pericoli, and Domini Bartolini, to whom we adjoin our dear sons Salvator Pallotini and Francis Santi, advocates, who will assist the said notaries.

4. Scrutators: Our beloved sons Louis Serafini and Francis Nardi, auditors apostolic: Louis Pellegrini and Leonard Dialti, clerks of the apostolic Chambers; Charles Cristofori and Alexander Montani, voters at the signatures of Justice; Frederic de Falloux du Coudray, regent of our apostolic chancery, and Lawrence Nina, abbreviator of the major Park. These eight scrutators will collect the votes in the following manner: four will go over the left side of the court of the Council, walking two by two and accompanied by two notaries; the other four will do the same on the right side.

5. Promoters of the Council: Our beloved sons John Baptist de Dominicis Tosti, and Philip Rolli, attorney of the Sacred Consistory.

6. Masters of Ceremonies of the Council: our beloved sons Louis Ferrari, prefect of our household, and Pius Martinucci, Camillo Balestra, Remi Ricci, Joseph Romagnoli, Peter-Joseph Rinaldi Bucci, Anthony Cataldi, Alexander Tortoli, Augustin Accoramboni, Louis Sinistri, Francis Riggi, Anthony Gattoni, Balthazar Baccinetti, Cesar Togni, Roch Mass.

7. Our officers of ceremonies, charged with designating the seats of the members, our beloved sons Henry Folchi, prefect, and Louis Naselli, Edmund Stonor, Paul Bastide, Louis Pallotti, our secret chamberlains, and our beloved sons Scipio Perilli, Gustavus Gallot, Francis Reguany, Nicolas Vorsak and Philip Silvestri, our honorary chamberlains.

VII.

OF THE GENERAL CONGREGATIONS OF FATHERS.

Arriving now at what concerns the order of the general congregations, we have resolved and decided that five of our venerable brethren, cardinals of the holy Roman Church, will preside in our name and with our authority the same congregations of Fathers which precede the public sessions; and, in consequence, we select and appoint our venerable brother Charles de Reisach, Cardinal of the holy Roman Church, Bishop of Sabine; our beloved sons the cardinals of the order of priests, Anthony de Lucca, of the title of the Four-Crowned Saints; Joseph Andre Bizzarri, of the title of St. Jerome of the Illyrians; Louis Bilio, of the title of St. Laurence *in Panisperna*, and our beloved son, the Cardinal of the order of Deacons, Annibal Capalti.

These presidents, in addition to what concerns the direction of the congregations, will take care, in matters to be discussed, that the discussion of those relating to faith shall be the first to begin with; they will be at liberty, afterward, when they may deem it opportune, to carry the consultations upon questions of faith or discipline.

But, as, since the time when we gave our letters apostolic of indiction to this Council, we have taken care to call to Rome from various parts of the Catholic universe theologians and ecclesiastical jurisconsults, in order that they should prepare, with others of this city and with men thoroughly versed in the same sciences, that which tends to the object of this general Synod, and thus facilitate the examination of those matters by the Fathers, we desire and order that the projects of decrees and canons drawn up and written by these same men, and by us reserved such as they are, and not invested with our approbation, to the knowledge of the Fathers, be submitted to the examination and judgment of the same Fathers assembled in general congregation.

For this reason, the presidents herein above designated will take care that the propositions of the decrees and canons to be acted upon by the announced congregation be printed and distributed,

some days in advance, to each of the Fathers, in order that the latter, during that interval of time, may examine them with care in all their parts and reflect maturely upon the decision to be rendered. If one of the Fathers should wish to speak in the congregation upon the article proposed, it will be necessary, in order to preserve among the speakers the proper order with regard to the dignity of each one, that he shall make it known to the president, one day at least previous to the session in which he intends to speak.—After hearing the remarks of the Fathers, if others wish still to discuss the question in the same session, they will be free to do so after having first obtained the authorization of the president, and observing the order claimed by the dignity of the speakers.

If the proposition brought before the congregation should present no difficulty, or only slight difficulties, easily solved, during the session, then there will be nothing to prevent that, the doubts being elucidated, the form of decree or canon of the Council in question should be adopted by taking the votes of the Fathers. If, on the contrary, the said proposition should give rise to difficulties of such a nature that, contradictory opinions having been expressed, it should be found impossible to come to an agreement during the session, then recourse must be had to the mode herein above established by us for the settlement of this sort of matters in a permanent and proper manner. We prescribe that, from the very beginning of the Council, there shall be instituted four special and distinct congregations or delegations of Fathers, the first of which will occupy itself with, and treat, during the whole duration of the Council, matters concerning faith; the second, questions of ecclesiastical discipline; the third, questions interesting the religious orders; the fourth, finally, the matters of the Eastern rite. Each of these congregations will be composed of twenty-five Fathers, elected by the Fathers of the Council, by secret ballot.

Each of these congregations or delegations shall have at its head one of our venerable brothers the cardinals of the holy Roman Church, appointed by us, who will call, for the wants of the congregation, one or more of the theologians or canonists of the Council, and, from among these, will designate one who shall perform the functions of secretary of the said congregation. If, therefore, it should happen, as we have said before, that a question raised in the general congregation about some proposed decision cannot be settled, then the cardinals, presidents of this general congregation, will see that the proposition in question, together with the difficulties to which it has given rise, be submitted to the examination of such of these especial congregations, to whose competence it may appertain, according to the matters assigned to each of them. After the question shall have been deliberated in this congregation, the printed report thereof will be distributed to the Fathers of the Council, according to the order prescribed above by us, in order that in the next general congregation, if no new obstacle presents itself, the form of the decree or canon of the Council may be adopted after taking the votes of the Fathers. But the votes of the Fathers will be expressed verbally, in such a way that they may have full liberty to pronounce them even by reading them aloud.

VIII.

OF PUBLIC SESSIONS.

The celebration of public sessions requires that we should see to regulate in a proper and methodical manner their operations and acts. Therefore, in every public session, the Fathers being seated, each in his rank and place, and the ceremonies contained in the ritual instructions which have been handed them by our order being ended, the text of the propositions of decrees and canons adopted in the general congregations hereinabove designated shall be read by our order, in a loud and intelligible voice, in the following order: The canons on dogmas of faith will be announced first, then the disciplinary decrees, making use of the solemn formula which it has been customary with our predecessors to use, to wit: "Pius, bishop, servant of the servants of God, with the approbation of the Council, for the perpetual memory of the matter." The Fathers will then be asked whether the canons and decrees that have been read meet with their assent, and immediately the scrutators of votes will come forward and will note exactly those votes, which must be collected one at a time, according to the manner prescribed above. We declare that these votes must be expressed by these words: *placet* or *non placet*. We decree at the same time, that it will not be permitted to the Fathers who may be absent from the session, for any cause whatsoever, to send in their vote in writing. The votes having been collected, the secretary of the Council, with the scrutators hereinbefore designated, will commence classing and counting the votes before our pontifical chair, and will report the result to us. We will then render our supreme sentence, and will order that it be promulgated and published in this solemn form: "These decrees have been approved by all the Fathers, unanimously (or, if there have been any opponents), with the exception of so many votes: and we, with the approbation of the holy Council, order, decree, and sanction that the same be read." These formalities being accomplished, the promoters of the Council will require the prothonotaries present to draw up one or more proces-verbals of all and every thing accomplished during the session. Finally, the day of the next session having been announced by our order, the assembly will be adjourned.

IX.

THAT NO ONE SHOULD WITHDRAW FROM THE COUNCIL.

Under the penalties prescribed by the holy canons, we forbid all the Fathers of the Council and all other persons who are obliged to attend it to withdraw therefrom, before this holy, general, and Œcumenical Council of the Vatican shall be duly and regularly closed and dismissed by us, unless a just cause of departure shall have been presented and proved conformably to the rule hereinbefore established, and the permission to depart obtained from us.

X.

APOSTOLIC INDULT ON THE NON-RESIDENCE OF THOSE WHO ATTEND THE COUNCIL.

As all those who are obliged to assist at the acts of the Council are in the service of the universal Church, following the example of our predecessors,* we order, by virtue of the apostolic goodness, that all the prelates and other dignitaries having right to a vote in the Council, and all other persons who take part in it, by whatever title, may receive the fruits, income, daily production and distributions of their livings, excepting only the distributions made, as it is styled, between presents; and we make this concession for all the time of the Council, in so far as the persons above designated shall remain or take part in it.

We prescribe and order that our present Letters, and all the prescriptions therein contained, be inviolably observed in this coming and very holy Œcumenical Council by all and each of those they may concern; notwithstanding the opposition of any one, even of those who should be especially and individually designated.

Given in Rome, at St. Peter's, under the seal of the fisherman, the 27th of November, 1869, in the twenty-fourth year of our pontificate.

N CARD. PARACCIANI CLARELLI.

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* Paul III., Brief of January 1, 1546. Pius IV., Brief of November 26, 1561.

Allocution pronounced in the Vatican Basilica at the opening of the Œcumenical Council by Pope Pius IX., on the 8th day of December, 1869.

To the Bishops of the Catholic World in the same Council assembled.

VENERABLE BRETHREN: What by all our vows and prayers we have been continually begging of God, that, namely, we should be enabled to celebrate with you the Œcumenical Council which we had summoned; this has, by the marked and singular goodness of God Himself, been granted to us, and fills us with the utmost joy. Wherefore our heart exults in the Lord, and is filled with unspeakable consolation, for that on this most auspicious day, hallowed by the memory of the Immaculate Conception of the Virgin Mary Mother of God, we again see you before us in greater numbers than heretofore, present in this stronghold of the Catholic religion; and we are gladdened by the sight of you who are called to bear a part of our solicitude.

You are here, venerable brethren, gathered together in the name of Christ (Matt. xviii. 20) that with us you may give testimony to the Word of God and the testimony of Jesus Christ (Apoc. i. 2); and that with us you may teach all men the way of God in truth (Matt. xxii. 16); and that under the guidance of the Holy Spirit you may judge (Acts x. 5, 19) with us of the oppositions of knowledge falsely so called (1 Tim. vi. 20).

For at this time more than ever, now that the earth has mourned and faded away, infected by the inhabitants thereof (Isa. xxiv. 4, 5), zeal for the glory of God and the safety of the Lord's flock requires of us to surround Zion, and to encompass her; and to tell her towers, and to set our hearts in her strength (Ps. xlvii. 13, 14).

For you see, venerable brethren, with what fury the old enemy of mankind has attacked and still continues to attack the house of the Lord which holiness becometh.

To him is due that disastrous conspiracy of the impious so widely spread, which, strong in union, powerful in resources, fenced round with ordinances, and making liberty a cloak for malice (1 Pet. ii. 16), ceases not to wage a cruel war, disgraced by every atrocity, against the holy Church of Christ. You know well the nature of this war, its fierceness, its weapons, its successes, and its purposes. You have ever present before you how those sound doctrines on which rests human society, in its various ranks, are disordered and obscured; how deplorably all the rules of right are turned to wrong; how manifold are the forms employed of falsehood and corruption, while the saving bonds of justice, honor, and authority, are loosened; the vilest passions are inflamed, and the Christian faith is uprooted from the souls of men; so that if any schemes and endeavors of the wicked could avail for the destruction of the Church of God, we might at this very time fear her approaching downfall. "But nothing is more powerful than the Church"—they are the words of St. Chrysostom—"the Church is stronger than heaven itself. 'Heaven and earth shall pass away; but My words shall not pass away.' What words are these? 'Thou art Peter, and upon this rock I will build My Church: and the gates of hell shall not prevail against it.'" (Homil., ante exil., n. 1.)

And although the city of the Lord of hosts, the city of our God, rests on a foundation that shall never be overthrown; yet when we see, and in our inmost heart grieve over, so vast an accumulation of ills, and the ruin of so many souls, to avert which we would willingly lay down our life; as we exercise on earth the office of the eternal pastor, and therefore must needs be more inflamed than others with zeal for the house of God: we deemed ourselves bound to adopt that course which offered most hope of healing the many wounds of the Church. And often turning in our mind that word of the Prophet Isaias, "Take counsel, gather a council;" and considering that this remedy had often been successfully employed by our predecessors in the utmost extremity of the Christian Church: after long-continued prayers; after hearing the counsel of our venerable brethren the cardinals of the holy Roman Church, and after learning the desires of many holy bishops, we have thought right to summon you, venerable brethren, who are the salt of the earth, the guardians and pastors of the flock of the Lord, to assemble at this See of Peter; and on this day, through the gracious providence of God, who has removed all that might hinder our great undertaking, we celebrate, with the ancient solemn rites, the opening of our holy congregation. So various and so abundant is the feeling of love, venerable brethren, which we experience at this time, that we are unable to retain it in our breast. For seeing you, we imagine that we behold the whole Catholic family, our own most dear children, gathered around us. We think of the many pledges of love, of the many outbursts of fervent hearts by which, at your suggestion, under your guidance, and by your example, our children have shown and continue to show, such admirable respect and affection for us and for this Apostolic See; and full of this thought we cannot in this most honorable assembly, wherein you are gathered together, refrain from a solemn and public profession of our great gratitude to them all; and we most earnestly beseech God that the trial of their faith, much more precious than gold, may be found unto praise, and glory, and honor, at the appearing of Jesus Christ (1 Peter ix. 7). We think also of the wretched fate of so many men who are led astray and wander far from the way of truth and justice, and therefore of true happiness; and with desire we desire to help and save them, remembering the example of our Divine Redeemer and Master Jesus, who came to seek and to save that which was lost. Moreover, our eyes are turned to this monument raised to the honor of the prince of the Apostles in which we stand: they are turned on this cherished city, which, by the loving-kindness of God, has not been delivered over as a spoil to the nations; they are turned on this Roman people, so dear to us, by whose love, fidelity, and reverence, we are always surrounded, and we are moved to extol the goodness of God, who has been pleased at this season more and more to assure to us the hope of His divine protection. But our thoughts, venerable brethren, dwell chiefly upon you, whose care, earnestness, and concord, we now perceive to be of so great importance for promoting the glory of God: we notice the burning zeal which you have brought to the fulfilment of your task, and in particular that admirable and most close union which exists between all of you and us and this Apostolic See; than which union, in this season more even than in all our former afflictions, nothing can be more grateful to us, nothing more beneficial to the Church; and we rejoice vehemently in the Lord to see such dispositions in you, that we are forced to conceive a sure and well-founded hope of most rich and excellent fruits to be obtained from your coming together in this present Council. Never heretofore, perhaps, was war waged with more determination and more cunning against the kingdom of God; and never was there more need of that close union between the priests of the Lord and the supreme shepherd of His flock, which imparts so wonderful strength to the Church; and, through the peculiar care of God, and through your excellent dispositions, this union has been maintained without breach; so that it has become, and we trust will daily more and more become, a spectacle to the world, to angels, and to men.

Wherefore, venerable brethren, be strong in the Lord; and in the name of the most holy Trinity, be sanctified in truth (John xvii. 19); put on the whole armor of light, and join with us in teaching the way, the truth, and the life, for which men, so long the victims of countless disorders, must now needs yearn;

join with us in securing a return of peace for all kingdoms, law for the barbarians, calm for the monasteries, good order for the Church, discipline for the clergy, and for God an acceptable people. (St. Bern. de Considerat., iv. 4.) God is standing in His holy place; He is in the midst of us in our councils and in our acts; He, in this effort of His abundant mercy, has chosen us to be His ministers and fellow-laborers; and it behooves us to be so devoted to this service that we now consecrate our minds, our hearts, our strength, to Him alone.

But conscious of our own weakness, we distrust our powers, and our eyes are raised, our prayers are addressed, with confidence to Thee, Spirit of God. Thou Fount of true Light, and of the Wisdom of God, do Thou pour the illumination of Thy grace into our minds, that we may see what is right, what is salutary, what is most excellent; do thou rule, mould, and direct our hearts, that whatever this Council shall do may have a right beginning, a prosperous course, and a happy termination.

And Thou too, Mother of fair love, of knowledge and holy hope, Thou Queen and bulwark of the Church, do Thou take our consultations and our toils under the secure protection of Thy motherly care, and by Thy prayers to God gain for us the grace to be ever one in spirit and one in heart.

Be you also with us, ye angels and archangels; and thou, too, prince of the Apostles, blessed Peter; and thou, fellow-apostle of Peter, Paul, doctor of the Gentiles and preacher of truth in the whole world; and all ye saints of heaven, ye especially whose relics we venerate in this place, by your powerful intercession procure for us that we may all faithfully fulfil our ministry, and may receive mercy from God in the midst of His temple, to whom be honor and glory for ever and ever.

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RAILWAYS. The official figures showing the number of miles of railway constructed in the United States in 1869, exhibit an actual increase of about 7,745 miles for the calendar year, which is far greater than the aggregate of any former year. The largest amount in any previous year was in 1856, when 8,640 miles of road were built, while in 1868 only 2,970 miles of new rails were laid. Since 1826, when Massachusetts began to lay iron tracks, the construction of railways in this country has averaged more than 1,000 miles a year.

Counting the cost of construction at $40,000 a mile, we expended during the last year $300,000,000 in building railways, with probably $300,000,000 for expenditures besides building; such as new rails, new cars, depots, etc.

The present distribution of railway lines is nearly as follows: 4,000 miles in New England, 17,000 miles in the Western States, 900 in the Pacific States, 10,000 in the Middle States, 11,000 in the Southern and Gulf States. The war scarcely checked railway building in the North and West; but, for the time, it ruined the Southern roads, most of which have since been relaid and supplied with rolling-stock, or are now in process of relaying and supply. And new roads are now building, or are projected, in every part of the Southern States, under the belief that they are essential to the full development of their agricultural resources. Texas is pushing through a central road, which may become the Southern route to the Pacific coast. Illinois is building a dozen different roads, which will cover 500 miles, and Indiana yet more. Michigan is engaged upon three new roads, covering 500 miles. Six new roads, extending over 300 miles, are in progress in Iowa. Missouri is pushing on her South Pacific. Oregon, California, Kansas, and Nevada, are all building new railways, And last, not least, Virginia projects a great central road through the State, which will make, with connections, direct transit from Norfolk, on the Atlantic coast, to San Francisco, free from snow.

These are the leading railway enterprises now seeking aid from the North, and to these should be added the efforts New York and Baltimore are making to perfect their railroad connections with the West.

The following table presents a summary of the miles of railroad in operation in each State, at the close of the year 1869 or beginning of 1870, compared with the beginning of the year 1864, or a period of six years. This shows an aggregate outlay of over $2,200,000,000 in railroad construction, and an aggregate mileage of 48,860 miles; which latter will probably, before the middle of the year 1870, exceed 50,000 miles in actual operation. This is in addition to double tracks and sidings, constructed on a large number of the roads in this country.

The Pacific Railroad was completed on the 10th of May, 1869, by the junction of the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific Railroads at Promontory Summit, Utah, a point 1,084 miles west from Omaha, and 690 east from Sacramento. The last spike was driven with imposing ceremonies, and on the 15th of May through-trains began to run regularly. By a subsequent arrangement between the two companies, and in conformity with a resolution passed by Congress, Ogden, 52 miles east from Promontory Summit, and 1,032 miles west from Omaha, was fixed as the dividing point between the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific Railroads. The former, therefore, extends from Sacramento, California, to Ogden, Utah, a distance of 742 miles, and the latter from Ogden to Omaha, 1,032 miles. From the beginning, the work has been vigorously prosecuted, and its completion in May of 1869 was reached a year earlier than had been anticipated by the company. This rapid progress has been due largely to the aid rendered by the General Government. The Union Pacific

Railroads of the United States, January, 1870, *compared with January*, 1864.

STATES, Etc.	Miles open, 1864.	Miles open, 1870.	Cost and Equipment.
Pennsylvania	3,360	5,014	$200,556,000
Illinois	3,156	4,707	217,560,000
Ohio	3,311	3,723	190,425,000
New York	2,821	3,636	209,002,000
Indiana	2,195	2,977	121,162,000
Iowa	808	2,140	85,763,000
Missouri	925	1,827	88,372,000
Wisconsin	1,010	1,490	60,359,000
Massachusetts	1,385	1,483	74,699,000
Virginia	1,379	1,422	49,826,000
Georgia	1,420	1,694	36,876,000
Tennessee	1,296	1,435	46,918,000
Michigan	898	1,198	48,798,000
North Carolina	984	1,129	29,505,000
South Carolina	978	1,069	27,849,000
Alabama	805	1,036	36,421,000
New Jersey	864	989	74,603,000
Kansas	40	930	39,794,000
Mississippi	862	900	24,919,000
Kentucky	567	849	33,512,000
Minnesota	157	823	27,860,000
California	147	810	46,650,000
Connecticut	630	698	27,359,000
New Hampshire	661	685	22,643,000
Maine	505	672	21,183,000
Vermont	597	613	23,788,000
Texas	451	572	17,006,000
Wyoming Territory	....	560	42,300,000
Maryland and other than below	408	493	31,815,000
Delaware and East Md.	121	292	8,774,000
Nebraska	....	449	26,450,000
Florida	402	446	9,884,000
Louisiana	335	414	17,385,000
Nevada	....	390	19,500,000
Utah Territory	....	365	18,000,000
West Virginia	361	364	27,369,000
Colorado	....	150	6,000,000
Rhode Island	125	121	5,133,000
Oregon	19	129	5,700,000
Arkansas	38	86	4,310,000
Total	33,500	48,860	2,212,413,000
RECAPITULATION BY SECT'S.			
Northeast	3,798	4,274	179,805,000
Middle-east	7,580	10,792	652,619,000
Southeast	....	5,837	154,000,000
Gulf and Southwest	1,610	5,294	180,472,000
West and Northwest	14,759	20,838	949,667,000
Pacific and West	166	1,885	95,850,000
Total	33,908	48,860	2,212,413,000

Railroad Company was organized in October, 1863, under a charter granted by Congress, called "An Act to aid in the construction of a Railroad and Telegraph Line from the Missouri River to the Pacific Ocean, and to secure to the Government the use of the same for postal, military, and other purposes." The capital stock of the company was fixed at $100,000,000, in shares of $1,000 each, which were subsequently fixed at $100 each, and it was also provided that no one person could subscribe for or hold more than 200 shares of the stock. The Government granted the company every alternate section of land for ten miles on each side of the road, which was subsequently extended to every alternate section for twenty miles on each side of the road; and also the right of way over the public lands to the extent of 200 feet in width on each side of the road, together with the right to use timber and other material necessary for the construction of the road wherever found upon the public lands. The Government also granted aid in bonds, maturing in 30 years, and bearing six per cent. interest, payable in gold, amounting as follows:

517 miles west from Omaha, at $16,000 per mile	$8,272,000
150 miles, at $48,000	7,200,000
433 " " 32,000	13,856,000
Total	$29,328,000

These bonds were issued only upon the completion of each section of 20 miles of the road, and were transferred upon the certificate of three commissioners, appointed by the United States Government, that the road was thoroughly built and adequately supplied with all the machinery, equipments, and fixtures necessary to a first-class railroad. By subsequent legislation, the company obtained the right to issue its first-mortgage bonds to an amount equal to the bonds of the United States, which were made a second lien upon the road.

The whole bonded debt of the road became, therefore, $58,656,000. The contract for the construction of the Union Pacific road was made in August, 1864, but owing to certain delays the first 40 miles of the road were not completed until January, 1866; in January, 1867, 305 miles; in January, 1868, 540 miles; and in January 1869, 1,032 miles were completed. The obstacles to be overcome in constructing the road were found to be less formidable than had been anticipated. In crossing the mountains there are no grades exceeding 90 feet to the mile, and these but for short distances, while an altitude of more than 6,000 feet is attained by a gradual ascent. Omaha is 397 feet above the level of the sea, and the elevation of Cheyenne, at the base of the Black Hills, 517 miles west from Omaha, is 6,062 feet, making an average grade between these two points of ten feet to the mile; while the average ascent from Cheyenne to Sherman, at the summit of the Black Hills, the elevation of which is 8,262 feet, is 69 feet to the mile. The average cost of constructing the road, including car-shops, depots, stations, locomotives, cars, and all necessary expenses, except those of surveying, is stated at $68,058 per mile for 914 miles west from Omaha, and $90,000 per mile for 186 miles; while the total cost of the road for this distance, including surveys, is stated at $82,445,012.

According to a provision of the charter, the management of the road is controlled by a Board of twenty Directors, five of whom are appointed by the General Government, and are prohibited from holding stock in the road. The Government also exercises the right of appointing three commissioners to examine the road, and report whether it has been constructed and operated according to law. There have been conflicting reports as to the condition of the road and the manner of its construction. In September, 1868, a Special Commission, composed of Brevet Major-General G. K. Warren, U. S. A., Jacob Blinkens-

derfer, Jr., civil engineer, and General James Barnes, was appointed by the President of the United States to make a thorough reëxamination of so much of the Union Pacific road as had then been constructed. Their report, which was submitted in November of the same year, when 890 miles of the road had been completed, closed as follows: "Deficiencies exist, but they are, almost without exception, those incident to all new roads, or of a character growing out of the peculiar duties encountered, or inseparably connected with the unexampled progress of the work. A matter of great importance, and highly creditable to the able managers of the company, is that they can all be supplied at an outlay but little exceeding that which would have obviated them in the first instance, but at the cost of materially retarding the progress of the great work. Under the circumstances, it is much more a matter of surprise that so few mistakes were made, and so few defects exist, than it would be had serious deficiencies been of more frequent occurrence; and the country has reasons to congratulate itself that this great work of national importance is so rapidly approaching completion under such favorable auspices."

RAWLINS, JOHN A., Major-General of the United States Army and Secretary of War, born at Guilford, Jo Daviess County, Illinois, February 13, 1831; died in Washington, September 6, 1869. He was reared as a farmer and charcoal-burner, which occupation he followed till 1854, in the mean time improving every opportunity he could command for reading and study. Removing to Galena, Ill., he studied law, and, in 1855, was admitted to the bar, and practised his profession successfully until the commencement of the late war. His principles were Democratic, and, in 1860, he was candidate for presidential elector from the 1st Congressional District of his native State on the Douglas ticket. Though a decided Democrat, and opposed to the war, upon the fall of Fort Sumter he felt that it was no longer a question of politics, and forthwith gave all his sympathies to the support of the Government. On receiving the news of the Bull Run disaster, he engaged in raising troops, and on the 15th of September following went into service on the staff of General Grant, as assistant adjutant-general with the rank of captain. He was appointed a brigadier-general of volunteers, to rank from August 11, 1863; was brevetted major-general of volunteers, to rank from February 24, 1865; was appointed chief of staff to the Lieutenant-General commanding on March 3, 1865, with the rank of brigadier-general in the United States Army, and was commissioned a major-general in the United States Army, to rank from March 13, 1865. Through all the trying scenes of the great conflict he refused no hardship and shunned no danger, but manfully supported his chief until the victory was won, remaining upon his staff until, on the resignation of General Schofield, March 11, 1869, he was appointed Secretary of War, the arduous duties of which position he performed with untiring faithfulness until a few days previous to his death.

RAYMOND, HENRY JARVIS, an American journalist, editor, author, and political leader, born in Lima, Livingston County, N. Y., January 24, 1820; died in New York City, June 18, 1869. His father was a farmer, and in that life Mr. Raymond's early days were spent. As soon as he was old enough, he attended the famous Lima Seminary, and there laid the foundation of a solid education. In the winter of 1835–'36 he taught a district school. After considerable solicitation, his father finally consented to send young Raymond to college, and he graduated with high honors at the University of Vermont in 1840. After leaving college he came to New York, studied law, and maintained himself by teaching, and by writing for the *New-Yorker*. He was desirous of becoming a journalist; and when, in 1841, Mr. Greeley established the *Tribune*, Mr. Raymond was his assistant. Here he greatly distinguished himself by his skill as a reporter, a department of the journalistic profession in which he had no superior in promptness, accuracy, and tact. He made a specialty of lectures, sermons, speeches, etc.; and, among other remarkable feats of this kind of enterprise, reported Dr. Dionysius Lardner's lectures so perfectly, that the lecturer consented to their publication in two large volumes, by Greeley & McElrath, with his certificate of their accuracy. Mr. Raymond's activity soon manifested itself in his zeal for exclusive news, and in after-life he often expressed a regret that railroads and telegraphs had so reduced the opportunities of gaining these victories. He often related a "beat" he gained for the *Tribune* in his early days. He went, with various reporters of rival journals, to Boston, to report a speech of Daniel Webster. The other journals each sent two short-hand reporters to work against Raymond. He took his notes in the method which he had invented, and the company returned by the night-boat. But while the others were enjoying themselves, Raymond was copying his notes in the back cabin, which had been turned into a printing-office, and when the boat reached the city the whole speech, several columns long, was in type, ready to be transferred to the presses, and by six o'clock the readers of the *Tribune* had it before their eyes. The other papers acknowledged themselves beaten, and never used their short-hand reports. After remaining on the *Tribune* about seven years, he accepted a position on the staff of the *Courier and Enquirer*, under James Watson Webb. He remained with General Webb eight years, until 1851, when, on account of political differences, he left him, and went to Europe for his health. The disagreement arose from a difference of opinion in regard to the measures before Congress in 1850, the

year of the great Compromises. Mr. Raymond sympathized with President Taylor, and General Webb with his successor. While on the staff of the *Courier and Enquirer* he became well known as a polished writer and a man of letters, and formed a connection with the publishing-house of Harper and Brothers, which lasted ten years. During this time a spirited discussion of Fourier's principles of socialism was carried on between Mr. Raymond and Mr. Greeley, and his articles on this subject were afterward published in pamphlet form. Mr. Raymond's political life began in 1849, when he was elected a member of the Assembly by the Whigs; he was reëlected in 1850, when he was chosen Speaker. He at once became prominent as a debater, directing his attention while in the Legislature especially to the common schools and the canals.

The *Times* newspaper was started by him on the 18th of September, 1851. It commenced with six editors, two proof-readers, and eighteen compositors. In 1852 he went to the Baltimore Convention to report the proceedings for his paper, but was given a seat as a delegate, and made an eloquent speech in exposition of Northern sentiment. In 1854 he was elected Lieutenant-Governor of New York, receiving 157,166 votes, a majority of 28,333 over Ludlow, his principal opponent. As an organizer of the Republican party, Mr. Raymond was an active worker. The "Address to the People," which was issued from Pittsburg in 1856, was from his pen. He advocated the election of Fremont after the meeting of the first National Convention. In 1857 he refused to be a candidate for Governor of this State. The next four years were devoted to his profession. In 1858 he sided, apparently, with the supporters of Mr. Douglas, but in the end resumed his relations with the Republican party. In 1859, he visited Europe, and while in Italy witnessed the short and decisive campaign of the French against the Austrians. His account of the battle of Solferino, written on the spot during the progress of the action, was dispatched by a special courier to Havre, in season to catch the earliest mail for New York, where it arrived several days in advance of the English accounts. In 1860 he was earnestly in favor of the nomination of Mr. Seward for the presidency, but acquiesced promptly in the selection of Mr. Lincoln by the Republican National Convention, and it was through his influence that Mr. Seward was placed in the Cabinet of Mr. Lincoln. He was a warm supporter and personal friend of Mr. Lincoln in all his active measures, though at times deploring his hesitating policy. After the disaster at Bull Run, he proposed the establishment of a provisional government, but the idea was not received with any favor. In 1861 he was again elected to the Assembly, where he was chosen Speaker. The following fall he was the president of the Union State Convention at Syracuse, where he voted for the nomination of General Dix, but, after the nomination of James S. Wadsworth, declared the latter his first choice. In 1863 he was defeated by Governor Morgan for the nomination of United States Senator. In May, 1864, he was a delegate to the Republican State Convention, and was chosen by a unanimous vote delegate at large to the National Convention. He was afterward appointed chairman of the New York State delegation. He was elected in the fall of 1864 to the Thirty-ninth Congress, from the Sixth Congressional District, and took his seat on the 4th of December, 1865. His course was that of a moderate Republican. Though allied by strong conviction with the Republican party, he was never, in the strict sense of the word, a party man, and never surrendered to party the supreme right of private judgment on all questions, whether of principle or policy. Unable, frequently, to go with the Republican party on all questions, he incurred the charge of political inconsistency—so often and so recklessly brought against public men of independent thought, and never more unjustly than in the case of Mr. Raymond. So far from being fickle and inconsistent, he was in truth one of the most consistent and conscientious men that ever took part in public affairs. He was always true to his convictions. His public course was based on the broadest principles of right and justice. Mr. Raymond's Congressional record began with the delivery of his speech against Mr. Stevens's theory of "dead States," on the 22d of December, 1865. He maintained, in opposition to that doctrine, that, as the several ordinances of secession were nullities, the Southern States had never been out of the Union. Holding this view, he would exact of them all necessary guarantees of future loyalty to the Constitution, and for the care and protection of the freedmen. He advised the most rigid scrutiny into the character of the men whom they should send to Congress; but he sought to allay the animosities and mutual jealousies engendered by the war, and deprecated any policy which would tend to keep them alive. His speech in reply to Mr. Shellabarger, January 29, 1866, was conceived in the same spirit; and consistently with these opinions, he opposed the bill reported by Mr. Stevens, from the Reconstruction Committee, to provide military governments for the Southern States.

Aside from purely political questions, Mr. Raymond took a very active interest in the ordinary legislation of Congress; and his name is connected with some of the most important bills considered by the body of which he was a member. The Philadelphia Convention, held August 14, 1866, enlisted his warm support. Impressed with the belief that Congress did not fully represent the wishes of the country, in respect to the various questions involved in the reorganization of the Southern States, he favored the plan of a direct appeal to the

people. This view he held in common with some other members of the Republican party, and thus formed the groundwork of the Address and Declaration of Principles, which he drew up and which were unanimously adopted by the convention. But the movement was misunderstood by Republicans. A compromise, involving the surrender of some vital principle, was suspected; and, as few Republican journals lent it their support, it failed to exert a permanent influence on the party. On the expiration of his term, Mr. Raymond, having declined the renomination that was pressed upon him by prominent men of both parties, withdrew almost wholly from public life, and devoted all his energies to the conduct of his paper. He was offered the mission to Austria by President Johnson, in 1867; but his name was sent to the Senate without his consent, and after he had notified the President that no considerations could induce him to accept the position. Mr. Raymond frequently said that he felt journalism to be his true vocation. He had no love for political life. Its honors held out no lure for his ambition. He was fond of travel, and in the summer of 1868 made a third visit to Europe. His tastes were cultivated and liberal, and his studies embraced a wide range of subjects. He was a large reader, and with this combined the rarest qualities of a thinker and reasoner. Few men, even among practised writers for the daily press, had the readiness in composition that distinguished him. None was ever more quick to seize the right point of a subject, and give it expression with ease, clearness, and vivacity. He wrote with extraordinary facility on every subject that came up for discussion in the paper; and could be light and playful or weighty and profound, as the nature of the topic required.

Absorbed in the duties of his profession, Mr. Raymond found but little leisure for literary labors in other fields. His only book was a biography of Abraham Lincoln, first published in 12mo, in 1864, and republished the following year, so much enlarged as to be almost a new work. Besides this, his publications have been a few political speeches and literary orations. At one time he meditated a history of his own life and times, which he intended to be a vindication of his political course; but it was never begun. Mr. Raymond was almost as well known as a public speaker as an editor, and possessed singular power over an audience. It was not merely in the personal magnetism of the man, but in the force of his reasoning, the lucidity of his illustrations, and the logical arrangements of his thoughts. His manner was easy and conversational, his enunciation rapid but distinct, his voice clear and resonant. The mere announcement that he was to speak on any subject, was always sufficient to draw an audience. As a journalist, Mr. Raymond occupied the very first rank. Thoroughly conversant with the history and dominant issues of national and State politics, he possessed also remarkable fertility and resources as a writer. His faculties were so much under his command, and his education was so comprehensive and practical, that he could advantageously discuss a wide range of topics. As a controversialist it would not be easy to find his equal. His industry was incomparable, his intelligence quick and sure. Without the highest gifts of imagination, he was always clear, forcible, and instructive; and he knew how to seize the controlling point of a question and present it so that the reader could not fail to understand and be convinced. His judgment was naturally moderate and conservative, free alike from the control of prejudice and of passion; and that intensity of conviction which easily passes into fanaticism, and is often dangerous to a public man, was not congenial to his mental organization. His death occurred from apoplexy, with which he was attacked while entering his own house, and which proved fatal in the course of four or five hours.

REFORMED CHURCH. 1. The General Triennial Synod of the Reformed Church in the United States (German) met in Philadelphia, on the 25th of November. The reports from the classes on striking out the word "German" from the designation of the Church, showed twenty-four classes voting in favor of the change, and it was declared carried. Considerable time was spent in discussions upon the liturgy. The Eastern Synod has one liturgy; the Synods of Ohio and the Northwest have proposed another. The sentiment of the General Synod must leave it optional with the classes which liturgy they should employ. In reference to a union with the Reformed Church (Dutch) of America, the Synod declared, that a closer union between two bodies so intimately related in doctrine, culture, and name, would be both natural and desirable, so soon as that consummation can be reached with the cordial consent of both Churches. "We cordially reciprocate the kind feeling that has for several years found expression through the delegates of the Reformed Church of America, and other authoritative channels, touching this matter. We rejoice in the growing friendly relation of these two Protestant bodies, and are ready to coöperate in all proper movements looking to a closer union; but we do not see our way clear at this time to take any more definite action on this subject."

The review of the state of the Church speaks of the cheering advance that has been made since the first Synod met in Philadelphia, one hundred and twenty-three years before. It represents the progress since the meeting of the last Synod to have continued favorable; the various interests have been strengthened and extended; the Church has grown in spirituality, its enterprises have been vigorously prosecuted. "Though we have not carried on foreign missions, technically so called, yet we have labored among different nationalities

within the limits of our own vast country. And the labor has not been in vain. The General Synod's Board has had nearly one hundred missionaries on its list, and, despite all the disadvantages with which it has had to contend, has done what twelve or fifteen years ago it would have been deemed chimerical to propose. The Northwestern Synod has had a separate Board of Missions, as had also several of the classes, some of these among the strongest." The publication of the various periodicals, both in English and in German, has continued unbroken, and, "during the past three years, there has been a clear increase above all losses in our statistics of *one* District Synod, three classes, thirty-six ministers, and ten thousand members."

The statistics of this Church are summarized as follows: General Synod, 1; District Synods, 3; classes, 31; ministers, 521; confirmed members, 117,910; unconfirmed members, 68,362; baptisms, 36,117; confirmations, 20,183; receptions by certificate, 3,779; Sunday-school scholars, 47,990; Sunday-schools, 1,919; contributions, $228,817.94, or, not including ministers' salaries, $76,500.

2. The sixty-third session of the General Synod of the Reformed Church (Dutch), in America, opened in Philadelphia on the 2d of June. The amended charter having been obtained from the New York Legislature, the change of name of this body is completed. The Board of Directors reported the receipt of donations and bequests amounting to about $18,000, besides a gift of $2,890.63 to Hope College. The widows' fund amounts to $29,192.19. The amount of $16,917.41, had been received on account of the assessment ordered by the General Synod of 1864, for the increase of the permanent fund. The Board of Domestic Missions reported 5,358 admitted. There are 72 missions, with 4,000 families under their pastoral charge. The number of contributing Churches was 296. The total receipts were $30,973.33. The number of children brought into the schools was 8,115.

There were 58 young men studying for the ministry under the care of the Board of Education, and 615 children in the parochial schools. The receipts of the Board were $39,157.53. It is under an indebtedness of $3,942.49. The Board of Publication issued during the year 6,250 copies of religious works; and 68,500 of reprints, tracts, etc. The sales amounted to $15,918.94; assets, $38,007; liabilities, $10,836.38. The principal of the widows' fund is $29,192.19. The receipts of the disabled ministers' fund were $2,369.55.

Papers condemning freemasonry were presented from the classes of Wisconsin and of Holland. The committee to whom they were referred, reported that they considered much that was said against masonry to be exaggerated or unfounded; but that the path of safety for Christians lay outside of all secret, oath-bound societies, and recommended a resolution "That the members of our churches be advised to refrain from uniting with those fraternities which are held together by oaths of secrecy, but if, in the exercise of Christian liberty, any communicant has chosen to join such societies, he shall not on that account be held answerable to ecclesiastical discipline." Four classes in New Jersey, and the classes of Philadelphia, were set off to form a new particular Synod, which was named the Synod of New Brunswick.

The number of churches is 451; licentiates, 474; communicants, 58,796.

The number of families reported is 37,706. Received on confession, 3,190; on certificate, 2,040; infant baptisms, 3,585; adult baptisms, 797; scholars in Sunday-schools, 47,244. The total of contributions for religious and benevolent purposes was over $255,000; for congregational purposes, $846,627.18.

Missions.—The receipts of the Board of Foreign Missions were from Churches, $59,523.03; from Sunday-schools, $5,310.79. The receipts from other sources swell the total to $81,410.38. The debt of the Board has increased to $24,000.

In the Amoy Mission in China, there is a missionary force of 8 persons. The number of members is 701. The Christian community in the classis of Arcot numbers 2,094 persons, of whom 534 are church members. Eight missionaries are connected with the mission in Japan.

REGNAUD, DE SAINT-JEAN D'ANGELY, AUGUST MICHEL MARIE ETIENNE, Count, a Marshal and Senator of France, born in Paris July 29, 1794; died in that city December 21, 1869. He was of a distinguished family, his father having played a prominent part in the history of both the empire and the republic. He was educated at the Prytanée de Saint-Cyr, and entered in 1811 the Military School of St. Germain. In the following year he joined the 8th Hussars, then in Russia, as sub-lieutenant. His regiment was almost destroyed at the battle of Leipsic. He took a prominent part in the campaign of 1814, distinguished himself under the walls of Rheims, and was named by Napoleon chief of squadron at Waterloo. In 1825 M. Regnaud went to Greece, organized there a European cavalry corps, and served as a volunteer in General Maison's expedition in the Morea. After the Revolution of July he was allowed to retain the rank in the army conferred upon him by the Emperor. In 1832 he was appointed colonel of the First Lancers, and in 1840 received the brevet of field-marshal and military commander of the department of the Meurthe, where he remained till the establishment of the republic. Under the new government he was employed in the Army of the Alps, and was promoted in 1848 to the rank of General of Division. In the following year he was elected by the district of Charente-Inférieure to the Legislative Assembly, in which he acted with the majority.

For several days in the early part of 1851, he was at the head of the War Department, and after the *coup d'état* was appointed a Senator. In 1849 Marshal Regnaud was made Grand Officer of the Legion of Honor, and since 1854 he had commanded the Imperial Guards. The weight of declining years had prevented him from taking any very active part in the stormy events of the last decade.

REICHENBACH, Baron KARL VON, Ph. D., a German naturalist, chemist, technologist, and author, born at Stuttgart, February 12, 1788; died at Leipsic, January 19, 1869. He was educated at Tübingen, where he received the degree of Doctor of Philosophy. At the age of sixteen years he had formed the project of establishing a new German state in the islands of the South Sea, and being of a wealthy family he prosecuted his design with great zeal for three years, when the French Government, which at that time had possession of Stuttgart, suspecting that he was entertaining revolutionary plans, arrested him, and imprisoned him for some months. Upon his release he turned his attention to technological science, and after a thorough investigation of the great manufactories and smelting-furnaces of France and Germany, pursued through several years, he established manufactories at Villingen and at Hausach. In 1821 he entered into partnership with Count Hugo von Salen, and the two established a large number of chemical works in Moravia, which in a few years realized for them great fortunes, and enabled Von Reichenbach to purchase several fine estates. The King of Würtemberg about this time raised him to the rank of baron. Possessing an intense fondness for physical science, and having made extensive attainments in several branches of it, Baron von Reichenbach, in 1831, published his discovery of *paraffine*, and, in 1833, that of creosote. He had also the honor of being the first author of a geological treatise in Austria—his "Geological Researches in Moravia" appearing in Vienna in 1834. Not long after this publication he became interested in the experiments of Mesmer and others, in the so-called Mesmerism or animal magnetism, and commenced a series of elaborate investigations, carried on with German precision and care for fifteen or twenty years, into the character of this mysterious force. The result of his observations was first made public in a work translated and republished both in England and the United States, and by which he is best known in this country: "Physico-Physiological Researches upon Magnetism, Electricity, etc., and their Connections with the Vital Force." 3 vols. 1849. In this work he first announced his theory of a new imponderable agent, differing from both electricity and magnetism, to which he gave the name of *Od*, and to which he attributed the phenomena of clairvoyance, magnetic writing, table-tipping, etc. This work produced great excitement among the philosophers throughout Europe; and the materialist school opposed his views most vehemently, one of them (Charles Vogt) going so far as to attack it in a very bitter review under the title of "The Collier's Hearth and Science," in allusion to Baron von Reichenbach's career as a manufacturer. The baron replied with equal severity in a volume with the title of "The Collier's Hearth and False Science," and defended and extended his investigations in the following works: "Odic-Magnetic Letters," 1852; "The Sensitive Man and his Connections with Od," 1854; "Who is Sensitive, and Who is Not?" Among his somewhat diversified pursuits, Von Reichenbach had included that of a collector of minerals, meteorites, etc. His collection of the latter at his chatean in Reisenberg was said to be altogether the finest in Europe. He had also purchased and arranged the noble herbarium of Sieber, which was the most complete on the Continent.

REISACH, CHARLES AUGUSTE, Count DE, a cardinal bishop of the Catholic Church, born at Roth, Bavaria, July 6, 1800; died in Annecy, Savoy, December 23, 1869. He was the scion of an old noble family of the eleventh century, and had been reckoned among the counts and barons of the German empire since 1737. He studied theology and law in the German universities, and was ordained a priest in 1823. Immediately after entering the priesthood he became noted for his energetic defence of the interests of the Church, and, for his devotion to the ultramontane theories, soon became the recipient of many honors on the part of the Pope. During a prolonged stay in Rome he was made domestic prelate of the Pope, and consultor of the Congregation of the Index. In 1836 the influence of Rome secured his appointment as Bishop of Eichstadt when only thirty-six years old, an age at which nowadays the episcopal dignity is rarely obtained. In 1841 he became coadjutor of the Archbishop of Munich, and in 1846 Archbishop of Munich. Thus placed at the head of the Episcopate of Bavaria, he showed himself, in his relations with the Government and as a member of the first Chamber of Bavaria, an uncompromising champion of all the claims of his Church, though at the same time he was eminently successful in avoiding serious conflicts with the Government. His zeal in the interest of Rome was, in 1855, rewarded with a cardinal's hat, the Pope creating him a cardinal priest, with the presbyterial title of St. Anastasia, which, in 1861, was changed to that of Santa Cecilia. Not only was he received among the cardinals, but he was desired by the Pope to resign the Archbishopric of Munich, and to take up his permanent abode in Rome, in order to be the chief adviser of the Holy See in all the many and complicated transactions with the churches and the Governments of the German nation. In this position he gained the complete confidence of the Pope, who, July 22, 1868, bestowed upon him an honor which is rarely received by any non-Italian, by making him

Bishop of Sabina, one of the six suburban sees, whose occupants are the six cardinal bishops, and, as such, next to the Pope. The See of Sabina belonging now to the territory of the King of Italy, the Italian Government did not recognize the papal appointment, and instituted a trial against Cardinal Reisach for violating the laws of the kingdom of Italy. He was, of course, found guilty, but as he resided in Rome, and not upon Italian territory, the sentence had no practical consequences. On the convocation of the Council, Cardinal Reisach was appointed to the presidency of one of the committees charged with making the necessary preparations; but his health was too feeble to allow him to take an active part in these preparatory labors. At the suggestion of his medical advisers, he left Rome, to seek relief from the illness to which he soon after succumbed.

RHODE ISLAND. The General Assembly met at Providence in January, 1869, when the Inspectors of the State Prison submitted their report, in which they strongly deprecated imprisonment for debt, characterized it as a relic of barbarism, and invoked the action of the Assembly "to purge the statutes of a law which is contrary to the genius of the age and the humanitarian principles which should animate the legislation of the State." They also protested against the practice of sending to the jail demented and lunatic persons, as criminals, when they were fit subjects for a different institution. The question which had long been before the people of Rhode Island, growing out of the great need felt in the State for suitable accommodations for the care and protection of the insane poor and paupers, was settled at this session of the Legislature by the establishment of a "Board of State Charities and Corrections," and by the appointment of a committee empowered "to negotiate for and purchase a suitable farm of not less than two hundred acres, for the location for a House of Correction, State Asylum for the Insane Poor, and such other institutions as the General Assembly may order." In accordance with this resolution, the committee subsequently selected the site in Cranston known as the "Howard Farm," consisting of nearly three hundred acres, at a cost of $22,500. This is regarded as the most advantageous location for the purposes for which it was selected that could be found in Rhode Island. About fifty acres of the farm is woodland, which contains much heavy timber that can be used to advantage in the erection of the buildings necessary to carry out the designs of the General Assembly. The large hill on the farm commands an extensive view of the bay, from the cove to the sea; while the buildings to be erected upon it will be visible from every part of the State. The adjacent farm of one hundred and forty acres was also purchased by the State, which, together with other contemplated purchases to be made, will give the State Farm an area of five hundred acres. The establishment of the Board of State Charities was a measure of great importance, as it contemplated the organization and systematizing of the various charitable and penal institutions of the State. During the year a new building for the male inmates of the workhouse has been erected and occupied, and two large buildings for the insane poor were nearly completed. Up to the close of the year, 101 males and 54 females had been committed to the workhouse; these subjects represented fifteen towns of the State.

Provision was made at the January session of the Legislature for the "purchase and maintenance, in connection with the agricultural department of Brown University, of an experimental garden or small farm, together with such buildings as may be necessary." The bill, after directing that said farm shall be under the control of a board of trustees, to be appointed in part by the General Assembly and in part by Brown University, and making an appropriation of $10,000 from the State Treasury to aid in carrying out this design, provides:

1. That an equal sum of $10,000 shall be raised by subscription from private individuals on or before October 1, 1869, for the same object.

2. That $5,000 of the Agricultural Fund, or 10 per cent. of the entire amount for which the lands donated by Congress were sold, be appropriated by the university toward the purchase of said experimental farm.

3. That said experimental farm shall be placed by the university under competent direction, and shall be so managed as to afford a practical illustration of the newest and most approved methods of culture, and shall, under proper regulations, be accessible to all who may wish to visit it.

4. That provision shall be made by the university for a course of lectures, to be given each year at the university, or some more convenient place in the city of Providence, in which some of the more important principles of agriculture shall be unfolded, improvements made or suggested within the year noticed, and the results of experiments given.

The National Union Republican State Convention assembled at Providence on the 4th of March, for the purpose of nominating candidates for the State offices, and organized, with James M. Pendleton as president. About one hundred and six delegates were in attendance, and much enthusiasm and harmony were manifested in the proceedings. No platform of principles was adopted, but speeches were made approving the impeachment proceedings against Andrew Johnson, indorsing the proposed policy of President Grant's Administration, and rejoicing in the triumph of Republican principles; asserting that the negro who fights the battles of the country should have the right of suffrage, and that the public securities should be paid in gold, and in no other way. The nominations of the convention were: Seth

Padleford, of Providence, for Governor; Pardon W. Stevens, of Newport, for Lieutenant-Governor; John R. Bartlett, of Providence, for Secretary of State; Willard Sayles, of Providence, for Attorney-General; and Samuel A. Parker, of Newport, for General Treasurer.

The Democratic State Convention was held at Providence on the 24th of March, and nominated Lyman Pierce, of Providence, for Governor; William H. Allen, of North Kingston, for Lieutenant-Governor; J. Miller, of Bristol, for Secretary of State; George N. Bliss, of East Providence, for Attorney-General, and Philip Rider, of Newport, for General Treasurer. The election was held on the 7th of April, and passed off very quietly. The vote was not large, and resulted in the entire success of the Republican ticket. The number of votes received by the different candidates was as follows:

	Republicans.		Democrats.
Governor,	S. Padleford, 7,370	Pierce,	3,390
Lieut.-Gov.,	P. W. Stevens, 7,523	Allen,	3,257
Sec. State,	J. R. Bartlett, 7,373	Miller,	3,174
Att'y.-Gen.,	W. Sayles, 7,327	Bliss,	3,334
Treasurer,	S. A. Parker, 7,359	Rider,	3,447

Members of the General Assembly were also chosen at this election, as follows:

	Senate.	House.
Republicans	27	61
Democrats	6	11
Republican majority	21	50

At the election held in 1868, Burnside received 10,088 votes for Governor, and Pierce received 5,781.

The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, having been postponed from the January session, was ratified by the Senate, on the 27th of May, by a vote of 22 to 11. The House, however, did not concur in the ratification, but action on the amendment was postponed by that body until the January session of 1870. The cause assigned for the reluctance of the Rhode Island Legislature to ratify this amendment is the clause in the State constitution requiring of all voters, not native citizens, a property qualification of $140; the effect of which is, to exclude many foreigners from the privilege of voting. It was feared by many members of the Legislature that this provision of their State law would be nullified by the adoption of the fifteenth amendment, though many able lawyers contended that there would be no conflict between the two laws. In his first message to the Legislature, Governor Padleford urged that body to take early action on the fifteenth amendment.

A State Teachers' Institute was held at East Greenwich on the 22d and 23d of October, which was attended by many prominent educators from different parts of the State. The educational needs of the State were fully discussed, and the various modes of teaching compared, by those who were successful laborers in the cause of education. The need of a State Normal School was most prominent in the discussions, and the views of the convention on this subject were expressed in the following resolutions, reported by the Commissioners of Public Schools:

Resolved, That as teachers of Rhode Island we feel the need of a higher professional training, and we recognize in the Normal School the supply of the great want felt, etc.

2. That it is the expression of our earnest feeling, as teachers at the East Greenwich Institute, that a State Normal School is greatly needed in our own State, and we appeal to the legislators to make special and immediate effort to secure such a Normal School, that Rhode Island may take rank with her sister States in the educational work.

3. That we will use our utmost endeavors to secure a true public sentiment on this subject, and we congratulate ourselves that, in Prof. J. T. Edwards and Prof. Green, of East Greenwich, the chairmen of Education in the Senate and House of Representatives in this State, we find the true friends of the proposed school.

In the month of October the "Rhode Island Woman Suffrage Association" held a convention at Providence, which was attended by many prominent women in this movement. It was urged, in the speeches, that the Legislature should be influenced by strong petitions to take early action on the question of woman suffrage. The following were the resolutions adopted:

Whereas, In the adjustment of the question of suffrage now before the people of this country for settlement, it is of the highest importance that the organic law of the land should be so framed and constructed as to work injustice to none, but secure as far as possible perfect political equality among all classes of citizens; and,

Whereas, All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States, and of the State wherein they reside: be it

Resolved, 1. That the immunities and privileges of American citizenship, however defined, are national in character, and paramount to all State authority.

2. That while the Constitution of the United States leaves the qualifications of electors to the several States, it nowhere gives them the right to deprive any citizen of the elective franchise which is possessed by any other citizen—to regulate, not including the right to prohibit, the franchise.

3. That, as the Constitution of the United States expressly declares that no State shall make or enforce any laws that shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States, those provisions of the several State constitutions that exclude women from the franchise on account of sex, are violative alike of the spirit and letter of the Federal Constitution.

4. That, as the subject of naturalization is expressly withheld from the States, and as the States clearly would have no right to deprive of the franchise naturalized citizens, among whom women are expressly included, still more clearly have they no right to deprive native-born women citizens of this right.

5. That justice and equity can only be attained by having the same laws for men and women alike.

6. That, having full faith and confidence in the truth and justice of these principles, we will never cease to urge the claims of women to a participation in the affairs of government equal with men.

Resolved, That this society declares its strong conviction that it is in the highest degree unequal and impolitic to make sex the ground of seclusion from the exercise of political rights.

Resolved, That suffrage is the turning-point of wo-

man's cause; that it alone will secure her equal pay for labor, and equal professional and official relations.

The finances of the State are in a sound condition. The funded indebtedness at the close of the war was $4,000,000, of which there has subsequently been redeemed $1,072,500, leaving outstanding $2,927,500 in State bonds, bearing interest at six per cent. per annum, payable semiannually. None of the bonds are payable previous to 1882.

At the end of the fiscal year, April 30, 1868, the Treasury was overdrawn $61,574.62.

The receipts from the ordinary sources of revenue for the fiscal year ending April 30, 1869, were		$688,503 09
Payments during the same period, exclusive of $61,474.62 for overdrafts, and $132,000 for redemption of State bonds, were		440,590 71
Being an excess in receipts of		247,912 38
Deducting the last two items above named, for overdrafts and bonds redeemed, and adding receipts from other sources, there remained in the Treasury on the 30th of April, 1869,		132,294 40
The estimated receipts of the fiscal year ending April 30, 1870, are	650,000 00	
Estimated payments	580,000 00	
Excess of receipts	70,000 00	
To which add the balance in the Treasury on the 30th of April, 1869,	132,294 48	
Will leave in the Treasury		$193,224 48

Although the State Prison is under the most efficient management, its accommodations are faulty and too limited. A large number of the criminals are now under sentence to the State Farm, where they are profitably employed.

Governor Padleford has called the attention of the Legislature to the inadequate accommodations of the present, and the growing needs for a more capacious edifice. The present one was erected more than a century ago, when Rhode Island was one of the least populated of the British colonies, the entire colony having a population of only 40,000. It is hoped that the Legislature will take such action in this matter as will lead to the erection of a State-house, commensurate with the increased wealth and population of the State, and adequate to its present needs.

ROEBLING, JOHN AUGUSTUS, a distinguished civil engineer and builder of suspension bridges, born in the city of Mülhausen, in Thuringia, Prussia, June 12, 1806; died in Brooklyn, New York, July 22, 1869. His academical studies were pursued in his native city, and on their completion he was sent to the Royal Polytechnic School, at Berlin, where he received the degree of Civil Engineer, and, after devoting the three years required to the service of the government, emigrated to this country in 1831. Locating himself near Pittsburg, Pa., he devoted his attention for a few years to agricultural pursuits, but subsequently became enlisted in the canal improvements, and in the process of time in railway enterprises, surveying lines across the Alleghany Mountains, from Harrisburg to Pittsburg. About this period he commenced the manufacture of wire rope, producing the first specimens of that fabric ever made in this country, which after some opposition he succeeded in introducing on the inclined planes of the old Portage Railroad, over which the canal-boats of the Pennsylvania Canal were transported. From his experience in the strength of wire rope he became convinced of its adaptability for bridging, and accordingly in 1844 undertook a project which proved his idea a feasible one—a suspension aqueduct over the Alleghany River, at Pittsburg. This comprised seven spans, each of 162 feet, the cables being seven inches in diameter, and, proving successful, was followed by the building of the Monongahela Suspension Bridge, with eight spans 188 feet in length, each supported by 4½-inch cables. In this bridge the pendulum process was employed, to counterbalance adjoining spans under the pressure of unequal loads. In 1848 Mr. Roebling commenced a series of suspension aqueducts on the line of the Delaware and Hudson Canal, connecting the anthracite coal-regions of Pennsylvania with the tide-water of the Hudson River. These were the Lackawaxen Aqueduct, two spans, 115 feet each, and two 7-inch cables; the Delaware Aqueduct, four spans, 134 feet each, and two 8-inch cables; the High Falls Aqueduct, one span, 145 feet, and two 8½-inch cables; and the Neversink Aqueduct, one span, 170 feet, and two 9½-inch cables. They were completed within two years, and are all permanent works, needing merely an occasional renewal of the wooden ducts, which decay from the action of the water. It was soon after the completion of these works that Mr. Roebling removed his works and residence to Trenton, N. J. In 1851 Mr. Roebling undertook to build a suspension bridge across the Niagara, to connect the Central Railroad of New York and the Great Western Railway of Canada, and in four years succeeded in constructing the first suspension bridge capable of bearing the immense weight of railroad locomotives and trains. The span of this bridge is 825 feet clear, and its supports are four 10-inch cables. While the Niagara Bridge was building, he was also engaged on another of even greater magnitude. This was to have crossed the Kentucky River, on the line of the Cincinnati and Chattanooga Railroad, with a space of 1,224 feet, but before the structure had been completed the company suspended payment, and the work was discontinued. In the fall of 1856, he commenced the great Cincinnati bridge, whose span is 1,030 feet, and, after having been forced to suspend operations for several years, on account of financial drawbacks, brought it to a successful completion in 1867. In the interim, from 1858 to 1860, inclusive, he was engaged on another suspension bridge at Pittsburg. The last and greatest work of Mr. Roebling was that on which he was engaged up to the time of his death—the East River Bridge, from New York to Brooklyn.

While making measurements in connection with this, one of his feet was terribly crushed by a Fulton ferry-boat, and the accident induced tetanic spasms, which terminated fatally after a few weeks of intense suffering.

ROGET, PETER MARK, M. D., F. R. S., an eminent physician, philologist, and author, born in London in 1779; died there, September 12, 1869. He was the only son of the Rev. John Roget, a minister of one of the Swiss churches in London, was educated at the University of Edinburgh, where he took the degree of M. D., in 1798. The following six years were spent in the practice of his profession. In 1804 he established himself in Manchester, where he was appointed Physician to the Infirmary. Four years later he removed to London, where he resided until his death. Here he won a reputation in his profession, and ranked high in the medical world. The formation of the "Northern Dispensary" was mainly owing to his exertions, and for many years he held the post of physician to that institution. In 1811 he was chosen one of the secretaries of the Medical and Chirurgical Society of London, and in 1829 and 1830 was elected president. In 1814 a valuable paper contributed by him to the Royal Society obtained for him a fellowship in that institution, and, upon the retirement of Sir John Herschel from the office of senior secretary of the society, Dr. Roget was appointed his successor, and held that position for twenty years with marked ability and success. He was the first Fullerian Professor of Physiology in the University of London, of the senate of which body he was one of the original members. Although his practice was large and his skill in his profession great, Dr. Roget was less widely known as a practitioner than as an author. As a contributor to numerous reviews and magazines he earned an enviable reputation. As a scientific writer, his work on "Animal and Vegetable Physiology," first published in 1834, exhibited his extensive learning and deep research. Numerous treatises on scientific subjects which he wrote, and which were published by the Society for the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge, were models of erudition, and did great service to science in their day; but the greatest of his literary productions is undoubtedly his "Thesaurus of English Words and Phrases." As far back as 1804 he had projected it, but found no time to make other than "a classed catalogue of words on a small scale" for his own use. After his retirement from the duties of secretary of the Royal Society, however, he devoted himself to the compilation, working incessantly at it for a period of four years. This book was first published in 1854, when the venerable author had passed his seventy-third year. It was received with great favor, and at once assumed the position of a standard medium of reference. At the time of his death he was engaged in revising the work for a twentieth edition.

ROMAN CATHOLIC CHURCH.* The Pope, Pius IX. (before his elevation to the Papal See, Giovanni Maria di Mastai Ferretti), was born at Sinigaglia on the 13th of May, 1792; elected Pope on the death of Gregory VI. in 1846, and crowned on the 21st of June of that year. According to the list of Pontiffs, given in the official *Annuario Pontificio*, he is the 257th Bishop of Rome.

There were in December, 1869, 55 cardinals, of whom 5 were cardinal bishops (one see being vacant), 42 cardinal priests, and 8 cardinal deacons; 39 were Italians by birth, and only 16 non-Italians; 7 French, 4 Spanish, 3 Germans, 1 Portuguese, 1 Irish.

According to the *Annuario Pontificio* for 1869, there were 12 patriarchs of the Latin and Oriental rite, 12 Latin archbishops immediately dependent upon the Holy See, 120 with ecclesiastical provinces, 7 Oriental archbishops; total, 139 archbishops. Of Latin bishops, there are six called suburbicarians, always cardinals with sees near Rome; 84 immediately subject to the Holy See, and 570 with dioceses; 66 bishops of the Oriental rite; total, 723 (against 714 in 1868). Pope Pius IX. has during his pontificate elevated to the metropolitan dignity 20 sees, and erected 6 archbishoprics and 113 bishoprics. Archbishops' sees *in partibus*, 36; bishops' sees *in partibus*, 198. The vacant sees are: 1 patriarchal, 9 archiepiscopal, 100 episcopal; those occupied amount to 747 patriarchal and residental, and 234 *in partibus*. There are 135 apostolic delegations, vicariates, and prefectures, besides which the present Pope has created 32 similar offices.

The Catholic Church in the United States, in 1869, had 7 archbishops, 45 bishops, 7 vicars apostolic, 3,505 priests. A large portion of the Catholics consists of Germans. According to a valuable statistical work published by the Rev. E. A. Reiter (*Schematismus der kath. deutschen Geistlichkeit in den Vereinigten Staaten Nord-Americas*, New York, 1869), there were, in 1869, 6 German bishops (their number has since been increased to 9); 1,160 German priests; 705 German and 51 mixed (German and English) congregations; 1,447,111 Catholic Germans, 62,392 annual baptisms of Catholic German children, 133,322 scholars of German Catholic schools. The author of this work regards the usual estimate of a Roman Catholic population of 5,000,000 as too high, and thinks that it does not exceed 3,354,000. The number of Catholic German periodicals amounts to ten.

The British dominions had, in 1869 (according to the London *Catholic Directory* for 1870), 9 archbishoprics, 70 bishoprics (against 69 in 1869), 31 vicariates apostolic (against 33 in 1869). The ecclesiastical statistics of Great

* See fuller details on the patriarchates, archbishoprics, bishoprics, religious orders, the statistics of the several dioceses of the United States, the ecclesiastical provinces of America, in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

PIUS IX.

Pius IX.

New York. D. Appleton & Co.

Britain were in 1869 (as compared with 1868) as follows:

	Clergy.		Churches, Chapels, and Stations.		Communities of Men.		Communities of Women.	
	1869.	1868.	1869.	1868.	1869.	1868.	1869.	1868
England .	1,538	1,489	1,151	1,122	69	67	216	214
Scotland*	199	201	208	207	..	..	17	18

The *Directory* gives the number of Roman Catholic peers in 1869 as 33 against 30 in 1868, the additions being the Marquis of Bute, the richest nobleman in Great Britain, who joined the Roman Catholic Church, and the Lords Howard and Acton, who in 1869 were elevated to the peerage. The number of Roman Catholic baronets was therefore 48 against 50 in 1868. The number of Roman Catholic members of the House of Commons in 1869 was 86, all except one (Sir John Simeon) from Ireland.

The Pope having by a bull of June 29, 1868, convoked an Œcumenical Council to meet in Rome, on the 8th of December, 1869, and also having by letters dated September 8 and September 14, 1868, invited the bishops of the Oriental Churches to attend the Council, and the Protestants to return on this occasion to the Catholic Church, the most active preparations for the opening of the Council were carried on throughout the year. In order that when the prelates should come they might not be detained too long from their dioceses (as was the case at Trent), it was deemed advisable to establish preparatory committees of chosen theologians to study maturely such questions as it was thought would probably come up or be proposed in the Council. The chief direction of all the preparations was in hands of a special congregation of seven cardinals, all Italians, except one, Cardinal de Reisach, a German by birth, and formerly Archbishop of Munich.† To this congregation were added seven consultors, four of whom were Italians, one (Mgr. Talbot) an Englishman, one, Prof. Feije, of the University of Louvain, a Belgian, and one, Prof. Hefele, of the University of Tübingen (subsequently elected Bishop of Rottenburg), a German. The special committees, each under the presidency of a cardinal, were to occupy themselves with politico-ecclesiastical affairs —with the affairs of the Eastern Churches, with religious orders and congregations, with questions of dogmatic theology, and with points of ecclesiastical discipline. The dissertations and essays of the committees were printed for the private use of the bishops.

The north arm of the transept of St. Peter's, which stretches toward the Vatican Palace, was selected as the place for holding the sessions of the Council, and the principal architects of Rome were engaged to fit it up with appropriate decorations and suitable furniture. Other places were prepared for the General Congregations (committees of the whole, as as they would be termed in the United States), and for particular congregations (special committees).

The bishops of the Eastern Churches did not respond favorably to the Pope's invitation to attend the Council (*see* EASTERN CHURCHES and GREEK CHURCH). Only a few were reported to have expressed a desire to accept the invitation, which they, however, felt unable to gratify on account of the contrary disposition of the heads of these Churches.

In the Protestant world a few demonstrations took place in reply to the Pope's letter addressed to Protestants. Considerable attention was attracted by the acts of the Rev. Dr. Cumming, of London. This well-known Presbyterian minister wrote a letter to the Archbishop of Westminster, inquiring whether he would be permitted to plead the cause of Evangelical Protestantism in the assembly of Rome; and, when the archbishop replied that he was not authorized to answer the question, Dr. Cumming addressed the same question to the Pope himself, and expressed his readiness to appear in Rome if permission to address the Council should be given to him. This letter called forth the following reply of the Pope, addressed not to Dr. Cumming, but to Archbishop Manning, of Westminster, in which the permission asked by the doctor to plead the cause of Evangelical Protestantism in the Council at Rome was refused.

Pope Pius IX. to our Venerable Brother Henry Edward, Archbishop of Westminster.

VENERABLE BROTHER: Health and the Apostolic blessing. We have seen from the newspapers that Dr. Cumming, of Scotland, has inquired of you whether leave will be given at the approaching Council for those who dissent from the Catholic Church to put forward the arguments which they think can be advanced in support of their own opinions, and that, on your replying that this is a matter to be determined by the Holy See, he has written to us upon the subject.

Now, if the inquirer knows what is the belief of Catholics with respect to the teaching authority which has been given by our Divine Saviour to His Church, and therefore, with respect to its infallibility in deciding questions which belong to dogma or to morals, he must know that the Church cannot permit errors which it has carefully considered, judged, and condemned, to be again brought under discussion. This, too, is what has already been made known by our letters. For when we said, "it cannot be denied or doubted that Jesus Christ Himself, in order that He might apply to all generations of men the fruits of His redemption, built here on earth upon Peter His only Church, that is, the One, Holy, Catholic and Apostolic Church, and gave to him all power that was necessary for preserving whole and inviolate the deposit of faith, and for delivering the same faith to all peoples, and tribes, and nations," we thereby signified that the primacy, both of honor and of jurisdiction, which was conferred upon Peter and his successors by the Founder of the Church, is placed beyond the hazard of disputation. This, in-

* The number of priests for 1869 does not include priests who are retired or who are at present unattached. Of the stations, many are served only occasionally. The decrease of priests and churches in 1869 may therefore only be apparent.

† Cardinal de Reisach died in December, 1869.

deed, is the hinge upon which the whole question between Catholics and all who dissent from them turns, and from this dissent, as from a fountain, all the errors of non-Catholics flow. "For, inasmuch as such bodies of men are destitute of that living and divinely-established authority, which teaches mankind especially the things of faith and the rule of morals, and which also directs and governs them in whatever relates to eternal salvation, so these same bodies of men have varied in their teaching, and their change and instability never cease." If, therefore, your inquirer will consider, either the opinion which is held by the Church as to the infallibility of its judgment in defining whatever belongs to faith or morals, or what we ourselves have written respecting the primacy and teaching authority of Peter, he will at once perceive that no room can be given at the Council for the defence of errors which have already been condemned, and that we could not have invited non-Catholics to a discussion, but have only urged them "to avail themselves of the opportunity afforded by the Council, in which the Catholic Church, to which their forefathers belonged, gives a new proof of its close unity and invisible vitality, and to satisfy the wants of their souls by withdrawing from a state in which they cannot be sure of their salvation." If, by the inspiration of divine grace, they shall perceive their own danger, and shall seek God with their whole heart, they will easily cast away all preconceived and adverse opinions, and, laying aside all desire of disputation, they will return to the Father from whom they have long unhappily gone astray. We, on our part, will joyfully run to meet them, and, embracing them with a father's charity, we shall rejoice and the Church will rejoice with us, that our children who were dead have come to life again, and they who were lost have been found. This, indeed, we earnestly ask of God; and do you, venerable brother, join your prayers to ours.

In the mean while, as a token of the divine favor and of our own especial benevolence, we most lovingly give to you and to your diocese our Apostolic blessing.

Given at St. Peter's, in Rome, this 4th day of September, 1869, in the 24th year of our Pontificate.

POPE PIUS IX.

The Letters Apostolic of September 13, 1868, addressed "To all Protestants and other non-Catholics."

A second letter of the Pope, however, informs the archbishop that any Protestants, who may wish to discuss the points of difference between them and the Roman Catholic Church, may come to Rome, and that theologians will be appointed by the Pope, with whom they may confer.

The noted Protestant writer, Merle d'Aubigné, wrote a letter to Arthur Kinnaird, a member of the British House of Commons, in which he urges the Protestant world to resume the work of reformation where, in the second half of the sixteenth century, it was unfortunately interrupted. He proposed that all Protestant Churches of the world should make provision to set apart the 8th of December, 1869 —the day when the Council would be opened —for religious services, in which points like the following be discussed: Jesus Christ the sole head of the Church; the Word of God the sole source and rule of a Christian life; the righteousness of Christ and faith, instead of works and superstitious ceremonies; religious liberty in the place of the Syllabus; a general priesthood in the place of monasticism and celibacy. He also recommended special prayers for the enlightenment of those who still were under the yoke of the Pope. He did not expect, he said, that the Roman Catholic nations would soon join the Protestant Churches, but he hoped that yet a true Christian spirit might cleanse the Church of Rome from its pagan and Jewish elements, so that the Saviour might resume in it the place which to Him alone belongs. A number of Churches, though not, it seems, a considerable one, acted on the 8th of December in accordance with this proposition. In the United States the moderators of the two largest bodies among the Presbyterians (the Old and New School Presbyterians) sent, in accordance with the resolutions passed by the General Assemblies, a joint letter to the Pope, restating in brief and mild words the great doctrinal differences which separate the Roman Catholic from the Protestant branches of Christianity. In Germany, the Church Diet and several other societies passed resolutions explaining why, in their opinion, there can be no hope of a reunion of the Protestant denominations and of Roman Catholicism, as long as the Pope occupies his antiscriptural position. Only in the Church of England a number of clergymen expressed a desire that their Church might be represented in Rome, and treat with the Vatican Council about a reunion.

Within the Catholic Church a profound interest was manifested in the coming Council and more particularly in two questions which the Council was expected to define—the infallibility of the Pope, and the relation of the Church to the state governments. The bishops all over the world notified by pastoral letters the faithful of their dioceses of the Council as one of greatest events in the recent history of the Church from which they expected the greatest results. In this respect they showed an almost unexpected unanimity. Many of them published their pastoral letters in the form of pamphlets or of books. Most of them did not directly refer to the great questions which so much engaged the attention of the Christian world. Some, however, seized the opportunity to make a special plea for the doctrine of papal infallibility, the promulgation of which they hoped would be among the most glorious labors of the Council. Particular attention was attracted by the works of Archbishop Manning, of Westminster, and Archbishop Dechamps, of Malines, in Belgium. By these pleas in favor of infallibility, a few bishops were induced to utter their dissent, denying the opportuneness of promulgating such a doctrine. Foremost among them was the learned Bishop Dupanloup, of Orleans, one of the most famous bishops of the Catholic Church in France. His pamphlet was chiefly directed against the book of the Archbishop of Malines, and, while it dwelt emphatically upon the authority of the General Council and promised an unconditional submission to any thing the Vatican Council might decree, it undertook to show that the reasons adduced by the Arch-

bishop of Malines for a promulgation at this time of the doctrine of infallibility were insufficient. Only one bishop, Monseigneur Maret, Bishop of Sura, *in partibus infidelium*, and Dean of the Theological Faculty of Paris, published a work ("On the General Council and the Public Peace," 2 vols., Paris, 1869) against the doctrine of infallibility itself from the standpoint, as the author expressly states, "of the old Gallican Church." The arguments of this work are in brief as follows:

According to the Holy Scriptures, the Church is a limited monarchy which stands under the common rule of the Pope and the bishops. The history of the Councils is at least as much in favor of the divine right of the bishops as of the supremacy of the Holy Chair. Freedom of discussion, vote by majority, a juridical examination of the apostolic decrees, and, in certain cases, a right to condemn the doctrines and the person of the Pope—these are rights which prove beyond all doubt the participation of the bishops in the sovereign powers of the Holy Father. But these rights do not extend far enough to give the episcopal body a supremacy over the Pope, and the latter therefore exercises, in general, all the privileges of supremacy. He summons the Council, presides over it, dissolves it, and sanctions its decrees. In a word, he always remains the head of the Church. If, however, the changes desired by a certain school are made, the Church will cease to be a limited, and become an absolute monarchy. This would be a complete revolution; but what is truly divine is unchangeable, and consequently, if the constitution of the Church is changed, it ceases to be divine. Pius IX., in his bull, *Ineffabilis Deus*, has himself said of doctrine, *Crescat in eodem sensu, in eadem sententia;* but the new dogma would lead to a development of doctrine *in alio sensu, in alia sententia*. It would therefore amount to a denial of the divinity of the Church. "If it were realized," exclaims the bishop, "what a triumph would it be to the enemies of the Church! They would call the asseverations of centuries, and history itself, as witnesses against Catholicism; she would be crushed by the weight of opposing testimony; the Holy Scriptures, the Fathers, and the Councils, would rise in judgment against her. They would bury us in our shame, and, from the desert, atheism would rise more powerful and threatening than ever."

No other bishop expressed his approval of this work, while quite a number hastened to declare against it.

The doctrine of infallibility called forth among the theologians, lower clergy, and laity of the Church, a more earnest opposition than among the bishops. A considerable sensation was produced by a letter from a noted French pulpit orator, the late Father Hyacinthe, protesting against what he regarded as the ultramontane tendencies prevailing at Rome. Father Hyacinthe, belonging to a family of the name of Loyson, had been for many years a monk of the Order of Barefooted Carmelites. His fame as a preacher having attracted the attention of the present Archbishop of Paris, he was several years ago appointed to preach the Advent course of sermons at Notre-Dame, the Lent course being reserved for the representative of the opposite school of the Church—the Jesuit, Père Felix. His sermons ran chiefly on general topics, such as "Society," "Education," "The Family," "The Church," and attracted general attention by a marked liberalism which met with great applause on the part of some liberals in the Catholic Church and of non-Catholics, but called forth many remonstrances from prominent men in the Church. A speech made at the Peace Congress, held in Paris in 1869, drew upon him a sharp rebuke from his superior, the General of the Carmelite Order. This led him to announce to the Archbishop of Paris the impossibility of his preaching again at Notre-Dame, and soon afterward he published an answer to the General of his Order.

The letter of the General of the Carmelite Order to Father Hyacinthe was as follows:

ROME, *July* 22, 1869.

MY VERY REVEREND FATHER HYACINTHE: I have received your letter of the 9th inst., and in a short time after the speech which you delivered at the Peace League. I have not, happily, found in that speech the heterodox phrase attributed to you. It must be said, however, that it contains some vague propositions, admitting of unfortunate interpretations, and that such a speech does not come well from a monk. The habit of the Carmelite was certainly there no longer in its place. My reverend father and dear friend, you know the great interest I have always taken in you. From the commencement of your sermons at Notre-Dame de Paris, I have earnestly exhorted you not to identify yourself with questions in dispute among Catholics and on which all are not agreed; because, from the moment you attach yourself ostensibly to one side, your ministry became more or less unfruitful with the other.

Now, it is patent that you have made no account of the intimation of your father and superior, as last year you wrote a letter to a club in Paris in which you freely disclosed your opinions in favor of a party, having little wisdom, and in opposition with the sentiments of the Holy Father, the episcopacy, and the clergy in general. I was alarmed, as were also the French clergy. I wrote to you immediately to enable you to see the false path you had entered on, in order to stop you. But in vain, for some months after you authorized from yourself a periodical review in Genoa to publish another letter, that has been the cause of so much vexation to you and me. Lastly, during your last sojourn at Rome, I made you serious observations, and even rather strong reproaches on the false position you were placed in on account of your imprudence, but you had scarcely arrived at Paris when you published, under your own signature, a letter deplored by all, even by your friends.

Lately your presence and speech at the Peace League have caused as great scandal in Catholic Europe as happened about six years ago, on the occasion of your speech at a meeting in Paris. You have, beyond doubt, given some reason for such recriminations by some bold, obscure, and imprudent phrases.

I have done all that I could up to the present to defend and save you. To-day I must think of the interests and honor of our holy order, which, unknown to yourself, you compromise.

You write me from Paris, November 19, 1868: "I avoid mixing the Paris convent and the order of Mount Carmel with these matters." Let me say to you, my dear father, that this is an illusion. You are a monk, and bound to your superiors by solemn vows. We have to answer for you before God and man, and consequently have to take the same measures in your regard as in that of other monks, when your conduct is prejudicial to your soul and our order.

Already in France, Belgium, and even here, some of the bishops, clergy, and faithful, are blaming the superiors of our order for not taking certain measures in your regard, and it is concluded that there is no

authority in our congregation, or that it shares in your opinions and course of action. I do not certainly regret the course I have followed up to the present in regard to you, but matters are arrived at such a point that I would compromise my conscience and the entire order if I do not take more efficacious measures in this matter than I have done in the past.

Meditate in solitude on the great truths of religion, not to preach them, but for the profit of your soul. Ask light from Heaven, with a contrite and humble heart. Address yourself to the Holy Virgin, to our father, St. Joseph, and to our seraphic mother, St. Theresa. A father can well address these words to his son, although he be a great orator. It is a very serious question for you and for us all. I pray to the Saviour that He may deign to accord you His light and grace. I recommend myself to your prayers, and give you my benediction, and I am your very humble servant,

FR. DOMINIQUE DE SAINT JOSEPH,
Superior-General.

The reply of Father Hyacinthe was as follows:

PARIS, Passy, *September* 20, 1869.

MY VERY REVEREND FATHER: During the five years of my ministry at Notre-Dame de Paris, and notwithstanding the open attacks and secret accusations of which I have been the object, your esteem and your confidence have never failed me. I preserve numerous proofs of them, written in your own hand, which apply to my preaching, quite as much as to my person. Whatever may happen, I shall always retain a grateful recollection of them. Now, however, by a sudden change, the cause of which I do not seek in your heart, but in the intrigues of an all-powerful party at Rome, you accuse what you encouraged, you blame what you approved, and you command me to speak a language, or maintain a silence, which would no longer be the full and faithful expression of my conscience. I do not hesitate an instant. I could not reascend the pulpit of Notre-Dame with language perverted by a command, or mutilated by reticence. I express my regret to the intelligent and courageous archbishop who opened the pulpit to me, and who has maintained me in it against the ill-will of the men of whom I have just spoken. I express my regret to the imposing auditory which bestowed upon me its attention, its sympathy, I had almost said, its friendship. I should not be worthy of that auditory, of the bishop, of my conscience, or of God, could I consent to enact such a part before them. I withdraw at the same time from the monastery I live in, and which, under the new circumstances in which I am placed, is changed for me into a prison of the soul. In acting thus I am not unfaithful to my vows; I promised monastical obedience, but within the limits of the honesty of my conscience, and the dignity of my person and ministry. I promised it, subject to that higher law of justice and "royal liberty," which, according to St. James the Apostle, is the proper law of the Christian. It was the most perfect practice of that holy liberty which I went to ask in the cloister more than ten years ago, in the ardor of an enthusiasm free from all human calculation—I cannot add free from all the illusions of youth. If, in exchange for my sacrifices, I am now offered chains, it is not merely my right, it is my duty to reject them. The present moment is a solemn one. The Church is passing through one of the most violent, the most obscure, and the most decisive crises of its existence here below. For the first time in three hundred years, an Œcumenical Council is not only convoked, but declared necessary. These are the expressions of the Holy Father. It is not at such a moment that a preacher of the Gospel, even the humblest, can consent to keep silence, like those mute dogs of Israel, faithless guardians, which the prophet reproaches because unable to bark; *canes muti, non valentes latrare*. The saints never kept silent. I am not one of them; but, nevertheless, I am of their race—*filii sanctorum sumus*—and I have always longed to leave my footsteps, my tears, and, if need be, my blood, in the traces where they have left theirs. I raise, therefore, before the Holy Father and the Council, my protest as a Christian and a priest, against those doctrines and those practices which are called Roman, but which are not Christian, and which, by their encroachments, always more audacious and more baneful, tend to change the constitution of the Church, the basis and the form of its teaching, and even the spirit of its piety. I protest against the divorce, as impious as it is insensate, sought to be effected between the Church, which is our Eternal Mother, and the society of the nineteenth century, of which we are the temporal children, and toward which we have also duties and regards. I protest against that opposition, more radical and more frightful still, to human nature, attacked and outraged by these false doctors, in its most indestructible and most holy aspirations. I protest, above all, against the sacrilegious perversion of the Gospel of the Son of God Himself, the spirit and the letter of which are alike trampled under foot by the Pharisaism of the new law. It is my most profound conviction that, if France in particular, and the Latin races in general, are given up to social, moral, and religious anarchy, the principal cause undoubtedly is not Catholicism itself, but the manner in which Catholicism has for a long time been understood and practised. I appeal to the Council which is about to assemble to seek remedies for the excess of our ills, and to apply them with as much force as gentleness. But if fears which I will not share were to be realized—if the august assembly had no more liberty in its deliberations than it already has in its preparations—in a word, if it were to be deprived of the essential character of an Œcumenical Council, I would cry aloud to God and man to claim another, really assembled in the Holy Spirit, not in the spirit of party; really representing the Universal Church, not the silence of some, and the oppression of others. "For the hurt of the daughter of my people am I hurt. I am black; astonishment hath taken hold of me. Is there no balm in Gilead? is there no physician there? Why, then, is not the health of the daughter of my people recovered?" (*Jeremiah* viii.). And finally, I appeal to your tribunal. O Lord Jesus! *ad tuum Domine Jesu tribunal appello*. It is in your presence that I write these lines; it is at your feet, after much prayer, much reflection, much suffering, much waiting, it is at your feet that I sign them. I feel that, if men condemn them upon the earth, you will approve them in heaven. To live or to die—that is sufficient for me.

FR. HYACINTHE.

The response of the General of the Carmelite Order to Father Hyacinthe was as follows:

ROME, *September* 26, 1869.

REVEREND FATHER: Your letter of the 20th only reached me yesterday. You will easily imagine how deeply it afflicted me, and with what bitterness it filled my soul. I was far from expecting you to fall to such a depth. Therefore my heart bleeds with grief, and is filled with an immense pity for you, and I raise my humble supplications to the God of all mercies that He may enlighten you, pardon you, and lead you back from that deplorable and fatal path on which you have entered. It is very true, my reverend father, that, during the last five years, in spite of my personal opinions, which are in general contrary to yours on many religious questions—as I have more than once expressed to you—in spite of the counsels I have given to you on several occasions relative to your preachings, and to which, excepting in the case of your Lent sermons at Rouen, you paid but little attention, so long as you did not openly depart from the limits imposed by Christian

prudence on a priest, and especially on a monk, I always manifested toward you sentiments of esteem and friendship, and encouraged you in your preachings. But if that is true, so also is it that, from the moment in which I perceived that you were beginning to go beyond these limits, I was forced to begin on my side to express to you my fears, and to mark to you my dissatisfaction. You must remember, my reverend father, that I did so especially last year, about the month of October, when passing through France, relative to a letter addressed by you to a club in Paris. I then expressed to you what annoyance that writing had caused me. Your letters published in Italy were also very painful to me, and also drew on you from me observations and reproaches when you last visited Rome.

Lastly, your presence and speech at the Peace League filled up the measure of my apprehension and my grief, and forced me to write you the letter of the 22d of July last, by which I formally ordered you in future not to print any letter or speech, to speak in public or elsewhere than in the churches, to be present in the chambers, or take part in the Peace League, or any other meeting, the object of which was not exclusively Catholic and religious. My prohibition, as you see, did not in the least refer to your sermons in the pulpit. On the contrary, I desired you in future to devote solely and entirely your talents and your eloquence to teachings in the Church. Consequently it was with painful surprise that I read in your letter that "you could not reascend the pulpit at Notre-Dame, with language perverted by dictation or mutilated by reticence."

You must be aware, reverend father, that I have never forbidden you to preach, that I have never given you any order or imposed any restrictions on your teachings. I only took the liberty of giving to you some counsels, and of addressing to you some observations, especially on the subject of your last lectures, as in my quality of superior it was my right and my duty to do. You were, consequently, as free to continue your preaching at Paris, or elsewhere, as in preceding years, before my letter of the 22d July last; and, if you have resolved not to reappear in the pulpit of Notre-Dame de Paris, it is voluntary and of your own free will, and not by virtue of measures adopted by me toward you. Your letter of the 20th announces to me that you are about to leave your monastery in Paris. I learn, indeed, by the journals and by private letters, that you have already left it, and have cast off your gown, without any ecclesiastical authorization.

If the fact is unfortunately true, I would remark to you, my reverend father, that you must be aware that the monk who quits his monastery and the dress of his order without the regular permission from the competent authority, is considered as a real apostate, and consequently incurs the canonical penalties mentioned in Cap. *Periculoso*. The punishment is, as you are aware, the greater excommunication, *latæ sententiæ*, and, according to our constitutions, confirmed by the Holy See, part iii., chapter XXXV., No. 12, those who leave the community without authorization incur the greater excommunication, *ipso facto*, and the note of infamy. *Qui a congregations recedunt, præter, apostasium, ipso facto excommunicationem et infamiæ notam incurrunt.*

As your superior, and in accordance with the prescription of the apostolic decrees, which order me to employ even censure to bring you back to the bosom of the order you have so deplorably abandoned, I am under the necessity of calling on you to return to the monastery in Paris which you have quitted within ten days from the date of the present letter, observing to you that, if you do not obey this order within the time stated, you will be deprived canonically of all the charges you hold in the Order of Barefooted Carmelites, and will remain under the censure established by the common law and by our rules.

May you, my reverend father, listen to our voice and to the cry of your conscience; may you promptly and seriously descend within yourself, see the depth of your fall, and by an heroic resolution manfully recover yourself, repair the great scandal you have caused, and by that means console the Church, your mother, you have so much afflicted. That is the most sincere and ardent desire of my heart; it is also that which your afflicted friends, and myself, your father, ask with all the fervor of our souls of God Almighty, of God so full of mercy and goodness.

FR. DOMINIQUE DE SAINT JOSEPH.

While the letter of Father Hyacinthe met with immense applause outside the Catholic Church and among the liberal newspapers, it was generally and severely censured by nearly all the Catholic press and by all the parties within the Church. The *Correspondant* of Paris, the organ of Count Montalembert, Prince Broglie, and other friends of Father Hyacinthe, blamed this unexpected move as too rash and extreme, saying that Father Hyacinthe would have served their common cause better by remaining in his place, preaching whatever he would have to say from the pulpit of Notre-Dame. Bishop Dupanloup immediately addressed to him the following letter:

ORLEANS, *September* 25, 1869.

MY DEAR COLLEAGUE: As soon as I was informed from Paris of the step which you were about to take, I endeavored, as you know, to spare you at any cost what would prove a great fault and misfortune for yourself as well as a profound affliction for the Church. I sent off on the instant, and in the night, an old fellow-student and friend of yours to prevent you, if that were possible. But it was too late; the scandal had been consummated, and from this moment you can measure by the grief of all the friends of the Church, and the joy of her enemies, the extent of the mischief which you have wrought. At present I can do no more than pray to God, and conjure you to pause on the declivity on which you now stand, leading as it does to abysses which your soul, in its trouble, has not discerned. You have suffered, I know; but allow me to tell you, Father Lacordaire and Father de Ravignan had to bear more than you, and they raised themselves to a higher rank in patience and fortitude, through their love of the Church and Jesus Christ. How is it that you did not feel what an injury you were doing to the Church, your mother, by these accusing predictions? And what an insult to our Saviour to place yourself, as you are now doing, alone, face to face in opposition to Him, and in contempt of His successors! But I am willing to hope and believe that this aberration will be only a transient one. Return among us; after having caused this affliction to the Catholic world, give it a great consolation and a striking example. Go and throw yourself at the feet of the Holy Father. His arms will be open to receive you, and in clasping you to his paternal heart he will restore to you the peace of your conscience and the honor of your life. Receive from him who was your bishop, and who will never cease to love your soul, this testimonial and these counsels of sincere and religious affection.

FELIX, Bishop of Orleans.

To this Father Hyacinthe made the following reply:

PARIS, *September* 26, 1869.

MONSEIGNEUR: I am much touched by the feeling which dictated the letter you addressed to me, and I am most grateful for the prayers you so kindly put up in my behalf, but I cannot accept either your reproaches or your counsels. What you qualify as a great fault committed I call a great duty accomplished.

Be pleased to accept, monseigneur, the homage of the respectful sentiments with which I remain, in Jesus Christ and His Church, your very humble and obedient servant, Brother HYACINTHE.

Father Hyacinthe soon after left for the United States, where he was received with marked attention. He declared, however, that, though a decided opponent of ultramontanism, he was determined to remain within the fold of the Roman Catholic Church. He remained in the United States for a few weeks, and then returned to France. He was subsequently reduced from the monastic state to that of a secular by the Pope.

Larger than in France was the number of prominent opponents to papal infallibility among the theological scholars of Germany. A considerable number of the leading theologians and Catholic periodicals appeared to consider an earnest and a vigorous combat against the promulgation of this doctrine as a duty they owed to the Church. Prominent among the publications of this class was the book published under the pseudonym of "Janus," and entitled "The Pope and the Council." Men of all parties professed to be astonished at an immense amount of scholarship displayed in it. It was a declared opinion that only a life-long study of Church history would enable a scholar to write such a book, and that a Church historian of no ordinary ability must either be its author or must have aided in its compilation. As the senior of the Church historians of Germany, Dr. Döllinger, of Munich, had already publicly avowed himself a determined opponent of the promulgation, he was erroneously believed to be, if not the author, at least connected with the authorship.

The work is a most violent attack on the authority possessed in the Church by the Pope on the one hand and the Council on the other, and the relation of the two. "For thirteen centuries," says the author, "an incomprehensible silence on this fundamental article reigned throughout the whole Church and her literature. None of the ancient confessions of faith, no catechism, none of the patristic writings composed for the instruction of the people, contain a syllable about the Pope, still less any hint that all certainty of faith and doctrine depends on him." The book then endeavors to show that not a single question of doctrine for the first thousand years was finally decided by the Popes; that in none of the early controversies did they take any part at all; and that their interposition, when they began to interpose, was often far from felicitous. Pope Zosimus, the book says, commended the Pelagian teaching of Celestius; Pope Julian affirmed the orthodoxy of the Sabellian Marcellus of Ancyra; Pope Liberius subscribed an Arian creed; Pope Vigilius contradicted himself three times running on a question of faith; Pope Honorius lent the whole weight of his authority to the support of the newly-introduced Monothelite heresy, and was solemnly anathematized by three Œcumenical Councils for doing so. Nor do these "errors and contradictions of the Popes" grow by any means fewer or less important as time goes on. Neither, again, did the Roman Pontiffs possess, in the ancient constitution of the Church, any of those powers which are now held to be inherent in their sovereign office, and which must undoubtedly be reckoned among the essential attributes of absolute sovereignty. They convoked none of the General Councils, and only presided, by their legates, at three of them, nor were the canons enacted there held to require their confirmation. They had neither legislative, administrative, nor judicial power in the Church, nor was any further efficacy attributed to their excommunication than to that of any other bishop. No special prerogatives were held to have been bequeathed to them by St. Peter, and the only duty considered to devolve on them in virtue of their primacy was that of watching over the observance of the canons. The limited right of hearing appeals, granted to them by the Council of Sardica, in 347, was avowedly an innovation, of purely ecclesiastical origin, and moreover was never admitted or exercised in Africa or the East. Many national Churches, like the Armenian, the Syro-Persian, the Irish, and the ancient British, were independent of any influence of Rome. When first something like the papal system was put into words by an Eastern Patriarch, St. Gregory, the greatest and best of all the early Popes, repudiated the idea as a wicked blasphemy. Not one of the Fathers explains the passages of the New Testament about St. Peter in the ultramontane sense; and the Tridentine profession of faith binds all the clergy to interpret Scripture in accordance with their unanimous consent. Hence, concludes the author, "To prove the doctrine of papal infallibility, nothing less is required than a complete falsification of Church history."

It was admitted on both sides that the book was the most able work that the opponents of the Council could make against the infallibility question. To refute such a book would, of course, require some time and space; and the most important replies did therefore not appear before the close of the year, and will be referred to in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1870.

In view of the formidable opposition to the promulgation, shown by the German theologians, the National Council of the Bishops of Germany, held at Fulda, in September, became a subject of general interest. The pastoral letters issued by the assembled bishops aimed particularly at allaying the uneasiness which the bishops were aware had spread in large circles. They reminded the faithful of their dioceses that "never and never shall and can a General Council establish a dogma not contained in Scripture or in the Apostolical traditions. *** Never and never shall and

can a General Council proclaim doctrines in contradiction to the principles of justice, to the right of the state and its authorities to culture (*Gesittung*), and the true interests of science (*Wissenschaft*), or to the legitimate freedom and well-being of nations. *** Neither need any one fear that the General Council will thoughtlessly and hastily frame resolutions which needlessly would put it in antagonism to existing circumstances, and to the wants of the present times; or that it would, in the manner of enthusiasts, endeavor to transplant into the present times, views, customs, and institutions, of times gone by."

In reply to an insinuation that there would not be the fullest liberty of debate, the bishops say: "the bishops of the Catholic Church will never and never forget at the General Council, on this most important occasion of their office and calling, the holiest of their duties, the duty of bearing testimony to truth; they will, remembering the Apostolic vow, that he who desires to please men is not the servant of Christ, remembering the account which they will soon have to give before the throne of the Divine Judge, know no other line of conduct but that dictated by their faith and their conscience." With admirable wisdom the bishops succeeded in so framing their letter as to receive the approval of both parties. The principal organ of those urging the promulgation of infallibility, the *Civiltà Cattolica* of Rome, warmly recommended the letter, while the opponents of promulgation received it with great joy as a momentous testimony against an opinion which they contended was, among the Catholics of Germany, extremely unpopular, and as an indication that, as members of the Councils, the great majority of the German bishops would be found among the earnest opponents.

In October the bishops began to arrive. The first were from the East, who had set out early. The European and Western bishops began to pour in only in the latter portion of November. By the first of December, fully five hundred had arrived, and the week that followed saw two hundred more. Every courtesy was shown them. As a train crossed the frontier into the Pontifical States, an officer ascertained the names of all the bishops, telegraphed the information to Rome, and, on their arrival, they found other officials ready to welcome them, and to escort them in carriages to their several destinations.

On December 2d, the Pope delivered to the bishops then in Rome, assembled in the Sistine Chapel, an allocution in preparation for the Council; and they received printed copies of an apostolical letter, dated November 27th, settling some matters for the good order of the Council and the dispatch of business. (*See* the text of the *allocution* of December 2d, and of the apostolical letter of November 27th, in PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.) With a copy of this letter, the bishops also received pamphlets containing the forms of prayers to be used, and a detailed account of the ceremonial to be followed, all based on an extract from the ceremonials of the ancient councils. The following is a translation of the last-named document, issued by Aloisius Ferrari, Prothonotary Apostolic, Prefect of Ceremonies:

On the fourth day of the week, the 8th of December of the year 1869, the Feast of the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin Mary, at half-past 8 A. M., the celebration of the Œcumenical Vatican Council will be solemnly begun with devout prayer in the chapel over the portico of the Basilica of St. Peter.

At the appointed hour all will meet at the Apostolic Vatican Palace.

The most Eminent and most Rev. Lords the Cardinals, and the most Rev. Lords the Patriarchs will vest in the *Aula Paramentorum*; the most Rev. Lords the Primates, Archbishops, Bishops, and Abbots who have place in the Council by privilege, both of the Latin and Oriental rites, will assume the vestments proper to their order and rite in the *Musæum lapidarium*, viz., those of the Latin rite, white vestments and mitres of linen; Cardinals, mitres of silk; those of the Oriental rites will wear their usual vestments: all will then immediately proceed to the chapel over the portico of the Basilica of St. Peter to await the coming of our Most Holy Lord Pope Pius the Ninth.

The senior of the Cardinal Priests, the two Cardinal Deacons who assist the Pope, the Cardinal Deacon appointed to sing the Gospel at the opening of the Council, the two Bishops assisting the Supreme Pontiff with the Book and Candle, the Apostolic Subdeacon Auditor of the Rota, will also put on white vestments in the Pauline Chapel, the Cardinal Priest excepted, who will put on a cope; and all will await His Holiness, together with two Prothonotaries Apostolic in cappas, and the acolytes.

The Supreme Pontiff having vested and put on the *mitra preciosa*, or precious mitre, will go to the before-mentioned chapel; and, after the first verse of the hymn *Veni Creator Spiritus* has been sung, a procession, with prayers, will be begun and finished in the manner prescribed in the *Ordo* and *Methodus celebrandi Concilium*.

The Most Holy Father, on entering the Basilica, will descend from the *Sella Gestatoria* (or platform on which he has been carried), and, after adoring the most august Sacrament exposed at the high altar, at the end of the hymn *Veni Creator Spiritus*, will sing the versicles and prayers, and will then go to the Hall of the Council, and the Mass of the Immaculate Conception of the Blessed Virgin Mary, with the prayer of the Holy Ghost, will be celebrated by the Most Eminent and Rev. Cardinal Dean of the Sacred College.

When the prayer *Placeat* has been said by the Cardinal Celebrant at the end of the Mass, the Most Rev. Lord Archbishop the preacher, after asking for an Indulgence from the Supreme Pontiff, will address the Fathers from a pulpit, and will then publish the indulgence.

The Supreme Pontiff having given the benediction, will put off the cope, and will put on all the sacred vestments, just as if he were going to celebrate a solemn Pontifical Mass.

Then, after the performance of the usual homage, the prayers of the Council will be begun, and, after the versicle *Benedicamus Domino*, all and every who have not the right of being present at the Session of the Council will go out of the Hall, and the door will be shut.

The formal opening of the Council* took

* The following account is abridged from a letter of the Rev. Father Hecker to the *Catholic World* of New York, and published by that periodical February, 1870.

place on the morning of the 8th of December. At half-past seven, the cardinals, archbishops, and bishops, began to gather in the Vatican Palace, where they robed, putting on white copes and mitres, and then passed to the great hall at the front, and immediately over the vestibule of St. Peter's. Here the masters of ceremony assigned to each one his proper place, and they awaited the coming of the sovereign pontiff. When he appeared, all knelt in prayer. In a clear and sonorous voice he intoned the *Veni Creator Spiritus*. The choir took up the strain, the bishops arose, and commenced to move in procession back to the Vatican Palace, through the ducal hall, down the unequalled Scala Regia, and into the vestibule of St. Peter's. The Pope, and the cardinals with him, knelt at the main altar as the bishops had done, and waited until the last strophe of the hymn, *Veni Sancte Spiritus*, was finished by the choir. He arose, chanted the versicle and prayer to the Holy Ghost, and then, preceded by the cardinals, also entered the council-hall. They passed each to his proper place, the pontiff to a *prie-Dieu* prepared for him in the middle, to await the commencement of the high mass. This should have been celebrated by Cardinal Mattei, the dean of the College of Cardinals, but, his age and infirmities being too great to permit so great an exertion, the next in rank, Cardinal Patrizi, took his place and was the celebrant. The pontiff approached the altar with him, recited the *Judica* and the *Confiteor*, and then retired to his own seat, and the cardinal ascended to the altar and continued the mass. Before the last gospel, a portable pulpit was brought out near the altar; Mgr. Passavalli, Archbishop of Iconium, ascended it, wearing cope and mitre, and preached the introductory sermon. The sermon over, the Pope gave the solemn blessing, the gospel of St. John was recited, and the mass was over.

The altar being now clear, the attendants brought in a rich, throne-like stand, and placed it on the altar in the centre. Monsignor Fessler, secretary of the Council, attended by his assistant, brought in procession a large book of the gospels, elegantly bound, and placed it on the throne. The Pope then assumed his full pontifical robes. The cardinals and all the prelates, in their proper order, approached, one by one, to pay him homage, kissing his hand or the stole he wore. This over, all knelt while the pontiff chanted the prayer, *Adsumus, Domine*. Four chanters next intoned the litany of the saints in the strains of Gregorian chant. When the litany was terminated, the Pope recited the prayers that follow it. Cardinal Borromeo then, acting as deacon, chanted the gospel taken from Luke x., narrating the mission of the disciples. The assembly were then seated, and the Holy Father, himself seated and wearing his mitre, delivered a discourse or allocution.* At the conclusion of this discourse all knelt, and the Holy Father again intoned the *Veni Creator Spiritus*. The Pope sang the versicles and prayer that follow it, and all again were seated. The secretary now mounted the pulpit and read aloud the first proposed decree, "That this Holy Vatican Council be and is now opened." The fathers all answered, *Placet;* the Pope gave his sanction; the formal decree was passed and proclaimed, and the notaries instructed to make an official record of it.

A second decree was similarly proposed, voted, and sanctioned, fixing the second public session for the festival of the Epiphany, January 6, 1870. This closed the proceedings of the first public session. The Holy Father arose and intoned the solemn *Te Deum* or thanksgiving.

The preliminary arrangements for the transactions of the Council had been made by an apostolic letter* (*Multiplices inter*) of November 27th. Chapter ii. of this letter states that the Pope would appoint a congregation to which any member of the Council would deliver in writing any proposal which in his opinion would lead to the general benefit. This congregation was announced to consist of 12 cardinals (5 residents of Rome, 3 other Italians, 1 French, 1 Spanish, 1 German, 1 Irish), and 14 prelates (2 patriarchs from the East, 1 French, 2 Spanish, 4 Italians, 1 South American, 1 from the United States, 1 Mexican, 1 English, 1 Belgian, 1 German).

The first general congregation, according to an announcement made at the first public session, was held on the 10th of December. To the general congregations the bishops come, not in procession, but singly, or in groups of two, three, or four, as they may chance to arrive at the door of St. Peter's. They are robed not in cope and mitre, but simply in rochet and mantelletta. At 9 A. M. the main door is closed. Whoever comes late must enter by a side-door. Mass of the Holy Ghost is celebrated by some one of the prelates, without music. At its conclusion, the presiding cardinals take their places. All kneel while the chief cardinal reads the prayers prescribed for the occasion. When he concludes, all rise, are seated, and the congregation is opened. On December 10th, only four of the presiding cardinals were in their places. The chief one, Cardinal de Reisach, was absent in Switzerland, whither he had gone for his health, and died there. Cardinal de Luca, the next in rank, took his place, and made a brief address to the fathers in Latin. The bishops voted by ballot, first, for the five members of the committee on excuses, and then, a second time, for the five members of the committee on complaints. As the fathers voting were over seven hundred, as each one voted for ten persons, and as the voting was very scattering, the ballots were placed in boxes, which were publicly sealed; and a committee, consisting of the senior patriarch, the senior primate, the senior archbishop, the senior bishop, and the senior mitred

* We have given this allocution in the article PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

* *See* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.

abbot, was appointed to superintend the counting of these votes the next day, and to superintend the counting hereafter of the votes to be cast in the coming elections. The following canons have appeared as a *schema* delivered to the Council. They could not have been honestly obtained, such is the secrecy observed. They are almost the very questions summed up in the syllabus of December 8, 1864.

THE CHURCH OF CHRIST.

CANON I. Whosoever says that the religion of Christ is not existing and expressed in any community established by Christ Himself, but that it can be rightly held and exercised by each individual for himself, and without regard to any community which constitute the Church of Christ, let him be anathema.

CANON II. Whosoever says the Church has not received from Christ any positive and unchangeable organization, but that it is, just like any other human community, mutable and transformable, according to the changes of the times, let him be anathema.

CANON III. Whosoever says the Church of Divine Promises is not an external and visible community, but a purely internal and invisible one, let him be anathema.

CANON IV. Whosoever says that the true Church is not a body in itself, but consists of different and dispersed denominations, and is diffused throughout them all; or that the different communities opposed to each other in their professions of faith, and divided in their spirit, equally form members or parts of the one common Church of Christ, let him be anathema.

CANON V. Whosoever says that the Church of Christ is not an institution absolutely necessary for reaching eternal happiness, or that men can arrive at this blessing through the exercise of any other kind of religion, let him be anathema.

CANON VI. Whosoever says that the authority with which the Catholic Church proscribes and condemns all religious sects separated from its communion is not prescribed by Divine right; or that about religious truths only opinions, not certainties, can exist, and that, therefore, all religious sects are to be tolerated, let him be anathema.

CANON VII. Whosoever says that this very Church of Christ can fall into darkness or error, and so deviate from the Holy Truth in faith and morals, and fall away from its original institution into depravity and corruption, let him be anathema.

CANON VIII. Whosoever says the present Church of Christ is not the last and highest institution for reaching eternal happiness, but that there is another to be expected through a new and more complete effusion of the Holy Spirit, let him be anathema.

CANON IX. Whosoever says that the infallibility of the Church is restricted only to things contained in the Divine Revelation, but is not extended to other truths which are necessary to the integral maintenance of the Revelation, let him be anathema.

CANON X. Whosoever says that the Church is not a perfect institution, but merely a corporation, or that it is of such a nature, with regard to civil society or the state, as to be subject to the temporal power, let him be anathema.

CANON XI. Whosoever says that the Church divinely instituted is like a society of equals, and that the bishops, having offices and duties, possess no governmental power bestowed upon them by Divine right, and which they can freely exercise, let him be anathema.

CANON XII. Whosoever says that Christ, our Saviour and Sovereign, has conferred upon the Church the power to direct only by advice and persuasion those who turn aside, not to compel them by orders, by coercion, and by external verdicts and statutory punishments, let him be anathema.

CANON XIII. Whosoever says that the true Church of Christ, out of which there is no salvation, is any other than the Holy Catholic and Roman Apostolic Church, let him be anathema.

CANON XIV. Whosoever says that the Holy Apostle Peter was not appointed by Christ as the first of the Apostles, and as the visible head of the whole Church militant, or that he had only the honorary supremacy, but not the true and real jurisdiction, let him be anathema.

CANON XV. Whosoever says that it is not according to Christ's own will that St. Peter has permanent successors in his supremacy over the whole Church, or that the Roman Pope is not the successor of Peter in this primacy by Divine right, let him be anathema.

CANON XVI. Whosoever says that the Roman Pope has only the office of superintendence and direction, not the highest and fullest power of jurisdiction over the whole Church, or that his power is not direct and legitimate over the whole of the various churches, let him be anathema.

CANON XVII. Whosoever says that the independent church authority, as established by the Catholic Church and bestowed upon her by Christ, and the supreme civil power cannot exist together, so as to preserve the due rights of both, let him be anathema.

CANON XVIII. Whosoever says that the power necessary for the government of a civil state does not emanate from God, or that one is not bound by Divine law to submit himself to such power, or that such power is repugnant to the natural liberty of men, let him be anathema.

CANON XIX. Whosoever says that all rights existing between men arise from the political state, and that there is no other authority besides that constituted, let him be anathema.

CANON XX. Whosoever says that the supreme rule for public and social conduct is in the law of the political state, or in the public opinion of men, or that the judgments of the Church concerning what is lawful and unlawful do not extend to such actions, or that there may be something allowed by civil rights that is not allowed by Church rights, let him be anathema.

CANON XXI. Whosoever says that the laws of the Church have no binding power, except so far as they are confirmed by the sanction of the civil power, or that the civil power has the right, consequent on its high authority, to pronounce judgment or decisions in matters of religion, let him be anathema.

The concluding prayer was said, and the meeting adjourned.

On the 14th of December a second general congregation was held. Two documents were distributed to the bishops. The first was a "constitution" on the election of the Roman pontiff, should the Apostolic See become vacant during the Œcumenical Council, dated December 4, as follows:

Since full power to feed, direct, and govern the Universal Church was given to the Roman Pontiffs in the person of St. Peter, Prince of the Apostles, by Our Lord Jesus Christ, the very peace and unity of the Church might easily be imperilled if, the Apostolic See being vacant, any doubt or uncertainty should arise concerning the election of the new Pontiff.

To avert so untoward an event, Constitutions have been promulgated by the Roman Pontiffs, Our predecessors, and particularly by Alexander III., of blessed memory, in the Third General Council of Lateran (Cap. Licet De Electione); by B. Gregory X. in the Second General Council of Lyons (Cap. *Ubi* De Electione in 6); by Clement V. (Clement, 2 De Electione); by Gregory XV. (Constit. Decet Romanum Pontificem); by Urban VIII. (Constit. Ad. Romani Pontificis V. Kal. Februarii, 1625); and by Clement XII. (Constit. Apostolatus IV. nonas

Octobris, 1732), in which, among many other things there prescribed in order that a matter of so great moment should be performed in the most suitable manner, it is declared and decreed that, without any exception whatever, the election of the Sovereign Pontiff is the affair of the College of Cardinals alone.

Turning these things over in Our mind, now that the Œcumenical and General Vatican Council convoked by the Apostolical Letters, beginning with the words *Æterni Patris*, of the 29th June, 1868, is on the point of being solemnly inaugurated, it appeared to Us Our Apostolic duty to prevent and cut off from henceforth all occasion of discord and discussion concerning the election of the Sovereign Pontiff, if that it should be pleasing to the Divine Will to call Us out of this life during the said Council.

Moved further by the examples of Julius II., Our predecessor who, as is known in history (Raynald, *Annal. Eccles.*, ad annum 1513, No. VII.), being stricken by fatal illness at the time that the Vth Council of Lateran was sitting, called the Cardinals around him, and, solicitous for the legitimate election of his successor, in their presence ordered that this should be done, not by the said Council, but by their College alone, as in effect was the case at the death of the aforesaid Julius; and also by the examples of Our other predecessors, Paul III. and Pius IV., the former of whom by Letters Apostolic of the 19th of November, 1544, the latter by similar letters of the 22d September, 1561, providing for the case of their death during the celebration of the Council of Trent, decreed that, in case of the election of a new Pontiff becoming necessary, it should be done by the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church alone, entirely excluding all participation whatever of the Council. And, further, after mature deliberation and diligent scrutiny concerning this matter, made together with not a few of our Venerable Brethren the Cardinals of the same Holy Roman Church, of Our certain knowledge, by Our own will, and in the fulness of Our Apostolic power, we declare, decree, and establish that, if it should please God to put an end to Our mortal exile during the aforesaid General Council of the Vatican, the election of the new Sovereign Pontiff, in whatever state or position the Council may be at the time, is only to be made by the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, and not by the said Council, all other persons being equally excluded from participating in the said election in the character of deputy for any one whomsoever, even under authority of the Council itself.

Further, in order that this election by the aforesaid Cardinals, being relieved of all impediments, and of all occasion of perturbation and dissension, may proceed more freely and expeditiously, with the same knowledge and fulness of Apostolical powers, We also decree and establish that, if We should die during the aforesaid Vatican Council, the said Council, in whatever state or position it may be found, should understand that it is at once and immediately suspended and prorogued, as with these Our letters We intend now to suspend the same unto a period to be hereafter fixed upon; in other words, that without any delay it should immediately cease to hold any Assembly, Congregation, or Session, to make any decree or canon, nor for any reason or cause, even though it should appear of great importance, can it proceed in any matter until the new Pontiff, canonically elected by the Sacred College of Cardinals, shall believe it due time to, and of his Sovereign Authority intimate the reopening and continuation of, the same Council.

Deeming it, moreover, opportune that the things which We have ordained on occasion of the aforesaid Vatican Council, whether with regard to the election of the Sovereign Pontiff, or with regard to the suspension of the said Council, should furnish a certain and stable *norma* to serve in perpetuity on all similar occasions, with equal knowledge and power as above, We decree and establish that, in the future, whenever the death of the Roman Pontiff occurs during the celebration of whatever Œcumenical Council, whether held in Rome, or in whatever other place in the world, the election of the new Pontiff should be made always exclusively by the College of Cardinals alone, according to the manner above defined: and that the same Council, as soon as it shall receive certain news of the death of the Pontiff, should understand that it is *ipso facto* suspended and prorogued until the new Pontiff, canonically elected, shall ordain and renew that it continue its sessions.

We also decree that these presents should remain and be always valid and in force, and never at any time, under whatsoever title or cause of nullity, or defect of Our intention, or under any plea of law whatsoever, should be invalidated or called in question in any manner; and we decree that henceforth all attempts whatever to set aside the above depositions, made by what authority soever, the Apostolic See being vacant, shall be null and void, even though by the said Vatican Council itself, as by any future Œcumenical Council, and that, even though if with the unanimous consent of the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church.

Nevertheless, whenever it shall be necessary to refer to the Constitution of Our predecessor, Alexander III., published in the Council of Lateran, and commencing *Licet de Vitanda*, or any other Constitution Apostolic, special or general, and published in the General Councils, and even though included in the body of the laws, and under whatever term or form, and howsoever binding it shall be, as if they were inserted word by word in the present Constitution, except in those parts which are contrary to these presents, *which*, in that case, shall remain in their full vigor.

To no one, then, is it permitted to violate this page of declarations, ordinances, statutes and decrees, and of Our will, nor presume to contradict them, which, if any one should attempt it, let him know that he will incur the displeasure of Almighty God, and of His Holy Apostles, Peter and Paul.

Given at St. Peter's in Rome, 4th December, 1869, and the twenty-fourth of Our Pontificate.

(Signed) CARDINAL MATTEI, *pro-datario*.
CARDINAL PARACCIN-CLARELLI.

The second was a bull revoking and annulling many of the censures and penalties enacted in times past by the canon law against various offences. It is dated October 12, and is as follows:

Pius, Bishop, Servant of the Servants of God, *ad perpetuam memoriam*.

It behooves the moderation of the Apostolic See to retain that which has been salutarily constituted in the Canons of old, so that, if sacred dispensations are rendered necessary by the altered circumstances of the times, the said Apostolic See should provide and apply a remedy in accordance with its supreme power.

We have hence observed, in the course of late years, that the number of ecclesiastical censures incurred *ipso facto*, which have been holily inflicted and promulgated in maintenance of the discipline and integrity of the Church, and in order to curb and correct the unbridled license of evil-doers, have little by little increased in number and volume; that some causes of infliction of some can no longer arise, through the changes of times and manners, and thus they no longer possess their original use and opportuneness, and that hence they give rise to various doubts, anxieties, and scruples of conscience, both to the faithful and to those who have the charge of their souls.

We, therefore, desiring to repair these inconveniences, have ordained that a list should be drawn up of such cases, and be presented to Us, in order that, after diligent examination, we might establish which

it would be useful to preserve and retain, and which to modify or abrogate.

This list having been made, and the counsel of our Venerable Brethren, the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, deputed as the general inquisitors of the faith for the whole Christian world, having been taken; and after long and patient examination of every matter by Our own movement, of Our certain knowledge, with serious deliberation, and in the fulness of Our Apostolic authority, We decree by this constitution, which is to be of perpetual authority, that of all censures of every kind whether of excommunication, suspension, or interdict, which have hitherto been inflicted *latæ sententiæ*, and incurred *ipso facto*, no other shall henceforth remain in force, saving only those inserted in this Constitution, and that only in the manner in which they are here inserted; declaring at the same time that the same, not only in so far as the canons of old accord with this Our Constitution, but should receive all their force in virtue of this Our Constitution itself, and as if they were now for the first time published.

EXCOMMUNICATIONS LATÆ SENTENTIÆ SPECIALLY RESERVED TO THE ROMAN PONTIFF.

We declare that henceforth such are subject to excommunication *latæ sententiæ*, specially reserved to the Roman Pontiff:

1. Who apostatize from the Christian Faith; and all and singular, heretics, whatever their name, and to what sect soever belonging, and those who believe in them, and their receivers, promoters, and defenders.

2. All, and singular, those who knowingly read without authority of the Apostolic See the books of the said apostates and heretics, arguing in favor of heresy, or the books of what author soever prohibited by name by Letters Apostolic, and those who hold, print, or defend, such books in whatsoever manner.

3. Schismatics and those who with persistence withdraw themselves from the obedience of the Roman Pontiff of the time being.

4. All, and singular, and of whatever state, dignity, and condition, those who appeal against the ordinances and decrees of the Roman Pontiffs of the time being to a future Universal Council, as also those by whose aid, counsel, or favoring, such an appeal shall be made.

5. All those who may kill, wound, smite, arrest, imprison, restrain, or hostilely persecute, the Cardinals of the Holy Roman Church, the Patriarchs, Archbishops, Bishops, Legates, or Nuncios of the Apostolic See, or drive them from their dioceses, territory, estates, or dominions; as well as those who ordain such things, ratify them, or lend their aid, counsel, or furtherance.

6. Those who impede, directly or indirectly, the exercise of ecclesiastical jurisdiction, whether by means of local or foreign courts of law, or who have recourse to the secular courts with this end, or who procure, or publish, or lend aid, counsel, or furtherance to any ordinances to this end.

7. Those who constrain, directly, or indirectly, lay judges to drag before their tribunals ecclesiastical persons, contrary to the dispositions of the Canons, as also those who make laws and decrees against the rights and liberties of the Church.

8. Those who have recourse to the lay power to impede the letters or any other act whatever of the Apostolic See, or of any of its legates or delegates; those who directly or indirectly prohibit their promulgation or execution.

9. All forgers of Letters Apostolic, especially in the form of briefs or memorials concerning grace and justice, purporting to be signed by the Roman Pontiff or by the Vice-Chancellors of the S. R. C., or by any other in their place, or by mandate of the Roman Pontiff; as also those who publish falsely Letters Apostolic, especially in the form of briefs, and more particularly those who falsely sign such memorials, whether in the name of the Roman Pontiff or of the Vice-Chancellors, or any acting in the stead of the same.

10. Whosoever absolves an accomplice *in peccato turpi*, even in the hour of death, when another priest, even one not appointed to hear confessions, unless in a case where grave scandal might have arisen, could have heard the confession of the dying person.

11. Those who usurp or sequestrate the jurisdictions, possessions, or revenues, which belong to ecclesiastical persons on account of their churches or benefices.

12. Those who invade, destroy, or retain for their own use or that of others, the cities, lands, places, and rights, belonging to the Roman Church, or who usurp, perturb, or retain, the supreme jurisdiction within the same.

We declare that the absolution from all the excomunications here enumerated was, and specially, reserved to the Roman Pontiff *pro tempore*, and for such the general concession of power to absolve from cases and censures or from excommunications reserved to the Roman Pontiffs, in no way suffices. On which account we further revoke all indults whatsoever concerning such, under whatever form, or to whatever persons, even regulars, of what order, congregation, society, or institute soever. Those then, who should presume, without the necessary faculty, under whatever pretext, to absolve such, let them know themselves to be under the bond of excommunication, reserved to the Roman Pontiff, unless, in case of peril or death, in which, however, the obligation is to be maintained with the person so absolved, to stand under the prescriptions of the Church in case he should be restored to health.

EXCOMMUNICATIONS RESERVED (NOT "SPECIALLY") TO THE ROMAN PONTIFF.

We declare that those are subject to excommunication *latæ sententiæ*:

1. Who teach or defend, be it in public or private, propositions condemned by the Apostolic See under pain of excommunication *latæ sententiæ*; similarly, those teaching or defending as lawful the practice of asking the penitent the name of the accomplice, a practice condemned by Benedict XIV. in the Constitutions *Suprema*, 7th July, 1745; *Ubi primum*, 2d June, 1740; *Ad eradicandum*, 28th September, 1746.

2. Those who, yielding to the temptation of Satan, lay violent hands on ecclesiastics, or religious of either sex, excepting those reserved cases and persons for whom the bishop or others have, by right or privilege, a permission to absolve.

3. Those who engage in or provoke to a duel, who accept a challenge, or are parties to the same, or lend any help or furtherance, or any who permit or abet the same, or who do not do all that lies in their power to prevent the same, whatever their dignity, whether regal or imperial.

4. Those giving their names to the Masonic or Carbonari sects, or other similar sects that openly or covertly conspire against the Church or any legitimate authority, as well as any who favor the same sects in any way, or fail to denounce the secret heads or leaders until such time as they shall have denounced them.

5. Those who order the violation of ecclesiastical asylum, or who with rash temerity perpetrate the same.

6. Those who violate the enclosures of nuns, and who, of whatever nature or condition, sex or age, enter a monastery without legitimate license, as also those who admit or introduce them; and also nuns leaving such enclosures, excepting the cases and in the form prescribed by St. Pius V. in his Constitution *Decori*.

7. Women overstepping the enclosure of religious houses of men and the superiors or others admitting them.

8. Those guilty of real Simony (*Simonia Realis*) concerning any benefice whatsoever, and their accomplices.

9. Those guilty of real confidential* Simony, in regard to whatever benefice, and whatever may be their dignity.

10. Those committing an act of *real* Simony, with a view to gain admission to a religious order.

11. All those who fall under the censure of excommunication under the Constitution of St. Pius V., *Quam plenum*, 2d January, 1554, by trafficking with indulgences and other spiritual favors.

12. Those who collect alms for Masses, increasing the amount, and making a profit by having the Masses said in places where the alms for saying the same are customarily smaller.

13. All those on whom the penalty of excommunication falls, under the Constitution of St. Pius V., *Admonet nos*, 29th March, 1567; of Innocent IX., *Quæ ab hac sede*, 4th November, 1591; of Clement VIII., *Ad Romani pontificis curam*, 26th June, 1592; and of Alexander VII., *Inter cæteras*, 24th October, 1660, concerning the alienation and infeudation of cities and places belonging to the Holy Roman Church.

14. Religious who may presume to administer to any, whether of the laity or clergy, except in case of necessity, the Sacrament of Extreme Unction, or of the Eucharist, in viaticum, without the leave and license of the parish priest.

15. Those, without the lawful permission, abstracting relics from the holy cemeteries or catacombs of Rome and its territory, and those lending them aid or favor.

16. Those who communicate with persons excommunicated by name by the Pope in *crimine criminoso*, and lending them aid and favor.

17. Ecclesiastics who knowingly and of their own will communicate *in divinis* with persons excommunicated by name, by the Roman Pontiff, and those receiving them to the offices.

EXCOMMUNICATIONS LATÆ SENTENTIÆ, RESERVED TO BISHOPS OR ORDINARIES.

We declare that they are subject to excommunication *latæ sententiæ*, reserved to Bishops or ordinaries:

1. Clerics in holy orders, or regulars or nuns presuming to contract marriage after the solemn vow of chastity, as well as those presuming to contract marriage with any of the aforesaid persons.

2. Those who procure abortions (*effectu sequuto*).

3. Those who knowingly make use of forged Apostolic letters, or who coöperate in this sin.

EXCOMMUNICATIONS LATÆ SENTENTIÆ (NOT RESERVED).

We declare that they are subject to excommunication *latæ sententiæ* (not reserved):

1. Who order and constrain that ecclesiastical sepulture be given to notorious heretics, or to persons under excommunication or interdict by name.

2. Those who obstruct or intimidate inquisitors, informers, witnesses, and other ministers of the holy office; those who abstract or burn the writings of the said sacred tribunal, or lend to any, so doing, aid, counsel, or favor.

3. Those alienating or presuming to receive ecclesiastical possessions without apostolic license according to the form *Extravagantis ambitiosæ, de reb. eccl. non alienandis.*

4. Those who, by negligence or culpable omission, fail to denounce within a month a confessor or priest by whom they may have been instigated *ad turpia*, in any of the cases expressed by our predecessors, Gregory XV., *Constit. Universi*, August 20, 1622, and Benedict XIV., *Constit. Sacramentum Pœnitentiæ*, June 1, 1741.

Besides these already enumerated we declare similarly excommunicated, those who were excommunicated by the Council of Trent, whether with absolution reserved to the Sovereign Pontiff, or to the Ordinary, or without reserve, excepting the penalty of anathema established in the decree, Sess. IV., *De editione et usu sacrorum librorum*, to which we desire that they shall only be subject who, without the approbation of the Ordinary, print, or cause to be printed, books concerning sacred things.

SUSPENSIONS LATÆ SENTENTIÆ RESERVED TO THE SOVEREIGN PONTIFF.

Chapters and convents, with churches and monasteries, incur suspension *ipso facto*, at the will of the Holy See, from the receipts of their benefices, and all others who receive Bishops or Prelates to the government, or administration of one or the other, before these aforesaid Bishops have produced the Apostolic Letters which nominated them.

2. They incur *ipso jure* the three years' suspension from collation of Orders who ordain any one without title of benefice or patrimony, upon the agreement that after ordination they shall not apply to them for maintenance.

3. They incur *ipso jure* suspension of one year from the administration of Orders who ordain the subject of another, even under pretext of a benefice about to be conferred, or already conferred, but not sufficient in amount without Letters dismissory from his own Bishop; or even a subject of his own who has been living out of his jurisdiction for a considerable time, so that he might there have contracted a canonical impediment, without letters of testimonial from the Ordinary of the place in which he has been living.

4. Those incur suspension *ipso jure* for a year from collation of Orders who shall have conferred any sacred Order (except the case of legitimate privilege), without title of benefice or patrimony to an ecclesiastic living in any congregation in which no solemn profession is made, or to a religious not yet professed.

5. Religious expelled from their monasteries and living *extra religionem* incur *ipso jure* perpetual suspension from Orders.

6. They incur *ipso jure* suspension from Orders received who presume to receive such Orders from a person excommunicated or suspended, interdicted, or denounced by name; or from a notorious heretic or schismatic. We further declare that one so receiving ordination in good faith from such a person cannot exercise such orders until he shall have been dispensed.

7. Foreign secular clerics, who, after having lived more than four months in Rome, are ordained by any other than their Ordinary without license from the Cardinal Vicar of Rome, or without previously passing an examination before him, or even if ordained by their own Ordinary after being sent back from the above examination; and in the same way ecclesiastics belonging to any of the six suburbicarian dioceses, if they should be ordained out of their own dioceses by license of their Ordinary addressed to any but the Cardinal Vicar of the city, and who have not performed, before receiving Holy Orders, the spiritual exercises for ten days in the house in Rome of the Priest of the Missions so called; all such incur suspension *ipso jure* from Orders so received, during the good pleasure of the Holy See, and the Bishops who ordained such, suspension from exercise of episcopal rites for the space of a year.

INTERDICTS LATÆ SENTENTIÆ (RESERVED).

1. Such Universities, Colleges, and Chapters, however they may be entitled, who appeal from the orders

* *Realis* si pactum ex utraque parte adimpleatur.
Accedit Simonia *confidentialis*, quæ fit quolibet pacto, seu confidential circa electionem ve præsentationem ad beneficia, ad munera ecclesiastica, etc.

and commands of the Roman Pontiff *pro tempore* to a future General Council, incur *ipso jure* the interdict specially reserved to the said Roman Pontiff.

2. Those who knowingly celebrate, or cause to be celebrated, the Divine Offices in places forbidden by the Ordinary, or by the judge delegate, or by law, or who admit persons, excommunicated by name, to the Divine Offices or to the Sacraments of the Church, or to ecclesiastical burial, incur *ipso jure* interdict from entering the churches until such time as they have satisfied the will of him whose sentence they have set at naught.

Finally, We will and declare that all those are similarly subject to suspension or interdict, who were decreed, *ipso jure*, suspended or interdicted by the most Holy Council of Trent.

Further, those censures, whether of excommunication, suspension, or interdict, which, besides those just enumerated, have been inflicted by Our Constitutions, or those of our predecessors, or by the Sacred Canons, and which have been hitherto in vigor, whether by the election of the Roman Pontiff, or by the internal rule of whatsoever order or institute of regulars, as also of whatsoever college, congregation, society, or pious house of what name or description soever, we will and declare that these same shall all remain in full force and vigor.

Moreover, we decree that whatsoever of the new concessions and privileges which may hereafter be granted by the Apostolic See, and to whomsoever, can in no way or means ever be understood to comprehend the faculty to absolve any of the cases or censures reserved to the Roman Pontiffs, except in those cases where particular and explicit mention of the same is there made, those privileges and faculties granted, whether by our predecessors, or by us, at whatever time, to whatever dignity, order, congregation, society, or institute, although regular, of whatever kind, and endowed with a particular title to the same, and worthy of special mention, all and singular by this Our Constitution, We will to revoke, suppress, and abolish, as, indeed, we hereby revoke, suppress, and abolish them, every existing privilege contrary (and more particularly those specially comprehended and not *in corpore juris*, or confirmed by the Apostolic Constitutions, or by whatsoever Apostolic approbation, by immemorial custom, or by what other sort of confirmation soever, of whatever form or tenor, or by whatever interrogatory of the derogatories, or other more efficacious unusual class) notwithstanding. All of which, as far as necessary, we intend to revoke and do revoke.

Nevertheless, We will that the faculty conceded to Bishops at the Council of Trent (Sess. XVIII. Cap. VI. *De Reform.*), to absolve from whatsoever censure reserved by this Our Constitution to the Apostolic See (excepting those *special* reserved), be retained and remain in force.

At the second congregation a ballot was taken for the members of the committee (or deputation) on matters of faith, which was generally regarded as the most important committee of the Council. Seven hundred and twenty-one prelates voted, each voting for twenty-four persons. The votes were sealed up as before in the presence of the Council, and were afterward counted. The result was as follows:

1. Most Rev. Emmanuel Garcia Gil, Archbishop of Saragossa, Spain.
2. Rt. Rev. Louis Francis Pié, Bishop of Poitiers, France.
3. Most Rev. Patrick Leahy, Archbishop of Cashel, Ireland.
4. Most Rev. Réné Fr. Regnier, Archbishop of Cambrai, France.
5. Most Rev. John Simor, Archbishop of Gran, Hungary.
6. Most Rev. Ignatius Andrew Schaepman, Archbishop of Utrecht, Holland.
7. Most Rev. Antonius Hassun, Armenian Patriarch.
8. Rt. Rev. Bartholomew d'Avanzo, Bishop of Calvi.
9. Most Rev. Miecislaus Ledochowski, Archbishop of Gnesen and Posen.
10. Most Rev. Francis Cugini, Archbishop of Modena, Italy.
11. Rt. Rev. S. D. Larangeira, Bishop of Rio Grande, Brazil.
12. Rt. Rev. Ignatius Senestry, Bishop of Ratisbon, Bavaria.
13. Most Rev. Victor A. Dechamps, Archbishop of Malines, Belgium.
14. Most Rev. Martin J. Spalding, Archbishop of Baltimore, United States.
15. Rt. Rev. Anthony Monescillo, Bishop of Jaen, Spain.
16. Rt. Rev. Peter J. De Preux, Bishop of Sion, Switzerland.
17. Rt. Rev. Vincent Gasser, Bishop of Brixen, Tyrol.
18. Most Rev. Raphael V. Valdivieso, Archbishop of Santiago, Chili.
19. Most Rev. Henry Edward Manning, Archbishop of Westminster, England.
20. Rt. Rev. Fred. M. Zinelli, Bishop of Treviso, Lombardy.
21. Most Rev. Walter Steins, Archbishop of Calcutta.
22. Rt. Rev. Conrad Martin, Bishop of Paderborn, Prussia.
23. Most Rev. Joseph S. Allemany, Archbishop of San Francisco, United States.

Cardinal Bilio was appointed chairman.

The composition of this committee showed that all of the prominent defenders of the question of papal infallibility (Manning, Dechamps, Spalding, Martin), and none of the prominent opponents (Dupanloup, Hefele, Strossmayer), had been elected.

The third congregation was held on the 21st of December, for the election, in the same manner, of twenty-four prelates, to constitute the deputation or committee on discipline. The number of votes given was larger than on the previous occasion. Among those elected were the Archbishops of New York, Mexico, and Quebec, and the Bishops of La Crosse, and Puno in Peru.

On December 28th, another general congregation was held, at which twenty-four prelates were elected, to constitute the committee on all questions relating to the religious orders. Among the members elected were the Archbishop of Quito and the Bishop of Buffalo. At this meeting the discussion of the *schema* or draft on certain matters regarding faith, given to the bishops on December 10th, was commenced. The council-hall had been found to be unsuited for speaking. Various halls in the Vatican Palace had been measured; several

churches had been examined, and at one time it was almost decided to try a hall in the distant Quirinal Palace. But, before doing so, the architect tried other plans in the council-hall itself, and finally succeeded in remedying the evils complained of, so as to enable the Council to open the discussion on the appointed day. The presiding cardinal announced that the discussion on the first *schema* would now commence, and that fourteen prelates had already given notice of their intention to speak. Seven spoke that day, among whom were Cardinal Ransder, of Vienna, Archbishop Kenrick, of St. Louis, and Archbishop Connolly, of Halifax. The discussion was continued on December 29th, on January 3d, 4th, 8th, and 11th; thirty-five speakers, in all, addressing the Council.

ROUSSEAU, Lovell H., Brigadier-General U. S. A., and late Major-General of Volunteers, a lawyer, patriot, soldier, and political leader of Kentucky, born in Lincoln County, Ky., in August, 1818; died in New Orleans, La., January 7, 1869. He enjoyed but limited advantages of education, and his schooling ceased entirely before he was ten years of age. His father died in 1833, leaving a large family of small children in straitened circumstances. When about fourteen, being the oldest of the family at home, he worked as a day-laborer at macadamizing the turnpike-road from Lexington to Lancaster. Being engaged in the study of the French language at this time, he used to write out the conjugations of the verbs at night, and, spreading the paper before him as he beat rock by day, with a stone upon it to prevent the wind blowing it away, commit the exercise to memory. When he became of age he relinquished all his interest in his father's few negroes to his sisters, to prevent their being sold apart. About the same time he removed to the vicinity of Louisville, and began the study of law. He was entirely without aid or instruction, and never was asked a question or had a conversation on the subject of his studies until he went to be examined for license. From March to August, 1840, he applied himself assiduously to preparing for his profession, reading law fourteen hours and history two hours per day. This close application produced a dangerous illness, which lasted some months. On his recovery he resolved to remove to Bloomfield, Ind., where he continued his studies till February, 1841, when he was admitted to the bar, and, though but poorly qualified, soon attained to respectable success in it. In 1844 and 1845 he was elected to the Indiana Legislature, and while there rose to considerable influence. In 1846 he raised a company for the Mexican War, and entered the unfortunate 2d Indiana regiment, which met with such an untoward fate at Buena Vista. Captain Rousseau, however, notwithstanding a loss of fourteen men out of fifty-one, kept his company together and retreated to the ranche, where he did good service when the enemy attacked our wagon-train, and was highly complimented by Colonel Marshall, in his report of his operations on that occasion. He was elected to the Indiana Senate, four days after his return from Mexico, by a heavy majority in a Democratic district, he having always been a Whig. He removed to Louisville in 1849, before his senatorial term had expired; but his constituents would not permit him to resign, and he continued to serve them for one year after having resumed his residence in his native State. He immediately took a prominent position at the Louisville bar, strong as it was in talents and learning. Like nearly if not quite all the lawyers who have taken conspicuous positions as successful commanders in the recent war, his forte was with the jury, and in the management of difficult cases during the trial. In 1861, when the storm of secession broke upon the country, he labored assiduously to prevent his native State from joining the South. When he saw that actual hostilities could not be averted, he resigned his position in the Senate, and at once commenced the organization of troops for the Union army. Recruiting for the war was going on actively all around him, and to such an extent did Kentuckians sympathize with the secession movement, that a man who actively supported the Government was in hourly peril. General Rousseau was eventually obliged to establish his camp on the Indiana side of the river, and he was notified that his marching of his regiment through the city of Louisville would be a signal for the rising of the enemy and the extermination of Union men. He was at length ordered to join in the field the forces he had organized, and, as their commander, did gallant service with the armies of the South and Southwest. He participated in nearly all the principal engagements which occurred in Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama, and Georgia. He was early made a brigadier-general, and for his bravery and gallant services at Perryville won a major-general's commission. He was engaged in the campaign and battle of Shiloh; was commandant of the district of Northern Alabama, succeeding General Ormsby M. Mitchel in command of the Third Division of Buell's army, and followed Bragg through Kentucky, and fought him bravely at Perryville. He distinguished himself at Stone River, and in the campaign of Tullahoma, Chickamauga and Chattanooga. During 1864, he commanded the district of Tennessee; made his famous raid into Alabama, destroying the Montgomery and Atlanta lines of railroad, and in December, 1864, held the important position of Fort Rosecrans, Nashville, against the siege of Hood. In 1865 he was elected as a Union man to the House of Representatives, where he acted with the Democrats. During the session he had a personal encounter with Mr. Grinnell, of Iowa, for which he received the censure of the House. He immediately resigned, but was again returned by his constituents. In 1867 he was

appointed a brigadier-general in the regular army, and was dispatched to take possession, in the name of the United States, of Alaska. He was summoned to Washington to testify in the impeachment trial, but did not arrive in time. Not desiring to return to his command in Alaska, the President assigned him to the command of the Gulf Department, where his administration was not remarkably successful. He seems to have been a better soldier than administrative officer or legislator. General Rousseau was a man of commanding figure, and extraordinary personal presence, and was greatly beloved by his soldiers.

RUSSIA, an empire in Europe and Asia. Emperor, Alexander II., born April 17 (new style April 29), 1818; succeeded his father Nicholas, February 18 (March 2), 1855; heir-apparent, Grand-duke Alexander, born February 26 (March 10), 1845; his son, Nicholas, born May 18, 1868.

The total area of Russia is about 7,860,000 square miles; of which 2,050,313 belong to Europe. The population of the great divisions of the empire was, in 1865, as follows:

In Europe..	Russia Proper	61,220,000
	Poland	5,230,000
	Finland	1,840,000
In Asia.....	Caucasus	4,500,000
	Siberia and Central Asia.. ...	5,500,000
		78,290,000

The budget of the Russian empire for 1869 amounted to 482,000,000 rubles. The revenue accounts show a surplus of 4,000,000 from the budget of 1867, and a surplus of 10,000,000 from the budget of 1868, and these amounts cover the increase of 18,000,000 in the expenditure. Thirty-one million rubles are appropriated from special sources for the construction of railway lines and for harbor works at Riga and Odessa. The Minister of Finance ascribes the increase in the revenue to a more than usually satisfactory harvest, and to the stimulus given to commerce by the extension of the railway system. He expresses his conviction that nothing but a peaceful development of the moral and material interests of Russia can consolidate the finances of the country.

The debt of Russia amounted on January 1, 1869, to 2,003,484,160 rubles; the debt of the former kingdom of Poland, 44,201,662.

The Russian army, in 1866, consisted of 697,137 men. The fleet, on January 1, 1868, was composed of 267 vessels (20 iron-clads, 210 other steamers, 37 sailing-vessels), exclusive of the coasting-vessels. The movement of commerce in 1867 and 1868 was as follows (value expressed in millions of rubles):

PORTS.	Arrivals.	Clearances.
Baltic Sea	5,768	5,658
White Sea	841	924
Black Sea and Sea of Azof	4,436	4,510
Total	11,047	11,092

The movement of shipping, in 1868, was as follows:

COMMERCE.	Imports.	Exports.
With Europe—Exclusive of precious metals (1868)	244,430,000	217,690,000
Precious metals (1867)	33,230,000	12,130,000
With Asia—Exclusive of precious metals (1867)	26,440,000	24,630,000
Precious metals (1867)	340,000	2,260,000

The gradual extinction of serfdom is still in progress in Russia. Of the 10,000,000 of former serfs, two-thirds have already become landed proprietors. The Government allotted to each peasant a lot of three hectares (the hectare being nearly 2½ acres), requiring them to pay one-fifth its appraised value at once to the proprietor, while the Government advanced the remaining four-fifths and charged the peasants six per cent. interest on the loan for forty-nine years. The annual charge for each lot under this arrangement is nine rubles; other taxes amount to nearly five rubles; and, if there are children entitled to land under the emancipation act, the head of the family must pay for them also. Until the purchase of the land is completed, the peasant is obliged to labor for the proprietor, though he is personally free. It is optional with the peasants to accept a free gift of one hectare instead of the privilege of purchasing three; but comparatively few content themselves with these "beggars' portions." Besides the high price of the land, another drawback to the Czar's plan is that the possession of the land is vested not in individuals but in communes, so that the peasants continue to be veritable *adscriptio glebæ*. They cannot separate from the communities without the formal consent of the communal assembly, except on paying their share of the interest on the Government advances for the whole period of forty-nine years. This *adscriptio glebæ* is to cease, however, with the year 1870, when the law gives the peasants the option of separating from the community by renouncing their right to any portion of the communal lands.

An important reform, effected in 1869, was the abolition of the hereditary character of the Russian priesthood, a body numbering, with their families, not less than seven hundred thousand. (*See* GREEK CHURCH.)

Another great reform was accomplished by a ukase reducing the term of military service from seven years to five, in the case of young men under twenty who enter the army as volunteers. A further reduction of a year's service is promised as a reward for good conduct. This regulation is to be followed by another restricting marriages in the army. Hitherto soldiers were encouraged to marry in order to induce them to make the army their home, and their wives and children were maintained by the Government. This practice is now regarded as too expensive and not desirable even from a purely military point of view, as the movement of the troops from place to place has been greatly encumbered by their taking so many women and children with them. It is

found that the number of soldiers' marriages has considerably diminished since the introduction, four years ago, of the present system of short military service. In 1860, four soldiers out of ten were married, whereas the proportion now is four out of seventeen.

The Government is endeavoring to increase its military efficiency and power by improving the railway communications between the various parts of the empire. There are, as yet, no railways connecting the interior of Russia with the Vistula, the Crimea, the Caucasus, or Central Asia; there is no safe and rapid means of transferring troops from one point on the frontier to another; the communication between the provinces where the irregular cavalry is recruited and the frontier is very defective; and the important positions on the coasts of the Baltic and Black Sea are not connected by lines of railway. The only line which is really important from a strategical point of view is that from Kharkov to Rostov, which enables the Cossacks of the Don to be moved rapidly and at short notice to the frontier. As against Prussia, Russia has only a line running parallel with her frontier and too far distant from it to be of any military use, while Prussia has three lines parallel to the northern frontier of Poland, and two at right angles to it.

Russia is steadily advancing in Asia, and is already regarded by many of the neighboring rulers of Central Asia as the arbiter in Asiatic politics. Thus the Ameer of Bokhara applied to her for assistance against Sheer Ali, of Afghanistan, England's ally; he accompanied his request by the payment of a tribute, and sent his son to St. Petersburg to secure his succession to the throne through the protection of Russia. The administrative organization of Russian Toorkistan is pushed on with great activity. However, opposition, and even rebellion, is not wanting in Asia. The Kirgheez rebellion spread in the spring of 1869 to the country of the Don Cossacks, who seem to have united with the Calmucks and the Kirgheez in their attempt to cast off the Russian rule. Several thousands of these Cossacks crossed the Volga above Sarepta, to join other rebels in their attack on Uralsk, on the river Ural, and the Russian garrisons on the Orenburg frontier, together with those of Kazan, Simbeersk, and Saratov, were ordered to meet them. The insurgents acquired strength enough to cut most of the means of communication between Russia Proper and Central Asia, thus almost paralyzing the trade between those countries.

The importation of cotton and silk into Toorkistan ceased in March, in consequence of the disturbed state of the frontier districts. Two of the bitterest enemies of Russia, Sadyk and Atamkoul, invaded the khanate of Khiva at the head of an insurgent band. All the post-roads were abandoned, and the communications so interrupted, that the only way of reaching Tashkend in safety was to make a detour by way of Siberia. Meanwhile the Government was still considering the project of a railway communication between Russia and Central Asia. The trade committee of the Ministry of Finance at St. Petersburg reported in favor of the proposed line between the eastern shores of the Caspian and the Amou-Daryan, and strongly recommended that the works should be commenced as soon as possible. The railway is to be connected with Moscow by a line of steamers on the Caspian and the Volga. Another plan, which has many advocates, is, that the proposed railway should start from Orenburg; but the project recommended by the committee is said to find the most favor with the Government, chiefly because it would facilitate the opening of a new channel for Russian commerce with China *via* Kashgar. Another committee, composed of delegates from the departments of the Interior, of Finance, of War, and of the Navy, left St. Petersburg under the direction of General Skolkoff, on a mission to the Amoor district and the island of Saghalien, for the purpose of investigating on the spot the capabilities of those countries as regards colonization and commercial enterprise.

Russia is, meanwhile, colonizing her new territories. Several Ozech settlements have been made in the Caucasus on the rivers Dschub and Tuapse, and 1,500 Moravian families were on their way to the same territory.

The Russian empire contains within its boundaries some of the finest lands in the world, and has a population remarkable for its homogeneity and number. With a territory extending from Finland to the Pacific Ocean, and from Archangel to Mount Ararat, it may be truly said that Russia needs no more land. The Caucasus gives her the command of both Asia Minor and Central Asia. Satisfied with this immense territory, the Government of Russia has wisely abstained as much as possible from interfering in foreign politics for many years past, and devoted all its energies to the internal development of the country. Russia's position, however, is a peculiar one. She is both a European and an Asiatic power; not by detached possessions, as England, but by a continuous and uninterrupted extent of territory in both continents.

Industry is progressing in Russia. The Government issued a ukase for a universal exhibition to be held at St. Petersburg in 1870, to open on May 15th. Another ukase approved the formation of a private company for constructing the projected railway line from the Caspian Sea to Lake Aral.

A Mechanical School for Women has been opened at Warsaw, under the immediate superintendence of Government, its object being to train the young women of the lower classes in all the lighter kinds of handicraft which may be pursued without injury to health.

RUSSIAN ORDNANCE. Some details are given, in the *Russian Artillery Journal*, of the

trial of an 11-inch Krupp's cast-steel breech-loading gun, fired against the Hercules's shield last August at the Wolkow Artillery-ground, near St. Petersburg. Up to the year 1868, the regulation calibres of the breech-loading guns for coast defence were 8-inch and 9-inch.

Trials made in Russia, and the comparative trial with guns of large calibre in Prussia, agreed in demonstrating that the 8-inch coast gun acts with great effect on ships with 4½-inch armor plating, even at distances of 1,866 yards, and that at the same distance the 9-inch gun can do very serious damage to ships with 6-inch armor-plating. At a distance of 700 yards the 9-inch gun pierces an armored shield with 8-inch plates. For success in attacking ships with 8-inch or 9-inch plates at great distances, or ships with still thicker plates, even at short distances, the 9-inch gun is not of sufficient power. Having regard to this, we have included the 11-inch gun in the regulation calibres for coast defence.

The first trial-gun of this calibre, made of cast steel and strengthened with hoops, was manufactured for the Government at Krupp's factory. This gun differed somewhat in its measurements from the design to which the new 11-inch guns are made. This difference, which arose from the gun having been originally intended for a muzzle-loader, consisted principally in the length of the bore, being 27 inches shorter than the length of the bore of the 11-inch gun, according to the design finally adopted. In consequence of this, the initial velocity of projectiles fired with battering charges from the trial-gun would necessarily be about 50 feet less than from the new guns. The trial-gun had been submitted last year at Krupp's factory to a trial of endurance, had fired 400 rounds with battering charges, and had then been removed to the Wolkow Artillery-ground, near St. Petersburg, to ascertain its destructive effect against armored shields of very great strength.

The experimental firing took place in the month of August of the year 1869, against a shield representing a portion of the broadside of the iron-clad English ship Hercules. This shield was built up in the following manner: Three wrought-iron plates, each 16 feet long, 3 feet 8 inches broad, the two lower 9 inches, the upper one 6 inches thick, were fastened by bolts with countersunk heads to a backing consisting of horizontal teak balks 12 inches thick, between which, through their whole thickness, seven 1-inch strips of iron plate were inserted, strengthened with angle-iron.

Immediately behind the teak balks were two wrought-iron plates, one behind the other, each 1 inch thick. Behind these came a row of vertical oak balks, 9 inches thick, between which, through the whole breadth, were inserted nine 1-inch strips of iron plate, strengthened with angle-iron. The whole rested against two rows of horizontal oak balks, the front row being 6 inches thick, and the hinder 9 inches. Behind the latter was fastened a 1-inch wrought-iron plate. The whole thickness of the backing was therefore 39 inches; the whole thickness of the part of the shield with 9-inch plate, 48 inches; and the whole thickness of the part of the shield with 6-inch plate, 45 inches. The whole length of the shield was 16 feet, its height 11 feet. At the back of the shield five wrought-iron 1-inch stays were riveted on, and rested on 14-inch timbers, which were connected together, and formed a frame to support the shield. All three plates were made at the Millwall Works, London. The Hercules's shield is one of the very strongest armored shields designed up to the present time.

In June and December, 1865, at Shoeburyness, gunnery experiments with the Armstrong 300-pounder (10.5-inch) and 600-pounder (12-inch and 13-inch) were made against a similar shield. The solid steel projectiles, fired from the 300-pounder, with 50 lb., 60 lb., and 66 lb. of powder, did not pierce the shield, even at the shortest distances. The 600 lb. solid steel projectiles, fired with a charge of 100 lb., at a distance of 700 yards, with an initial velocity of 1,420 feet per second, went through the plate, and remained in the wood backing, when they struck undamaged portions of the shield; on the other hand, when they struck places in the shield which were already weakened by previous rounds, they went right through the target. From the results of the trials at Shoeburyness, it appeared that the Hercules's shield is of very great resisting power, and that the capabilities of the 600-pounder Armstrong gun against it, even at small distances, were insufficient.

The firing performed here, from the 11-inch cast-steel breech-loading gun, took place at a distance of 466.6 yards with cast-steel shells, with *thin* lead jackets, which were made at Krupp's works, and brought up to the weight of 550 lb. by filling the hollow with sand and filings. Five rounds were fired from the gun, one with battering charge, i. e., with 91.5 lb. of prismatic powder, and four with diminished charges, for the purpose of determining their destructive effect upon the target at different distances, without rendering it necessary to move the heavy guns to other distances. To this end two rounds were fired with a charge of 85.5 lb. of prismatic powder, and two rounds with 72 lb. of the same powder. With the charge of 85.5 lb. the trial-gun produces the same effect at 466.6 yards as with the battering charge at 746.6 yards, and as the new 11-inch guns with battering charges at a distance of 1,108.3 yards. With a 72-lb. charge the effect of the trial-gun is the same at 466 yards as at a distance of 1,610 yards with the battering charge, and the same as that of the new 11-inch gun at a distance of 1,960 yards. The effect of the 11-inch trial-gun with battering charge at 466.6 yards is the same as that of the new 11-inch gun at 842 yards.

The principal damage done to the shield during this gunnery trial was as follows: The first shot fired with a battering charge of 91.5 lb. of prismatic powder struck the lower 9-inch plate in about the middle of it, near the upper edge, went through the whole target, and continued its flight into the plain. The hole produced in the plate was of an oval form, having a horizontal diameter of 11 inches, and a vertical diameter of 13 inches. By this shot a bolt was broken, carrying away a stay from the backing. The projectile, which was picked up after the firing, proved to be quite whole; the lead jacket was stripped off; the length of the shot was lessened by $\frac{1}{8}$ inch; but, in other respects, its dimensions had apparently remained unaltered. At the second round, which was fired with a charge of 85.5 lb. prismatic powder, the projectile did not strike the shield direct, but grazed 16.3 feet before it, hitting a plate lying on the ground, and then struck with its side against the lower 9-inch plate of the shield. The indentation produced was about 2½ feet long, up to 1 foot broad, and up to 4½ inches deep. The plate was buckled inward 2 inches, and showed cracks on the bottom edge of the hole made by the first shot. The projectile broke in pieces.

At the third round, which was fired with 85.5 lb. prismatic powder, the projectile struck the joint between the two lower plates, pierced the whole shield, grazing 58 feet 3 inches behind, and then continued its flight. The dimensions of the hole made by this shot were almost the same as in the case of the first. By this shot, a bolt was also broken and a stay carried away; the shot, which was picked up after the trial, proved to be broken into two equal parts, about perpendicular to its axis.

At the fourth round, which was fired with a charge of 72 lb. prismatic powder, the shot struck the upper 6-inch plate near the lower edge, grazing the top edge of the middle plate, and went right through the shield. The oval hole made by this shot was of somewhat larger dimensions than the previous ones, the horizontal diameter being about 13.5 in., and the vertical 11.9 inches.

Of broken bolts there were three—two in the top plate and one in the middle plate; in addition, a stay was separated from the backing. The shot, which was picked up after the firing, proved to be quite whole; the lead jacket was stripped off; its length was diminished by almost $\frac{3}{16}$ inch, otherwise its dimensions had apparently remained unchanged.

At the fifth round, which was fired with a charge of 72 lb. prismatic powder, the shot struck the middle 9-inch plate near the lower edge, penetrated so far into the target that the surface of the end of the shot was level with the front surface of the plate, and there remained. In doing this the head of the shot went through the plates the whole thickness of the teak backing, the two 1-inch plates, behind the teak timbers, and about 4 inches into the upright oak balks. The other damage visible after this shot consisted in injury to the stay, which was in the neighborhood of the point of impact, and in carrying away some rivets. The shot remained apparently whole. After the termination of the trial, the whole shield had been driven back 6 inches, almost parallel to its original position.

This gunnery-trial, in which the plates of the shield had proved to be very good, showed that our 11-inch gun, of the new construction, when fired with good steel projectiles with a thin lead jacket, is capable of doing the following damage to armor-plated walls of the strength of the broadside of the British ship Hercules.

1. At a distance of about 842 yards this shield, both with 6-inch and 9-inch plates of good quality, is pierced with a considerable surplus of power.

2. At a distance of about 1,166 yards this shield is also pierced, although with but a small surplus of power.

3. At a distance of about 1,983 yards a shield of the strength described, with 6-inch plates, is pierced.

4. At the same distance, when fired against the shield protected by 9-inch plates, the shot pierces the plate, and sticks fast in the backing, after it has penetrated its whole length. From the results of this experiment, it may be concluded that the 11-inch rifled *cast-steel* breech-loading gun of the new make, provided with good *steel* projectiles, is considerably superior in execution to the English 12 and 13 inch (600-pounder) wrought-iron rifled 25-ton muzzle-loading guns; and that it is a very efficient gun against fleets with armor plating of considerable thickness, not only at short and medium, but even at greater distances.

If we consider that, as shown by the experiment made, when fired against the Hercules's shield, at a distance of about 1,983 yards, the projectiles of the 11-inch gun penetrated their whole length, and, at a shorter distance of about 1,166 yards, go through the whole shield, and avail ourselves of the formulas, derived from the results of the gunnery experiments of the English, Prussian, and other artilleries, against armor-plates with backing, we gather that the distance of 1,399 yards may be regarded as the limit at which our 11-inch guns, of new make, may produce very destructive effects when fired against ships whose broadsides are of the strength of the Hercules, and are covered with 9-inch plates.

Although at this distance we cannot reckon upon every shot fired piercing the broadside described, still it is beyond a doubt that they would stick fast in the wood backing, after having gone through the 9-inch plate, and there produce the full effect of their bursting charge. At a distance of about 1,282 yards all good 11-inch steel projectiles must pierce a shield of the strength of the Hercules broadside, protected by wrought-iron plates of the best quality.

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SAINTE-BEUVE, CHARLES AUGUSTIN, a French poet and critic, academician and Senator, born at Boulogne-sur-Mer, December 23, 1804; died in Paris, October 13, 1869. His father, a government officer, died two months before his birth; and his mother, a woman of remarkable intellectual abilities and of English descent, superintended his education, which was conducted at first at Boulogne, and after the age of fourteen in Paris, at the institution Landry and the College of Charlemagne. On leaving college, he was strongly attracted to a literary life, but the necessity of entering upon some calling which should afford him a competent livelihood led him to enter the medical profession. He was appointed assistant-surgeon to the Hospital St. Louis, but his longings for literary distinction led him to write much for the press. When Victor Hugo's "Odes and Ballads" were published and attracted the attention of the public, Sainte-Beuve could no longer endure his profession. Resigning his situation as assistant-surgeon, he announced his intention of devoting himself thenceforth to poetry and general literature. He formed the acquaintance of Victor Hugo, and attached himself to the editorial staff of the *Cenacle* in company with Alfred de Musset, the two Deschamps, etc. In 1828 appeared his first volume, "An Historical and Critical Tableau of French Poetry and the French Theatre in the XVIth Century." This work gave him a high reputation as a critical writer. The "Poems of Joseph Delorme" followed the next year, but were not so well received. In 1830 "The Consolations," a volume of poems and aphorisms, very much in the style of Pascal, Fénelon, and Madame Guyon, whose Christian mysticism was at this time exerting a powerful influence on his mind. The *Cenacle* went down in the Revolution of 1830, and Sainte-Beuve, drawn toward the doctrines of St. Simon for the time, became one of the editors of the *Globe*, then under the direction of Pierre Leroux. This connection did not last long, and Sainte-Beuve had set out for Belgium, where he was offered a professorship, when M. Buloz persuaded him to commence in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* a series of literary portraits, in which he displayed great skill. He also became a contributor to the *National*, where he manifested a decided leaning toward the school of Diderot and Voltaire. His religious views at this period seemed to fluctuate with the seasons. In 1832 he was a disciple and friend of Lamennais and the Abbé Gerbet, and his *Volupté*, which the critics have called "a romance of the flesh and the spirit," was one of the results of their influence upon him. Five years later he visited Switzerland and determined to write a "History of Port Royal," the illustrious journalists being now the objects of his admiration, as they had been in 1831 the subjects of his satire. Another volume of his poems, *Pensées d'Août*, appeared about this time. His "History of Port Royal," in five volumes, progressed slowly, being twenty years (1840–'60) in publication. In 1840 M. Thiers appointed him librarian of the Mazarin Library, and five years later he was admitted to the French Academy to fill the vacancy caused by the death of Casimer Delavigne. In 1848 he delivered a course of lectures on "French Literature at the Commencement of the Nineteenth Century," at Liége, which attracted great attention, and were afterward published in two volumes.

In 1850 he joined the *Constitutionnel*, and contributed to that journal an admirable collection of literary biography and criticism, his "*Causeries du Lundi*" (Monday Literary Gossip), which form an improved continuation of his "Portraits," and fill a series of volumes. Soon after the *coup d'état* of December, 1851, he was attached to the *Moniteur*, and was Professor of Latin Poetry at the College of France, but the insubordination of the students exhibited at his first lectures obliged him to retire, and in 1857 he was appointed professor at the Normal School. The Emperor signalized his departure for Algeria at the end of 1865 by raising M. Sainte-Beuve to the dignity of Senator; and in 1867 he was a member of the Committee of Five appointed by the French Academy to superintend a new edition of the "Historical Dictionary of the French Language." He possessed the charm of a remarkable originality, an extraordinary tact in mingling biographical anecdotes and criticism, and a power of keen and rapid dissection of character and motive which, though generally kindly, was always piquant and sometimes merciless. His style was as original as his criticism, and mingled the idioms and expressions of the sixteenth century with those of the nineteenth in a conglomerate as peculiar and very much of the same character as the "Carlylese" which has exerted such an influence on our English tongue, the new language, the "Sainte-Beuve dialect" as Balzac terms it. Besides the works aleady named, Sainte-Beuve published "*Poésies Complètes*" (Complete Poems), 1 vol., 12mo, numerous editions; "Criticisms and Literary Portraits," 5 vols., 8vo, 1832–'39; "Literary Portraits," 2 vols., 12mo, 1844; "Contemporary Portraits," 2 vols., 12mo; "*Causeries du Lundi*" (Monday Gossipings), 15 vols. (13 12mo, and 2 18mo), 1851–'62; "Gallery of Celebrated Women," 1858; "New Gallery of Celebrated Women," 1864; "*Nouveaux Lundis*" (New Mondays), 2 vols., 18mo, 1863; together with a great

number of prefaces, introductions, memoirs, and biographical notices, for the works of other writers.

SALTER, WILLIAM D., Commodore U. S. N., born in New York City, in 1795; died in Elizabeth, N. J., January 8, 1869. He entered the Navy as midshipman, November 15, 1809. He was for forty-six years on the active-service list, winning each promotion by long and arduous service. He was retired September 13, 1855, having been for sixty years in the service. When he entered the Navy he was attached to the American frigate Constitution, which was commanded by Captain Isaac Hull, during the action against the British frigate Guerriere, on the 19th of August, 1812. He was the last survivor of those on board this vessel during that memorable event. He also served with gallantry on various vessels which have borne a prominent part in the history of American naval warfare. He was appointed commander at the Brooklyn Navy-yard in 1856, and filled the position until 1859. In 1863 he was ordered to report to the War Department, and was assigned by the Secretary of War upon a commission to examine vessels. From this duty he was relieved by the Naval Department in 1866. Since that time he was a resident of Elizabeth. He had suffered severely for three or four years past from rheumatism of the heart, which finally caused his death.

SAN DOMINGO,* or the Dominican Republic, a state of the West Indies, comprising the eastern portion of the Island of Hayti. Area, 17,826 square miles; population, 136,500 (mostly mulattoes and whites). President, in 1869, Buenaventura Baez.

During the greater part of the year the republic continued to be a prey to intestine wars. In March, ex-President Cabral submitted to President Baez, but soon he again took part in the insurrectionary movements. The revolutionary party gained in strength and importance by the appearance of General Luperon on the coast of the Dominican Republic on board the armed steamer Telégrafo on the 1st of June. On the 8th of June Luperon opened fire upon Samaná, and effected a landing. In consequence of these events, the Government published the following decree:

ARTICLE 1. The steamer Telegraph, its chief, Gregorio Luperon, and the people who accompany him, are declared pirates.

ART. 2. All vessels-of-war are fully authorized to give chase and pursue her, and to act with respect to her chief, troops, and crew, according to the invariable and universal international law.

ART. 3. This decree will be sent to the Executive authority for its promulgation and constitutional enforcement.

Given in the Chamber of the Senate Council of St. Domingo on the 18th day of June, in the year 1869, in the twenty-sixth year of the independence, sixth year of the restoration, and second year of the regeneration.

By the President of the Senate:

JACINTO DE LA CONCHO,

GERARDO BOBADILLA, Secretary.

Executed, published, and circulated in the territotories of the Republic for its punctual observance.

Given in St. Domingo the 19th day of June, 1869, twenty-sixth year of the independence, sixth of the restoration, second of the regeneration.

BUENAVENTURA BAEZ.

Countersigned—JOSÉ HUNGRIA, Minister of War and Marine; M. MA. GAUTIER, Minister of Foreign Affairs.

Cabral, whom President Baez had deposed, continued, with the aid of Luperon, his struggle against Baez, with varied success. Some of the most distinguished generals in San Domingo are friends and supporters of Cabral. Cabral became master of all the southern portion of San Domingo, containing some 40,000 inhabitants.

Baez leased the Bay of Samaná to the United States, and on the 6th of December the United States flag was planted on the peninsula bordering the Bay. According to some accounts, this lease caused great excitement among the people of San Domingo, and the revolutionists were reported to make new efforts to overthrow Baez before, as they feared, the American Congress could ratify the arrangements for the lease. Generals Luperon and Cabral issued a proclamation protesting against the sale of the town and Bay of Samaná to the United States, and declaring the act illegal and contrary to the wishes of the nation and to the constitution, which forbids alienation of the national territory. Other accounts, however, represented the immense majority of the people, including nearly all the foreigners, to be heartily in favor of the measure, which early in 1870 was to be submitted to a popular vote.

The revolutionists under Cabral continued to hold the southwestern part of the island.

SETON, SAMUEL WORTHINGTON, an American educator, born in New York City, January 23d, 1789; died there, November 20, 1868. After leaving school he entered upon mercantile life, and made a voyage to China. On his return, he entered one of the banks of New York, and occupied the position of teller, when, in 1827, he was elected agent of the late Public School Society, in which capacity he was visiter of the schools, and had the charge of their extensive system of supplies, libraries, etc. In 1823 he was elected a trustee of the society, and in the discharge of these duties he displayed the peculiar tact and skill in management, as well as felicity and beauty of illustration, which made him so popular in the public schools as well as in the Sunday-school work. These qualifications, combined with his gentle and winning disposition, pointed him out as being peculiarly fitted for the office of Agent and Superintendent of the Public Schools. He remained in this office until the Public School Society was merged in the present Board of Education in 1853, when he was appointed Assistant Superintendent, and served in that capacity till his death. He was indefatigable in his labors, and during a period of forty-

* The latest statistics of commerce and shipping are given in the AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

eight years, in which he held the office of superintendent of a Sabbath-school, he was absent from his post but twelve Sabbaths.

SEWAGE, USE OF TOWN. The various experiments conducted by the Metropolis Sewage Company, London, both at Barking Creek and on their experimental farm a little beyond Barking, as well as those conducted by myself, states Mr. Wm. Hope before the Institution of Surveyors, on a smaller scale on my own land, have given me an opportunity of acquiring knowledge in this particular branch of agriculture, which, I believe I may safely say, no one else has enjoyed; and it is only the consideration of these exceptional advantages which has made me presume so far as to address the Institution of Surveyors on such a subject.

In considering the utilization of sewage by irrigation, we may usefully divide it into three heads: first, *conveyance* of the sewage from the town to the country; secondly, *distribution* throughout the district proposed to be irrigated; thirdly, *application* of the sewage to the actual soil or crops.

Now, with regard to the first question I need say very little. An experienced surveyor will naturally avail himself of the readiest means at his command for conveying a large body of noxious liquid from one district to another. He will be guided by local circumstances and local materials in designing his work, and the nature of the work will, in some degree of course, also depend upon whether the levels of the ground permit of gravitation either by purely natural fall, or by means of a short lift, or necessitate forcing by expensive machinery. I will merely remark that there is of course a great convenience for distribution in what I may term the luxury of pressure. If the main culvert or sewer be an iron pipe of any description, through which the sewage is forced by powerful engines, it becomes a very easy and simple matter to attach a pipe at any point for supplying any land, no matter where situated; but, if the main outfall conveys the sewage by gravitation only, then the sewage can only be distributed by the same means, and, of course, can only be taken to land on a lower level than the outfall, and this, in many places, becomes a most serious difficulty.

The *distribution* of the sewage of a small town of 10,000 or 20,000 inhabitants is a simple enough affair, for it is distributed on one farm only, and that farm is, of course, chosen so as to be more or less in a ring fence; but, if it is desired to deal with the sewage of a great city, much more contriving is necessary. For short distances and low pressures, earthenware pipes may sometimes be used for the lateral channels, but they are not satisfactory; and it must always be recollected that the bursting or leakage of a sewage-pipe is a somewhat serious affair, even in the country. Iron pipes are, of course, always the handiest and neatest things to deal with, but they are expensive. Earth ditches are perfectly effectual, and are, perhaps, the most convenient of all for communicating with other minor branches; but, unless the lay of the land coincides exactly with the fall required to be given to distributing channels, the earth ditches soon become very expensive in construction, and wasteful in the space occupied. And, in view of the several difficulties and drawbacks attending the use of either ditches, or earthenware or iron pipes, I have devised a new method of distributing sewage, which, I think, is likely to prove useful in some localities. It is very simple—consisting merely of sheet-iron troughs, with a semicircular section, supported upon rough wooden legs of any required size and length. Such iron troughs, at whatever elevation from the ground—and in most cases a very few feet are quite sufficient—occupy no more space than a ditch would occupy when running with a fall coincident with that of the land itself. Therefore, there is no permanent waste of land in a broad embankment, and the outlay becomes less than the outlay in constructing a raised-up ditch when a very few inches in height are attained. If any unusual height is necessary, to bridge over a hollow for instance, the section of the trough may be slightly altered, and, instead of being semicircular, the diameter may be diminished, and to the prolongation of the sides of the smaller semicircular trough, thus formed, may be riveted stronger plates to act as girders, and so the original sectional area would be preserved. With troughs so constructed, having a few angle-irons bent all round them outside, a very strong and durable kind of semitubular bridge would be obtained. I may mention that I have made an experiment with about a mile and a half of semicircular troughing far thinner than that which would be used in a permanent work, and that this troughing is placed at an unusual height, being for a great part of its length from 16 feet to 22 feet above the ground. It is, moreover, in a most exposed situation, and has, nevertheless, stood all the severe gales of last winter without the very smallest sign of giving way.

Difficulties for the first few years may arise in arranging for the distribution of the whole sewage of a large town over a wide area of land, if there are a few obstructive people in the area who fancy that they could make more by standing out and refusing to take the sewage, than by taking it, if compulsory powers have not been obtained. But, even in this case, it would be a pecuniary rather than a physical difficulty. There need, therefore, be no greater difficulty in designing the different channels by which the sewage of a large town may be distributed to any given number of farms, than there is in an analogous kind of work which has been executed by very many gentlemen now present, namely, draining several separate estates into one common outfall. It is simply inverting the process, and, instead of collecting the water from the various estates into one main channel by which it would run away, bringing the water

down the one main channel, and then distributing it over the various estates.

Now, with regard to the purely agricultural question of the *application* of sewage to the soil or crops. Experience has only served to confirm me in my original opinion, that the proper way of laying out land for sewage is, wherever the fall of the land will at all permit it, to lay it out in rectangular "panes," or lands thrown up to a ridge in the centre, a small carrier of say 8 inches or 9 inches wide being cut along the top of the ridge, by which to irrigate the land. This system combines many advantages, and, so far as I see, presents no drawbacks. First of all, the rectangular form admits of easy and simple cultivation by horse and steam power, without turn-wrest ploughs, or any other special apparatus, and this of itself is so great an advantage as almost to outweigh any thing that could be urged in favor of any other system. But this is also the cheapest way of laying out land; for it is manifest that from the ridge to the furrow there will always be a sufficient fall for the flow of the sewage; therefore the actual watering of the plants can be done with certainty and regularity, and all that requires to be attended to is the fall to be given to the carrier in the ridge, and to regulate this, unless the land is either very flat or very irregular in formation, very little soil need be shifted, except along the line of the ridge. Moreover, if, during the first year that the land is laid out, there may be a little too much fall from the ridge to the furrow in one place, or rather too little in another, owing to the shifting of the land to fill up hollows and level rises in the length of the ridge, this irregularity will be diminished every time that the land is worked, and so, in the course of a few years, will gradually disappear. Last year I laid out a small experimental field, of some nine acres, on this system, under peculiar disadvantages, as the point to which alone I could bring the sewage was slightly lower than most other parts of the field; and although there was very little difference of level in any part, yet such difference as there was, was against me. The field was also irregularly shaped, one of its sides being more than twice as long as the opposite side, and one of its corner angles very acute, and another very obtuse; but, as I ran my lands so as to abut upon or tail off on the side between these two angles, this difficulty vanished; for, of course, it did not the least signify whether the end of each land was square or not. I also laid out the lands of slightly-varying breadths and of an increasing slope, beginning with a very flat land and rising to very steep one—the last land having a fall of 1 in 10 from the ridge to the furrow. The most convenient size of land is 40 feet or 45 feet wide from furrow to furrow, with a slope of 1 in 20 from furrow to ridge. The best mode of conducting the work in laying out lands in this way is, after any small amount of cross-ploughing or filling-up old furrows, and other similar work that may be necessary, has been got through, to plough the land into ridges approximating to the desired height. These ridges should then be rolled very heavily, when it will be seen whether or not their fall is sufficiently continuous to admit of a carrier being dug in them as they are; and, if it is found that any shifting of earth is required, the rolling of the ridge will have answered the purpose of making the carting lighter. You will observe that the simplicity of this mode of laying out land, as compared with attempting to alter the levels of the entire surface of a field, is very great; the labor is, in fact, minimized, and, moreover, for the future cultivation of each individual crop, the form of lands which I have described is, I find, very convenient. Of course, the size of each land is known with accuracy; therefore, all the future cultivation, whether ploughing, or hoeing, or weeding, or harvesting, may be done by piece-work, and the quantities of sewage applied and the bulk of produce obtained can be checked and ascertained with very great ease; and thus the farmer has a better opportunity of finding out the exact profit that he makes upon any particular crop.

With regard to the cost of such laying out, this must, of course, depend upon the prior formation of the ground; but this part of laying out in ridges may practically be done for the cost of, perhaps, one extra ploughing.

There remains, then, the question over what area and to what crops to apply the sewage; and, clearly, the area on which it is applied must depend, in some measure, upon the crops selected. One important crop must always be grass; because this is the only crop that is always on the ground, and always more or less in a growing condition. It is the only crop, therefore, to which sewage can be applied more or less usefully on all days in the year; and, wherever any large quantity of sewage is to be disposed of, there is always a population to consume grass, whether in the form of meat, or of dairy produce, or of horse-labor. A very considerable quantity of the sewage of any town can, therefore, always be used in the production of grass, without any danger of overstocking the market. The experience that we have had, both at the Lodge Farm, in the occupation of the Metropolis Sewage Company, and on my own experimental field, shows that sewage is equally applicable to cereal crops as to grass, green crops, and vegetables; but, no doubt, a greater return per acre can be obtained by the production of the latter, because a greater quantity of sewage can be utilized by them than by cereals, and, therefore, it is desirable that the bulk of the sewage should be applied to either grass, green crops, or market-garden vegetables. But, in a case where sewage is carried to a considerable distance from a town, into a purely farming district, experience proves that sewage is quite as applicable to cereal crops as to any

other during the periods of the year when it can be so applied; and in the early spring, before the summer green crops are sown, probably sewage may be more usefully applied to winter wheat and oats than to any thing else. The third crop of wheat, on the same land, the third year running, can now be seen growing, and apparently very healthy, upon a poor gravel at the Lodge Farm; and this result has been obtained exclusively by the use of sewage, and of a surprisingly small quantity. Last year there was a very fair crop indeed of 5½ quarters to the acre, and the sewage applied was only about 500 tons—equal, in round numbers, at a penny a ton, to about a couple of guineas; and, the first year that we tried sewage upon wheat, it was put to one portion of the same field which looked particularly bad. Two portions of this field were carefully measured, and one was left as it was, and the other was sewaged with about the same quantity of sewage as mentioned before. The result was very remarkable. The unsewaged portion gave 3 loads of straw to the acre, and 3 quarters 5 bushels of grain; the sewaged portion gave, as was naturally to be expected, a large increase of straw, 4½ loads to the acre, or 50 per cent. of increase; and the figures of the grain were still more satisfactory, being inverted—namely, 5 quarters and 3 bushels to the acre.

We should now consider the quantity of sewage per acre which may be usefully applied to crops of grass, roots, and vegetables, to which the main bulk of the sewage must always be applied. With regard to grass, I have frequently had controversies with various persons, including some well-known agriculturists, as to the proper kind of grass to which to apply sewage, and also as to the proper time of sowing the proper quantity of sewage to be applied, and the result to be looked for. Some persons have imagined that sewage can be beneficially applied to ordinary natural grasses year after year, and they cite the Craigentinny meadows at Edinburgh as an example; and cases have been brought to my notice where I myself have been quoted as supporting this notion; but it is an idea which I am altogether opposed to. The water and manure, which together compose sewage, stimulate the growth of all the hardier and ranker kinds of natural grasses to such an extent that in the course of time they choke and kill out all the finer kinds, and the grass becomes the rank, nasty stuff that we see at Craigentinny.

Many persons imagine that sewage cannot be applied to any crop without positive injury, during hard frosts or snow; but this is not the case. The sewage is always above the freezing-point, and more so than ordinary running water. The actual contact with the sewage must, therefore, be beneficial to the plants in protecting them from cold.

The water supply of London, as proved by the official returns, exceeds thirty gallons per head per diem. This would give upward of 48 tons of sewage per head in the course of a year; so that, if we take 50 tons as an easy calculation in round numbers for the quantity of sewage per head flowing out of any town, we shall not be very far wrong. In this way 5,000 tons would represent the sewage of 100 persons; so that, as the sewage of 100 persons is the maximum amount that can be properly utilized by a crop of Italian rye-grass, and as the rye-grass can be grown only once in two years, we should get fifty persons per acre as the maximum proportion of population which is at all safe to apply. But, of course, it never would suit the convenience of any farmer to grow nothing but a never-ending see-saw of Italian rye-grass and potatoes.

With regard to other crops, we have grown 52½ tons of mangold-wurzel per acre at the Lodge Farm from the application of 1,100 tons of sewage to land which was completely worked out by white crops. Now, 1,100 tons would be equal, according to the same rough calculation, to the sewage of only 22 persons per acre.

When I talk of 70 tons per acre as a weight of mangold which ought to be obtained every season by the use of sewage, it is not such an unreasonable thing as it at first appears. And if we apply 2,000 tons per acre to a crop of mangold, it would be equivalent roughly to one acre for every 40 persons; and my own opinion is, that some such proportion should be the very minimum of land which should be laid out for the utilization of the sewage of any town. And it would be greatly for the advantage, both of the town and of the farmer, if an increased area were put under, at all events, the possibility of irrigation; for, how often would not the farmer, if his land were laid out for it, be only too glad to give an occasional dressing to a crop of wheat that looked sickly after the March storms, to a crop of turnips that he was afraid of losing from the fly, or even to a crop of potatoes in a dry summer?

And now a few words as to the money value of town sewage. When used for market-garden vegetables its value is exceptionally great, as the vegetables produced are of the finest possible quality; being grown with maximum rapidity, on which the quality of vegetables specially depends. Now, it is well known that market-gardeners apply from £10 to £20 worth of solid manure to the acre, around London, at all events; while, to produce the finest crops of cabbages, cauliflowers, or celery, only takes from 500 to 1,000 tons of sewage, according to the particular species of seed used, and the particular age at which it is desired to send the crop to market. Taking, then, the highest of these quantities, or 1,000 tons as equal to the lowest value for a garden dressing of ordinary manure, or £10 an acre, we should have a total value of 2,400 pence for 1,000 tons of sewage, or nearly 2½d. per ton; and I have no reason to suppose that this

is at all beyond what a market-gardener could afford to pay, having regard to the superior result which he obtains. And it is somewhat curious that this value does not differ very considerably from the only reliable valuation that was ever made of the chemical ingredients in town sewage. To be on the safe side, I have always taken 1d. a ton as the standard price at which the Metropolis Sewage Company should sell the sewage to the farmer; and a very few rough calculations will show that this is a very safe estimate indeed.

To take the case of Italian rye-grass. We have seen that 90 to 100 tons of grass ought to be grown from 5,000 tons of sewage in the course of one entire growing season. Now, 5,000 tons at 1d. are equal to £20 16s. 8d., to which we must add, say £4 an acre for rent and taxes; £1 an acre for application of sewage, interest on improvement expenditure, and other small items; the mowing of ten crops a year by machine (for which I may mention the rye-grass is particularly suitable) at 3s., £1 10s.; carting 100 tons to the homestead at 6d., £2 10s.; or a total of £29 16s. 8d.—say, £30.

If we take such a crop as mangold-wurzel and apply 2,000 tons at 1d., we have a charge for sewage of £8 6s. 8d. per acre; taking the same figures of £4 for rent and taxes, and £1 for application of sewage, etc., 30s. for cultivation, 10s. for seed, 10s. for hoeing, and 70s. for harvesting 70 tons of roots, we have a total charge of £19 6s. 8d. per acre, and taking the same price of 15s. per ton for the value of the food obtained, we have a total yield of £52 10s. per acre, or a net balance to the farmer of £33 3s. 4d.; and, as we have produced 52½ tons of mangold at the Lodge Farm from 1,100 tons of sewage, it is not going too far in reckoning upon 70 tons of mangold from 2,000 tons of sewage.

It may be objected that I am dealing with the sewage of a great city, and not of a small town; but though the rainfall is less in London in proportion to the population, yet the water supply is greater, and the two together give 75 or 80 tons of sewage per head per annum, instead of 50; so if this diluted sewage is of the value I have described, surely a sewage equal to only 50 tons per head per annum cannot be worth less. Now, 50 tons at 1d. are equal to 4s. 2d.; at 2d. 8s. 4d.; and at 2½d. 10s. 5d.; so that as the urban population of England, living in towns of 2,000 inhabitants and upward, exceeds ten millions, and as almost all these towns are duly polluting the rivers in conformity with the "Towns Improvement Act, 1847," they are propagating scarlet fever and typhus at a direct cost to the towns of £5,000,000 a year, in addition to the indirect loss to the land and to the working-classes; so that we may reckon the loss to the country in gold exported to pay for foreign manure, grain, beef, mutton, hides, wool, bacon, butter, and cheese, at not less than £15,000,000 sterling annually.

SMITH, TOULMIN, an eminent English publicist, constitutional lawyer, and Scandinavian scholar, born in Birmingham, May 29, 1816; died at Lancing, Sussex, England, April 28, 1869. He was a descendant of an old and honorable family of Birmingham, his ancestors having been for five hundred years property-holders in that town. His father was an active educational reformer and writer. The family were Dissenters. Mr. Toulmin Smith received a very thorough education in the excellent schools of Birmingham, and, possessing extraordinary abilities and application, early distinguished himself. In 1835, when but nineteen years of age, he prepared an elaborate "Introduction to the Latin Language," and in 1836 published "A Popular View of the Progress of Philosophy among the Ancients." At an early age he had commenced the study of the Scandinavian languages, literature, history, and politics, and, at the age of twenty-three or four, was one of the most accomplished Scandinavian scholars in Great Britain. In 1837, Mr. Smith sailed for the United States, where he remained five years. During his residence there, he published a volume of great labor and research, but one which has made his name famous on both sides of the sea, "On the Discovery of America by the Northmen in the Tenth Century." The work was accompanied by maps and plates, and has, ever since its publication, in 1839, been considered the standard authority on that subject. The most eminent American historians have quoted it, and it was the ground of his election as a corresponding member of the Society of Northern Antiquaries, at Copenhagen, a well-deserved tribute to his ability and carefulness of research. On his return to Europe, he devoted himself very sedulously to the study of constitutional and Old Saxon law, and became an acknowledged master of both. He was not called to the bar till 1849, but the same year published a treatise, in which, with great learning and power, he demonstrated that "Government by Commissions was illegal and pernicious," and a few months later, in his "Parallels between the Constitution and Constitutional History of England and Hungary," enlightened the nation concerning the political history of the Magyars, and evoked an earnest sympathy for the great Hungarian leader. In 1854, as the result of long and patient study and research, he published his great work, "The Parish: its Obligations and Powers, its Officers and their Duties," a masterly treatise on the whole history of organization and development of the parish, from the earliest Saxon records to the present time. This work, which has passed through several editions, is an admirable contribution to the history of local self-government, and of the foundations of English liberty. In 1855 he prepared a treatise of great practical value, "The Law of Nuisances and Sewerage Works." In 1859 he published "The Right Holding of the

Coroner's Court," in which he traced the history of this ancient institution. For eight years he conducted *The Parliamentary Remembrancer*, a periodical which was not merely a record of Parliamentary proceedings, a hand-book of "bills" in progress and of votes recorded, but, by its learned annotations, illustrated practically present legislation by past Parliamentary action. Its essays and notes were singularly able treatises on Parliamentary practice and English law, the growth of public opinion on great questions of public interest, etc. He was also a very learned antiquarian, and from childhood strongly attached to his native town of Birmingham. He had published, in 1868, "The Traditions of the Old Crown House in Der-Yat-End, in the Lordship of Birmingham" (a famous building which had been in possession of the family for 500 years), and had nearly completed, at the time of his death, a "History of English Guilds," a work of immense labor, for the Early English Text Society. He had also gathered and largely annotated the materials for a History of Birmingham. He had found time, in his busy life, for the cultivation of physical science, and was a skilful geologist and mineralogist.

SOUTH CAROLINA. Since the adoption of the new State constitution, in the year 1868, the efforts of the citizens of South Carolina have been directed toward securing order and prosperity in the public affairs of the State, and rapid progress has been made, through well-directed legislation, in improving and perfecting the State government. The condition of public affairs, consequent upon the recent reorganization of the State government, suggested subjects of an important nature requiring the attention of the Legislature. Pursuant to the provisions of the new constitution, fixing the 4th Monday of November, in each year, as the time for the assembling of the Legislature, that body was convened at Columbia on the 22d of November, and continued in session until the 24th of March, 1869, when it adjourned to meet again in November. The previous election had given to the colored members a majority in the General Assembly, since they held 76 of the 124 seats in the House, and 9 of the 33 in the Senate. Of the white members there were 14 Democrats in the House and 7 in the Senate. With this balance of power in the Legislature, the interests of the colored citizens of the State were not overlooked. The ratification of the fifteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States was carried by a vote of 18 to 1 in the Senate, and 88 to 8 in the House; the law regulating the manner of drawing jurors was so amended that, on the completed list of jurors, "the number of names of white voters shall bear to the number of names of colored voters, as near as may be, the same proportion as the whole number of white voters bears to the whole number of colored voters in the township, city, or county, as the case may be;" and, to insure the enforcement of the Civil Rights Bill of Congress, a bill was passed providing as follows:

SECTION 1. That from and after the passage of this bill it shall not be lawful for common carriers or any party or parties engaged in any business, calling, or pursuit, for the carrying on of which a license or charter is required by law, municipal, State, Federal, or otherwise, to discriminate between persons on account of race, color, or previous condition, who shall make lawful application for the benefit of such business, calling, or pursuit.

SEC. 2. Any party so discriminating shall be considered as having violated this act, and, upon conviction, shall be punished by a fine of not less than two hundred dollars, or imprisonment for not less than six months.

SEC. 3. No act of incorporation shall be conferred upon any organization, the rules and regulations of which contain features not compatible with the provisions of this act.

SEC. 4. All acts or parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

During the session the criminal law of the State was amended by abolishing capital punishment, except in cases of wilful murder, and providing for the punishment of rape and arson, by imprisonment in the penitentiary for life, or for a period not less than ten years, and making the penalty of manslaughter and burglary imprisonment for a period not exceeding thirty years. The bill passed for the reorganization and government of the militia provides for the enrolment of "all able-bodied male citizens, between the ages of eighteen and forty-five years, residing in this State, and not exempted by the laws of the United States." The power to appoint officers is held by the Governor and by the commander-in-chief of the Militia. The organized militia is to be known as the "National Guard of the State of South Carolina," and the formation of any other military organization in the State is prohibited. By another bill, intended to "remain in full force and effect until the militia of the State is organized and ready for service," the Executive was authorized to enlist, arm, and equip a company of one hundred men, or more if necessary, to enable him to quell any disturbance, and arrest the guilty parties, "when in any county in this State it shall become impossible, from any cause, to enforce the laws and keep the peace by the ordinary civil process."

Many contracts between citizens were made in South Carolina during the late war, in which notes issued by the Confederate States were used as a basis of value. As there were great fluctuations in the value of these notes during the war and after its close, payments of debts and obligations were sought to be enforced in the lawful money of the United States; much confusion existed as to the proper equivalent in lawful money for such Confederate notes. It therefore became necessary for the Legislature to settle this question by some specific enactment. By the act passed for this purpose, the value of these notes was fixed for each month, from January, 1861,

when "one dollar of lawful money was equal to one dollar and five cents of Confederate States notes," to the 1st of May, 1865, when "one dollar of lawful money was equal to $833.33 of Confederate States notes;" and it was provided "that the value of all debts and obligations, whether under seal, created or contracted in Confederate States notes, or with reference to Confederate States notes as a basis of value, issued by the so-called Confederate States Government, or in or by any bills, bonds, or notes assimilated or made equivalent in value to Confederate States notes, by any law or custom of trade, during the years 1861, 1862, 1863, 1864, and 1865, shall be determined by the value of said Confederate States notes in the lawful money of the United States at the time such debts or obligations were created or contracted."

The sentiments of the Republicans of South Carolina, in regard to the political character of the men appointed to office in the State, were expressed in the speeches and resolutions at a meeting of the Republican members of the Legislature, held before the adjournment of that body. Representations had been received from Washington that the Representatives from South Carolina were about to urge upon the President the appointment of certain persons to office in the State, who were and had been open enemies to the State government and the reconstruction laws of Congress. A meeting was at once called, at which speeches were made by many prominent members of the Legislature, both white and colored, remonstrating against the proposed distribution of Federal offices in the State, and the following resolutions were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we, the Republican members of the Legislature, representing a large majority of the people in this State, insist and demand of our Representatives in Washington that no person shall be appointed to office in the civil service of the United States, in this State, who is not known to have been, and now is, the true and tried friend of liberty, a free ballot, the enforcement of the reconstruction laws of Congress, and maintenance of the present State government; and further, that every man holding office in this State, who has not, in days gone by, earnestly and unequivocally favored the system of reconstruction of the United State Congress, and the maintenance of the present State government, shall not be allowed to hold office and control the Federal patronage in this State to the exclusion of those who, in the dark hours of the past, have been true to the principles which are the foundation-stones of the present State government, to wit: a free ballot, equal and exact justice before the law for all, and the zealous advocate of the principles enunciated in the present State constitution established by the people of the State of South Carolina, in pursuance of the requirements of the reconstruction acts of Congress.

Resolved, That, in consideration of these things, a special committee be appointed, to consist of members of the Senate and House of Representatives, to draft a suitable preamble and resolutions expressive of the sense of the Republican party in this State, and to forward the same to our Senators and Representatives at Washington.

No question occupied a greater share of public attention in the State during the past year than that growing out of the election for municipal officers in the city of Charleston, held on the 10th of November, 1868. Under the provisions of a law passed at the special session of the Legislature, in September of that year, it became the duty of the mayor and aldermen, in case of an election in an incorporated city, to publish the whole number of votes cast for each candidate, and declare the election of those receiving the highest number. In this case it was ascertained that Gilbert Pillsbury, the Republican candidate for mayor, and the Republican candidates for aldermen, had received the largest number of votes, and were therefore elected. But, in compliance with the protest of a portion of the citizens against the validity of the election, on the ground of alleged irregularities in its conduct, the mayor and aldermen refused to publish the returns as made by the managers of the election, or to declare the election of the successful candidates. The Board of Aldermen, after making an investigation, in which it appeared that the alleged irregularities were merely technical, and did not affect the result, declared the election void. The aid of the Supreme Court was now sought, to compel the existing authorities to declare the election as required by law, and for this purpose an alternative writ of *mandamus* was issued. In answer to this writ, a return was made by the Board of Aldermen, in which they certified that the election had been contested, and that, after an examination of the returns, they had declared the election void, on the ground of certain irregularities. The court having decided that the Board of Aldermen had no authority thus to declare the election void, held the return to be insufficient, and issued an order commanding them to declare the election, as required by law, and make return thereof to the Supreme Court on the 20th day of January, 1869. The Board of Aldermen obeyed this peremptory order by publicly declaring that the Republican candidates had received the largest number of votes, without admitting, however, that they had been *duly elected;* and both mayor and aldermen still refused to vacate or surrender their offices.

As it would have required not less than a year to reach a final adjustment of the difficulty in the courts, the matter was at once brought before the Legislature by Mr. Corbin, a Senator from Charleston, who introduced into the Senate a "Bill to confirm and declare valid the recent election of mayor and aldermen in the city of Charleston," which was subsequently amended to read as follows:

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of South Carolina, now met and sitting in General Assembly, and by the authority of the same:

SECTION 1. That the election held in the city of Charleston on the 10th day of November, A. D. 1868, for the several offices of mayor and aldermen of said city, the result of which has been declared by the acting Board of Aldermen of said city, be, and

the same is hereby, confirmed and declared valid, to all intents and purposes, as if the same had been conducted in strict accordance with the technicalities and provisions of existing laws.

SEC. 2. That immediately after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of the acting mayor and aldermen of the city of Charleston, on demand, to turn over all the property, books, and papers pertaining to their several respective offices, to the persons declared by them to have received, on the 10th day of November, A. D. 1868, the largest number of votes for the several offices of mayor and aldermen of said city, and to vacate and surrender to said persons their several and respective offices.

SEC. 3. That for each and every day's detention or holding of the office of mayor or alderman of the city of Charleston, contrary to the provisions of this act, the person or persons so offending shall be subject to a penalty of fifty dollars, the said penalty to be recovered in an action of debt by the person or persons aggrieved and kept out of office thereby.

SEC. 4. Any laws continuing in office persons elected or appointed to office previous to, or during, or under the late provisional government of South Carolina, or under or by virtue of any military orders, shall be held not to apply to or continue in office the present acting mayor and aldermen of the city of Charleston, but as to them said laws shall be held to be null and void. All acts or parts of acts inconsistent with this act are hereby repealed.

This measure elicited a protracted and animated discussion in both branches of the General Assembly. Its opponents contended that the settlement of the question belonged to the judicial department of the government, and was not a subject for legislative action; while on the other hand many precedents were cited to sustain the authority of the Legislature "upon the principle that the law-making power has a right to dispense with the compliance with the formalities or requirements of its own acts."

The bill having become a law on the 1st of March, the refusal of the acting mayor and aldermen to surrender possession of their offices rendered it necessary again to appeal to the courts. Accordingly the claimants sought to obtain possession of the offices and papers by means of a writ of *mandamus*, which, however, being decided by the court not to be the proper remedy, a writ of *quo warranto* was then obtained from the Circuit Court; but it was not until the 1st of May that the contest was ended by the decision of the court in favor of the candidates who had received the highest number of votes. In rendering this decision, Judge Carpenter said: "The act of March 1, 1869, does not amend the charter. It makes an election regular and valid which was before irregular and defective. The State government had constituted certain persons its political agents to conduct the election; they conducted it in an irregular and illegal manner. The conditions upon which it should have been held were prescribed by the political powers of the State; the same powers might have neglected to require the performance of those conditions before the election, had a right to waive them afterward, deemed it expedient to do so, and did make it valid and legal. The power conceded, the expediency and propriety of the measure, are considerations exclusively for the Legislature. The statute is unambiguous, its language explicit; the law has spoken, and it becomes my imperative duty so to decide." In consequence of this decision, no further opposition was manifested, and, on the 3d of May, Mayor Pillsbury, and the aldermen elect, assumed control of the city government.

The relations between laborers and employers have formed a prominent topic of discussion during the past year, as being closely allied with the industrial reconstruction of the State. A large proportion of the laborers, being freedmen employed upon farms and plantations, have had occasion to complain of the unjust conditions imposed upon them by planters in contracts for labor, and of the insufficiency of the wages, and the uncertainty of their prompt collection. Another alleged cause of complaint has been the obstacles encountered by thrifty laborers in their efforts to purchase land in parcels commensurate with their limited means.

In consequence of these grievances, a State Labor Convention, composed chiefly of colored delegates, was held in the latter part of November at Columbia, the object of which was to obtain from the General Assembly then in session the legislation necessary to protect the laborer from the alleged rapacity and dishonesty of his employer. In a memorial presented to the Legislature, the position and the wants of the agricultural laboring-class of the State were defined, and a redress of their grievances asked in the following terms:

We pray that your honorable body will provide by statute:

1. That the claim of the agricultural laborer for wages due shall operate as a preferred lien upon the land that he works, and that the planter or owner of said land shall not sell or alienate the same, until such claim is satisfied.

2. That the Governor shall appoint a discreet and proper person in each county who shall be designated as "commissioner of contracts." Such persons shall be charged with the duty of examining and attesting all contracts between the planter and laborer, and shall act as advisory counsel of the laborer upon all questions that may arise under his contract. He shall make a quarterly report to the Bureau of Agricultural Statistics, setting forth the number of laborers in his county, how employed, and the rate of wages paid, and the names of planters and laborers who may have violated their contracts, all of which shall be laid before the General Assembly, at the commencement of each session thereof, and shall be published for general information.

3. That the suits of all classes of laborers and employés for wages due them shall have precedence on the calendars of the courts, over all other civil suits, and shall be heard at the first term of the court after the declaration of the plaintiff in the same shall have been filed.

4. That the Governor shall be authorized to appoint, in each county, an officer whose duty it shall be to make up the list of jurors, and superintend the drawing of the same, in order that the laboring-classes may have a fair representation on the juries, a privilege which is practically denied them in the rural districts, under the operation of the present system.

5. That, when lands are sold under execution, the sheriff shall divide them, as nearly as practicable, into tracts not exceeding fifty acres each, in order that the small capitalists may be enabled to purchase.

We believe that this measure will greatly facilitate

the acquisition of land by the landless, and that it can be rendered legally practicable by providing that the decree of sale, in each case, shall declare that only so much of the debtor's land, or the subdivisions thereof, shall be sold as may be necessary to satisfy the judgment.

6. That all due-bills given by planters to laborers shall specify in terms the special consideration for which the same shall have been given, and shall be transferable, at the option of the holder, and shall operate as a lien upon the crop and land whenever such due-bill is given, in lieu of payment for agricultural labor.

7. That nine hours shall be a lawful day's work for all mechanics and laborers engaged in manufactures or in any business requiring skilled labor.

8. Abolish all taxes on sales of cotton and rice, by either State or municipal authorities.

Your memorialists are satisfied that the enactment of the laws herein prayed for will be of vast benefit to the agricultural laborers, and will greatly tend to advance the industrial reconstruction of the entire State.

This action on the part of the laboring-class was not without its effect; for a bill was promptly introduced into the House, with fair prospects of becoming a law, embodying the main points of the memorial.

The total receipts into the Treasury during the fiscal year ending October 31, 1869, were $2,084,911.44; the total expenditures amounted to $2,099,345.44, of which the sum of $995,973.24 was paid on account of floating debts, and expenses incurred prior to the beginning of the fiscal year, thus reducing the actual cost of the State government for this year to $1,103,372.20. Deducting from this sum the amount of disbursements ($69,119.80) made in fitting up the new State-house, and in taking the census, there remains as the ordinary current expenses of the State government for the year the sum of $1,034,252.40. The balance remaining in the Treasury at the end of the fiscal year was $11,851.07. The funded debt of the State is $6,183,349.17, bearing an annual interest of $338,693.86. Of this debt, the sum of $304,443.89 falls due in June of 1870. The total amount of assets held by the State is $2,754,660. The taxes paid into the State Treasury during the fiscal year amounted to $1,028,696.98; in addition to which there was paid into the Federal Treasury, for the internal revenue, the sum of $2,622,690.68.

The Land Commission, established in 1868 by the Legislature for the purpose of purchasing lands to be sold in small parcels, on favorable terms, to meet the wants of purchasers of limited means, has been productive of much good to the State. Forty-five thousand acres of land have already been purchased in the several counties, which is now in process of survey and division into tracts of a size adapted to the means of purchasers. The following table shows the extent and nature of the lands of the State and their valuation:

	No. of acres.	Value.
Arable or plough lands....	2,490,445	$23,670,756
Meadow and pasture lands	2,019,105	7,302,275
Wood, uncultivated, and marsh-lands.....	11,975,412	42,389,023
Total.....	16,484,962	$173,362,054

The importance of improving the extensive tracts of swamp-lands by a thorough system of drainage is attracting the attention of thoughtful men in the State. These lands are chiefly situated along the coast, and in their present condition are not only unproductive and worthless, but, by their pestilential exhalations, render the adjacent territory uninhabitable for a considerable portion of the year. Yet, on account of the great fertility of the soil and the mildness of the climate, their improvement and tillage would contribute largely to the agricultural products of the State, and render this extensive region a favorite one for habitation. The great value of this improvement has been called to the attention of the Legislature by Governor Scott in his last annual message to that body.

The public schools of South Carolina are not so well attended as they should be. There are 168,819 children in the State between the ages of 5 and 18 years, of whom 68,108 are white and 100,711 colored. Yet, of this aggregate number, only 16,418 (8,255 white and 8,163 colored) attend the public schools. The whole number of public schools in the State is 381, in which 478 white and 50 colored teachers are employed. Of the white teachers, 405 are from the Southern States and 73 from the Northern; of the colored teachers, 44 are males and 6 females. Of the whole number of teachers, 255 are males and 273 females.

The Lunatic Asylum is reported to be in a favorable condition. Additional accommodations are needed to meet the wants of applicants. The establishment of a separate institution for idiots and imbeciles is recommended, as their condition requires a different treatment from that of lunatics. The number of patients under treatment in the asylum during the year was 298, of whom 64 were discharged, leaving 234 in the asylum at the end of the year. Of the 64 discharged, 47 had been entirely cured. The number admitted during the year was 94, of whom 48 were males and 46 females. Of the total number admitted, 67 were cases of more than one year's standing, and were regarded as chronic; 13 were idiots or imbeciles, and 14 were epileptic. Prior to the close of the war the number of colored patients did not exceed 5 in any year; while during the past year the number admitted was 29. The receipts into the Treasury during the year amounted to $48,244.65, and the expenditures were $48,399.56.

The highest number of convicts in the penitentiary in 1869 was 506, of whom 301 were received during the year. The number discharged during the year on expiration of sentence was 51; 8 died; 16 escaped, and 136 were pardoned; leaving 295 in confinement at the end of the year. The number of pardons granted is unusually large; but in most cases they were granted a few days before the expiration of the sentences, in order to preserve the civil rights of those pardoned. The ex-

penditures of the year were $61,522.50; the amount of work performed by convicts, as estimated at contract price, and of materials and stores on hand, $93,675.69, leaving a balance of $32,153.19 to the credit of the institution.

There has been a marked decrease in the aggregate value of the real and personal property in the State since 1860, the extent of which, owing to the changes wrought within that period, has not been accurately determined. The assessed valuation of the real property in 1860 was $129,772,684, and of the personal property $359,546,444, which included slaves, valued at $160,962,400; in 1869 the assessed value of the real property was $125,170,069, while the personal property was valued at $38,828,410.

The number and assessed value of live-stock in the State in 1869, as compared with the number and value in 1860, are exhibited in the following statement:

	1869.		1860.	
	Number.	Value.	Number.	Value.
Horses	50,071	$3,926,580	81,125	.....
Cattle	270,987	2,589,969	506,776	.....
Mules & Asses	39,257	3,611,671	56,456	.....
Sheep & Goats	164,421	198,664	238,509	.....
Hogs	468,373	1,450,494	965,779	.....
Total	993,109	$11,776,808	1,843,645	$23,934,465

Pursuant to an act of the Legislature, passed in March, 1869, an enumeration of the inhabitants of South Carolina was made during the year, which presented the following results:

COUNTIES.	TOTAL NUMBER OF PERSONS OF ALL AGES.				AGGREGATE OR TOTAL POPULATION.
	MALES.		FEMALES.		
	White.	Colored.	White.	Colored.	
Abbeville	4,478	7,977	5,004	9,376	26,835
Anderson	6,609	4,274	7,463	4,779	23,125
Barnwell	5,179	7,893	5,254	8,728	27,054
Beaufort	3,138	14,198	3,037	18,991	39,364
Charleston	12,367	24,977	13,747	30,165	81,256
Clarendon	2,136	4,248	2,314	4,517	13,215
Chester	3,295	6,305	3,607	6,639	19,846
Chesterfield	3,202	2,036	3,736	2,328	11,302
Colleton	4,142	8,473	4,248	8,483	25,346
Darlington	4,946	7,328	5,495	8,071	25,840
Edgefield	6,493	9,416	7,454	10,223	33,586
Fairfield	2,291	5,580	2,582	5,944	16,497
Georgetown	1,381	6,266	1,300	7,426	16,372
Greenville	7,153	3,876	7,803	4,280	23,112
Horry	3,551	1,457	3,789	1,492	10,289
Kershaw	1,902	3,698	2,078	3,952	11,630
Lancaster	2,472	2,431	2,655	1,823	9,381
Laurens	4,540	6,060	5,464	6,322	22,386
Lexington	4,361	2,426	4,643	2,625	14,055
Marion	2,598	1,827	3,994	3,527	11,955
Marlboro'	2,763	2,871	2,852	3,102	11,588
Newberry	3,021	5,845	3,330	6,081	18,277
Oconee	3,961	1,229	4,476	1,285	10,951
Orangeburg	4,401	8,543	4,344	9,554	26,842
Pickens	3,912	1,231	4,447	1,305	10,795
Richland	3,143	6,022	3,273	6,705	19,143
Spartanburg	7,848	3,491	8,973	3,961	24,273
Sumter	3,375	4,233	3,543	8,546	19,697
Union	3,952	4,491	4,512	5,135	18,090
Williamsburg	2,671	5,335	2,829	5,641	16,476
York	5,423	5,535	6,012	5,561	22,531
Total	130,803	179,572	144,158	206,566	661,099
City of Charleston	9,518	10,275	10,835	14,295	44,923

The number of inhabitants in the State, in 1860, was as follows:

	Males.	Females.	Total.
White	146,201	145,187	291,388
Free colored	4,548	5,366	9,914
Slaves	196,571	205,835	402,406
Aggregate	347,320	356,388	703,708

A comparison of the results above given shows a decrease of 16,427 in the white population of the State since 1860, and 26,182 in the colored, making a total decrease in the population of 42,609. The decrease in the white population has been five and a half per cent., and in the colored six and a third per cent.

SPAIN. Throughout the year 1869 the country was under a Provisional Government. On the 18th of June, 1869, Marshal F. Serrano y Dominguez, Duke de la Torre, was appointed Regent, and formed the following ministry: President of the Council and Minister of War, Captain-General J. Prim, Count de Reus, Marquis de los Castellejos; Minister of State, M. Silvela; Minister of Justice, M. Ruiz Zorilla; Minister of Finances, C. Ardanaz; Minister of the Navy, Counter-Admiral J. B. Topete; Minister of the Interior, P. M. Sagasta; Minister of Agriculture, J. de Echegaray; Minister of the Colonies, M. Becerra.

The area of Spain, inclusive of the Balearic and Canary Islands, is 195,607 square miles; the population, in 1864, was 16,302,625. The population of the colonies, in 1869, was as follows:

America.—Cuba and dependencies (1867)	1,369,942
Porto Rico and dependencies (1864)	615,574
Asia and Oceanica	4,348,459
Africa.—The Guinea Islands	5,590
	6,339,565

The budget of 1869–'70 estimates the revenue at 214,113,800 escudos (1 escudo=48 cents); the expenditures, at 298,708,491 escudos; deficit, 84,594,691 escudos. The public debt on March 1, 1869, amounted to 2,551,000,000 escudos.

The army, according to a statement of the Minister of War, amounted, in the summer of 1869, to 80,000 men. The fleet is to consist of 7 iron-clad frigates, 5 large screw-steamers, 9 smaller screw-steamers, 8 side-wheel steamers, 2 transports, 2 sailing-vessels, 2 school-vessels. For the protection of the coast, there are to be employed 3 gunboats, and 84 sailing-vessels.

The bloody conflict between the republicans of Malaga and the troops of the Government, which took place in the last days of the year 1868, was quelled, after severe fighting, on January 2, 1869. The insurgents having refused the summons of General C. de Rodas to surrender, the latter, supported by the ships-of-war, after a prolonged fight took possession of all their positions, and completely defeated them. They lost 400 killed and wounded, and more than 600 taken prisoners. The conflicts between the republicans and the Government gave new confidence to the partisans of the

dethroned dynasty. The priests especially avowed themselves Bourbonists almost to a man. There were papers, like the *Siglo*, the *Esperanza*, the *Estandarte*, and the *Pensamiento Español*, which never made a mystery of their hopes and desires, which advocated the cause of the throne as indissolubly connected with that of the altar, and which fought its battles with a recklessness commensurate with their ability. The *Epoca* advocated the cause of the banished dynasty under the thinnest disguise of respect for legality. Bourbonism, in short, was militant and rampant throughout Spain—a foe sufficiently to be dreaded, even without reliance on the aid of native and foreign plotters from abroad.

Sagasta, Minister of the Interior, explained the position and duty of the Government regarding these outbreaks, by a circular, in which he says: "The Government has no intention of making a *coup d'état*, or of disarming the citizen militia. The present agitation tends to prevent the carrying out of universal suffrage in Spain, the meeting of the Cortes, and the definitive constitution of the country, and has, moreover, the effect of paralyzing Spanish credit. The Government, aware of the manœuvres which are being employed, is resolved to preserve intact the sacred deposit of the national sovereignty, and to maintain order until the assembling of the Cortes, whose decision it respectfully awaits, and does not desire to influence."

The election for the Cortes closed in the middle of January, and resulted in a considerable majority for the monarchical party. The nation exercised its right of general suffrage for the first time, and, though party spirit ran very high, and certain classes were deeply incensed at the duplicity of the Government, the election passed over with perfect order. The assassination of the Governor of Burgos, while making a new inventory of the archives of the cathedral, by some fanatics, created great excitement, and, at Madrid, demonstrations against the apostolic Nuncio induced the Provisional Government to issue, on January 28th, an address to the nation. The Archbishop of Burgos was arrested and given over to the custody of the military; and Zorilla, the Minister of Instruction, ordered that the archives of all convents and religious edifices should be seized.

The ex-Queen, Isabella, still indulging the hope to be restored to her throne, published, February 12th, the following protest:

To the Spanish Nation:

The Cortes, illegally convoked and elected to a great extent by violent and criminal measures, are about to meet in answer to the appeal of four ambitious men, who, by reducing the army, and even enlisting criminals in their cause, have succeeded by means of terror in substituting their cowardly and fatal tyranny for the constitution to which they mostly all swore fidelity, to the religion, laws, habits, and customs of their country, that they have overthrown, and which they are daily destroying.

The moment has now arrived for me to address you, Señores Senators and Deputies of the legitimate Cortes of the kingdom, the entire nation, impassible witnesses of such a great offence; the heiress of Pelayo and of Saint Ferdinand cannot longer assist at such a spectacle without raising her voice in protest. Therefore, let it be known by all:

I protest in the most solemn and categorical manner; I declare null and void all that has passed and that may transpire; I intend to retain my rights intact, of which those, who pretend to be invested with powers which naught but the demon of darkness, who directs their acts, could have granted, have not been able to dispossess me. It is universally known by what means they have brought the unfortunate Spain to her present painful position. Thanks to a tumultuous cry that proclaimed a universal and sovereign will, they have been enabled to replace the supreme power of the King united to that of the Cortes, the most ancient and legitimate representation of the political right in Spain, by a theory as impracticable as it is deceitful in its appearance.

* * * * * *

Were it not for the injustice, madness, and violence that reign at present, you would see me among you at this moment. * * * *

But if God shortens the term of punishment, if the clouds heaped up by falsehoods, rendered blacker by calumny, end by being dispersed, and if, as I trust, I should be recalled by those who erringly forced me to leave, without knowing how bitter it is for a daughter of kings to eat the bread of exile, to cross the threshold of a stranger's house, to quaff the cup of tears and bitterness, if at last truth, sure but slow, should rekindle the flame of enthusiasm with which my people have so often received me, and which my grieved heart now more requires than my outraged pride; if the love for my name, which I do not for a moment doubt, should awaken within you and inspire the respect by the shadow of which alone can be developed, in a monarchy as ancient as it is Catholic, the precious fruits of peace, wise government, and just administration, the fundamental basis of public happiness, then, Spaniards, in your midst I will only bear in mind faithfulness and rendered services.

In the mean time, I address myself to you, Señores Senators and Deputies of the legitimate Cortes of the kingdom, and honorable men of all parties, in order that you may well understand, and, by all the available means in your power, make known my protest, which must for the present and for the future relieve me of the serious responsibility now pending over me; a protest which, without any ambition to power, merely obeying the love I bear to my country and my dynasty, I beg to make, before you and God, who is the only irrefutable witness of the sincerity of human sentiments. He witnesses mine, and knows that if the public good, the security of the Prince of Asturias, and other elevated considerations did not withhold my conscience, I could encircle my brow with the crown; for in His eternal knowledge God knows that hitherto I have only encountered thorns, and if some laurels have fallen whose offshoots can yield some fruit, those I reserve all for my son, or rather for my sons, Alphonse being but the eldest, because I have always loved the Spaniards with the feelings of a mother.

Let us, therefore, all unite together to remedy the general confusion, and let each in his centre of action do his utmost, in the name of God, to prevent the laws from being trodden under foot, the fostering of evil passions, the disappearance of legitimate right, the overthrowing of the temples of Jesus Christ; in short, let us not be reproached with the act of transmitting to our grandchildren that religion inherited so pure from our fathers, in a state of profanity and contempt. ISABELLA.

The Constituent Cortes organized on February 13th. Rivero was elected President on

the 20th of February, by 167 votes against 47 given to Orense. Serrano, Prim, Sagasta, Zorilla, Topete, Becerra, and Rivero, were elected at Madrid. Espartero, who had been elected at Saragossa, declined to accept. In the sitting of February 22d, Rivero thanked the deputies for the honor they had conferred upon him; and, after some routine business, a proposal was made by one of the secretaries that the Cortes should pass a vote of thanks to the Provisional Government, and intrust Marshal Serrano with the executive power, and the formation of a new Cabinet. Señor Martos strongly supported the motion, and Señor Castellar (Republican) opposed it in a long speech. The debate to which the proposal gave rise was a very protracted one. Three sittings were occupied by it. The Republicans, who opposed the motion, succeeded in obtaining 62 votes—their opponents, 180. At last, on February 24th, it was agreed that the Provisional Government should be thanked, and that Marshal Serrano should be intrusted with the formation of a new ministry. On the following day the marshal made a speech, in which he said that he had assumed office from patriotic motives alone; that, had supreme power been conferred upon him, he would have refused to exercise it; and that his desire was to go hand in hand with the Chamber, having the minority for censor and the majority for judge.

The strength of the parties represented in the Cortes was as follows: 129 Progressists, 80 Unionists, 13 Republicans, 24 Ultramontanes and Isabellists.

Among the aspirants to the royalty, the Duke de Montpensier was in the beginning of 1869 the most powerful, and at the same time the most opposed. In the Cortes the Republican members made bitter attacks upon the ministry for their alleged monarchical proclivities. They demanded that the Duke de Montpensier be divested of his rank of Marshal of Spain, and accused the Provisional Government of endeavoring to smuggle him into the country for the purpose of placing him upon the throne. General Prim replied that the Duke could not with justice be deprived of his title of marshal. Admiral Topete, the Minister of the Marine, amid great excitement declared that a kingdom with Montpensier on the throne was preferable to a republic. Marshal Serrano made a calm and dignified speech, defending the Provisional Government from the attacks of the Republicans, asserting the sovereign authority of the Cortes, and insisting that the determination of a form of government for Spain and the choice of her future ruler should be left to the Constituent Cortes alone. He deprecated the violent pressure brought to bear upon the Cortes by the Republican party as impolitic and unfair.

The Cortes rejected a bill providing for the abolition of the capitation tax, and the military conscription. General Prim having declared to them the country could not do without an army of at least 80,000 men, a new levy of 25,000 men was ordered for the army on March 24th, by 139 votes against 48, but it gave rise to fresh disturbances. Barricades were erected at Xeres; Seville and other towns became agitated. The revolt at Xeres was promptly suppressed by the troops, who attacked the barricades built by the revolutionists, and routed them. They were glad to avail themselves of the approach of darkness to evade their pursuers. On March 7th, however, the revolutionists again showed front, but, after a fierce struggle, were completely defeated.

The committee appointed to prepare a new Constitution made a report to the Cortes on March 30th. The preamble runs thus: "The Spanish nation, and in its name the Cortes Constituentes elected by universal suffrage, desiring to establish justice, to affiance liberty and security, and to develop the good and security of so many as live in Spain, decree and sanction the following:"

Chapter I., containing thirty-one articles, defines the rights of Spaniards, individual liberty, inviolability of domicile and letters, universal suffrage, liberty of speech and of the press, right of assembly, association, and petition. By article 20 the nation obliges itself to maintain the worship and the ministers of the Roman Catholic religion. By the following article the public and private exercise of any other worship is guaranteed to all foreigners resident in Spain, without other limitations than the universal rules of morals and of right. By article 22 it is enacted that if any Spaniards profess any other religion than the Catholic, all the dispositions of the foregoing paragraph are applicable to them. The right of establishing schools without license is guaranteed by article 24. In the second and third chapters the public and legislative powers are defined; the Congress to be composed of one deputy at least to each 40,000 souls of population, elected according to the electoral law; the deputy to be a Spaniard, twenty-five years of age, and in possession of civil rights. Chapter IV. is devoted to the executive power, the relation of the King to the state being stated: The person of the King is inviolable, and he is not subject to responsibility. The ministers are responsible. The King will nominate and freely dismiss his ministers. The power to execute the law resides in the King, and his authority extends to all that conduces to public order within and public security without the state. The King disposes of the sea and land forces, declares war, makes and ratifies peace, giving afterward documentary account to the Cortes. Only once in each legislature can the King suspend the Cortes without the consent of the same. In any case the Cortes must not fail to be reassembled within the time fixed in article 48. In event of dissolution of the Cortes, the royal decree will necessarily contain the convocation of new ones within three months. Beyond these necessary faculties for the execution of the laws, there belong to the King: 1. Care of the coining of money, on which will be placed his bust and name. 2. Appoint to civil and military employs, in accordance with the laws. 3. Concede in the same manner honors and distinctions. 4. Direct the diplomatic and commercial relations with other powers. 5. To forgive criminals, in accordance with the law, save what belongs relatively to the ministers. The King will need to be authorized by a special law: 1. To alienate, cede, or exchange any portion of the Spanish territory. 2. To incorporate any other territory into Spanish. 3. To admit foreign troops into the kingdom. 4. To ratify treaties of alliance, especially of commerce, those

which stipulate for subsidies to foreign powers, and all those which individually affect Spaniards; in no case may secret articles of a treaty modify the public ones. 5. To concede amnesties, and general indulgences. 6. To contract matrimony himself, and to permit it to be contracted by the persons who, being his subjects, have the right to succeed to the crown according to the Constitution. 7. To abdicate the crown. To the executive power belongs the faculty of making rules for the fulfilment and application of the laws previous to the requisites the same supply. The dotation of the King will be fixed at the beginning of each reign. On the succession to the crown (Chapter V.) it is proposed that the royal authority be hereditary. The succession to the throne will follow the regular order of primogeniture, always preferring the nearest lines—in the same line always preferring the male to the female, and in the same sex the oldest to the youngest. Should the dynasty which is called to the possession of the crown become extinct, the Cortes will proceed to a new choice, as may best suit the nation. When the King dies, the new King will swear to guard the constitution and the laws in the same mode and in the same terms as the Cortes may decree for the first occupant of the throne according to the Constitution. The Prince of Asturias will take the same oaths when he attains eighteen years of age. The Cortes will exclude from the succession those persons who may be incapable of governing, or who may have done any thing to merit the loss of the right to the crown. When a female reigns, her husband will have no part in the government of the kingdom. The King is of age at eighteen. The first articles refer to the powers exercised by ministers, and the public forces and taxes. Ministers not members of either of the Chambers cannot take part in the debates. Ministers may be impeached by the Lower House, and will be judged by the Senate. Trial by jury is established alike for political and ordinary offences.

The document was signed by Salustiano de Olozaga, President, and the Committee of Thirteen. The ministry, on finding the chances of the Duke de Montpensier to the throne very doubtful, applied in April to Don Fernando, ex-Regent of Portugal, but he refused the offer of the Spanish crown.

On April 19th, the Minister of Finances presented his budget. He estimates the receipts at 2,141,000,000 reales, of which 473,000,000 are derived from taxes upon landed property, 120,000,000 from taxes upon articles of commerce, and 45,000,000 from the succession duty. The salt and tobacco monopolies are to be abolished in 1870, and various modifications will be made in the tariff. He proposed to effect a reform in the system of prohibitory duties, after a period of six years, by gradually reducing such duties. He recommends that the amount of the floating debt be fixed by law at 600,000,000 reales.

The discussion of the Constitution began April 6th. In the debate on April 22d, the clauses granting the liberty of the press and the freedom of public meeting were adopted, after an amendment empowering the authorities to inspect the contents of newspapers before publication had been suspended. A bill of amnesty was passed by the Cortes on May 1st.

On May 5th a Carlist conspiracy was discovered at Barcelona. Its discovery led to the arrest of thirty-six persons, among whom there were several superior officers.

In the sitting of the Constituent Cortes on May 12th, the discussion on the draft of the Constitution was renewed. Article 31, relating to the circumstances under which the constitutional guarantees may be suspended, was adopted by 96 votes against 56. The Cortes rejected a proposition of Señor Orense to add a clause proclaiming the abolition of slavery in the Spanish colonies. Señor Olozaga and Admiral Topete said that both the Government and the nation wished for the abolition of slavery, but that it must not be effected in a manner prejudicial to established interests. An amendment to the constitution was proposed by the Republicans, to the effect that all powers emanate from the nation, and all persons to whom they are intrusted must be elected by and held responsible to the people, which was agreed to. An amendment tending to the establishment of a federal republic was rejected by 182 against 64. A proposition was consequently made to create a triennial Directory, to be appointed by the Cortes. Fearing that civil war was imminent, the Cortes were ready to accept even the proposition for a regency. Amendments requiring the King to be a native of Spain, and that he be elected by a *plébiscitum*, were rejected. The Cortes then passed the monarchy clause of the Constitution, and, on May 21st, hereditary monarchy was adopted by 214 votes against 71. On this occasion, Castellar made a great effort in favor of establishing a republic, eloquently referring to the example of the United States, and praising their form of government with enthusiasm. His declarations were responded to by great agitation in Barcelona and Saragossa in favor of a republic. On May 10th the Government approved the bill establishing religious liberty, by 156 votes against 31, in consequence of which vote the Ultramontane members, except one, declared their resignation. On June 1st the Constituent Cortes adopted the new Constitution by a vote of 214 against 55. After the vote was declared, Señor Figueras, amid much enthusiasm, announced that the Republicans, though opposed to those clauses of the Constitution which provided for the establishment of a monarchy, would support them. The motion made by the Republicans, that the standing army in Spain be reduced from 85,000 to 25,000, was lost by a vote of 173 against 53.

The Constitution was promulgated with great pomp on June 6th. The members of the Executive Council of the nation, together with the deputies to the Cortes, went out of the Chambers to a platform which had been erected in front of the halls of Congress. After the deputies had taken their allotted places and silence was obtained the secretary commenced to read the Constitution, which was received with loud cheers by the great mass of people assembled in front of the stand. On their return to the Chambers the deputies took the oath to protect the Constitution and the laws.

When the deputies were retiring, a tumult broke out, consequent on the utterance of hisses by a number of persons in the crowd. The disturbance increased in spite of the efforts of the troops to put down the demonstration. The trouble continued for some time, until the military governor of the city appeared, and with great presence of mind rushed in among the foremost of the rioters, shouting, "*Viva la Soberania Nacional!*" This changed the sentiments of the mob, and the crowd took up the cry and joined in loud cheers. Two men, however, were killed in the disturbance, and a good many persons were seriously injured. The deputies subsequently returned to the platform, when the troops outside the building, to the number of thirty thousand men, filed past in marching order. Great enthusiasm was manifested by the spectators who congregated in the streets. None of the Republican members, it was noticed, participated in the ceremonies. A salute of fifty guns was fired in honor of the occasion; fireworks were discharged in the evening in prominent places in the city, and a great banquet was given, which was attended by the notables of Madrid. Fully one hundred thousand people from the country poured into the city and participated in the demonstration during the day.

The Republicans did, however, not fail to give vent to their disappointment and opposition to the new Constitution. Thus, on June 10th, a great demonstration was held in Cordova, at which resolutions were adopted as protests against a return to the monarchical system of government. Deputies from all the southern provinces were present. Speeches of a revolutionary character were made. The stands from which the speakers addressed the crowds were profusely decorated with the American and Spanish flags, which were entwined. Loud cheers were given for the United States and President Grant. It is estimated that there were over fifty thousand persons present.

The army, judges, and magistrates throughout the country, took the oath to observe the Constitution. The debates upon the regency question, in view of the impossibility of electing a king, terminated in the conferring of this dignity on Marshal Serrano, on June 15th, by 193 votes against 45. The ceremony of his swearing-in took place June 18th. The motion, brought in by the Republicans in the Cortes, of expressing displeasure at the arrival of the Duke de Montpensier in Spain, was rejected by 113 against 67.

General Pezuela (Count Cheste) was one of the leading agitators in behalf of a restoration of the Bourbons, who was arrested to be banished to the Canary Islands.

The opposition of the Republicans did not relax. There was a stormy scene in the Cortes on June 17th between the ministers and the Republicans. General Prim, replying to a question from General Pierrad, said no prosecutions could be laid against generals and officers refusing to support the Constitution, but he, as Minister of War, would remove them from employ, and the Government would reserve the right to strike them off the rolls. The Minister Sagasta, in reply to a question of Figueras respecting the Governor of Tarragona prohibiting a republican meeting, said that republican meetings in which were used banners with mottoes against monarchy would be prohibited, as also "*Vivas!*" in favor of the republic, as being subversive of and contrary to the Constitution. Figueras replied that the Republicans would sustain the rights gained by the revolution, cost what it might, Prim demanded the meaning of these words. Figueras replied that he meant within legal grounds, for to appeal to force while they remained was a crime, but when they became useless, and individual rights were attacked, mutilated, or prohibited, it was not only a right but a duty. In the sitting of the Cortes on July 15th, the proposal to prorogue the session until October was unanimously agreed to. The Cortes thereupon nominated a permanent commission of eight members, in which all the different political factions were represented.

A plot for the assassination of Prim and Serrano was discovered. Arrests were made at Madrid, Valladolid, Barcelona, and Cordova; and Don Carlos left Paris for the Spanish frontier. On July 24th martial law was set in force in reference to conspirators against the public tranquillity. On the same day an engagement occurred near Ciudad Real, between a band of five or six hundred Carlists under Sarabuge and troops under Commandant Formaseti. The Carlists were defeated and dispersed, many having been killed and wounded. Don Carlos then ordered a cessation, for the present, of a movement in his behalf. The people seemed to become gradually more and more satisfied with the new order and the Government. However, the real state of things was unsatisfactory, not merely to the party of reaction, but to many Spaniards of good position, who were by no means ill-disposed toward the Government; and the Captain-General of Madrid, General Izquierdo, addressed a long communication to Serrano and Prim, in which he made the following striking declaration: "I took part in the revolution in September in the hope of seeing morality, law, and justice, succeed to the former abuses. The revolution has now been accomplished ten months, but my hopes have been deceived, and greater abuses, extensive immorality, and deplorable anarchy, prevail—disorders to which it is absolutely necessary to put an end. The Constitution having proclaimed the monarchy, it is indispensably requisite that a sovereign should be chosen without loss of time. If the Government does not shortly consider this question, I shall abandon all illusion as to the consolidation of

the revolution, and shall definitively retire into private life."

This letter was read in the Council of Ministers, and created a profound impression as an unmistakable indication of the undercurrent of feeling and opinion in Spain. To add to this dissatisfaction of the people, difficulties were increasing in Cuba; the accounts received from thence were uniform as to the bad prospects of the Spaniards. The execution of General Prim's order, that all rebels captured with arms in their hands should be shot without any kind of trial, created a very bad impression. The revolt in favor of Don Carlos, which was considered abandoned, was kindled afresh. A band of four hundred men invaded Catalonia, other armed bodies showed themselves in Valencia and the mountains of Toledo. On the other hand, the Republicans perfected an organization and published a manifesto favoring a federative republic for the entire Peninsula. The affairs became more perplexing than ever. The "provisional" condition of things continued which had begun since the flight of the ex-Queen. No step was taken toward any definite settlement. Besides this, the Cuban difficulty was very troublesome. The idea of selling the island to the United States, if ever seriously entertained, was given up. The prospect of the insurgents being recognized by the United States was becoming brighter, and Spanish pride threatened to drive the Government into war at any risk. General Prim had an interview with the Emperor of the French on September 16th, but it did not seem to result in any thing beyond advice.

The chances of the Duke de Montpensier, the king of Portugal, and his father the ex-Regent of Portugal, having become apparently hopeless, the choice of the Duke of Genoa for the vacant throne was favorably entertained in Spain. But the difficulty of obtaining a suitable candidate for the throne imparted more and more strength to the idea of prolonging the Provisional Government for three years. Influential members of all parties were in favor of it. Even the Republicans were not opposed to it, as they would thereby gain time for carrying out their plans.

While in Europe and the United States the opinion became prevalent that Spain could not suppress the insurrection in Cuba by force, she grew more and more determined to retain the colony at any price. Prim telegraphed from Paris to the Ministry of War that no sacrifice should be spared, to maintain the honor of Spain, and to quell the insurrection in Cuba. But the insurgents were offered representation in the Cortes, religious freedom, and the right of establishing independent institutions of credit.

The volunteers of Tarragona having manifested republican tendencies, and assumed an attitude hostile to the Government, the authorities ordered them to be disarmed. Several commandants of the volunteers at Barcelona protested against this order, and refused to disarm their battalions. They erected barricades, and took possession of the public buildings in the *arrondissement* of Carmen. After being legally summoned to disperse, they were attacked by the troops, who destroyed the barricades, and completely defeated the insurgents. Order was restored, and numerous prisoners were taken and placed on board the ships in the harbor. There were many killed and wounded.

On September 28, the Council of Ministers, under the presidency of the Regent, agreed to propose to the Cortes the Duke of Genoa as a candidate for the vacant throne. His family, in reply to the Spanish Government, declared that the prince would only accept the crown of Spain if the Cortes elected him by a majority of two-thirds. King Luiz of Portugal addressed the following characteristic letter to the Duke de Soulé relative to the Spanish throne:

PALACE OF MAFRA, *September* 27, 1869.

MY DEAR DUKE: Observing that certain journals persist in affirming that in consequence of combinations made in Paris I am about to abdicate the crown of Portugal in favor of my son under the regency of my august father, and to accept that of Spain; seeing, besides, that this ill-founded report is assuming a certain consistency, and that resolutions of such gravity and so foreign to my ideas are attributed to me, I request you, my dear Duke, to contradict that statement as promptly as possible. If Providence has reserved days of painful trials for Portugal, I confidently hope that with the love of the country, and with the sincere alliance between liberty and the throne, I shall be able to resist these terrible eventualities. Honored in being at the head of your nation, I shall know how to accomplish the duties which a regard for our institutions and devotedness to my country impose upon me. Born a Portuguese, I desire to die the same. Your affectionate LUIZ.

Formidable republican bands concentrated in Catalonia, and compelled the Government to send troops against them. The critical state of affairs induced General Prim, as president of the Council of Ministers, to declare in the Cortes on October 2d as follows:

It is with pain that I have to draw the attention of the Cortes to the state of perturbation which prevails in the country. The Government has no personal feelings against those who have taken up arms to oppose the institutions the nation has adopted; but it will do what the country and the Cortes have the right to expect from it—namely, to reëstablish order. The Government finds itself under the necessity of having recourse, with the sanction of the Cortes, to extraordinary measures, for the ordinary means at its disposal are, at this moment, insufficient. The Government promises that the extraordinary measures shall be employed no longer than the present state of war shall exist. The people who have taken arms under the republican flag, have been unable to sustain any combat of importance, but at various points they have destroyed the railways and telegraphs. The prime minister mentioned the lines intercepted and added that the damage committed would entail great sacrifices on the country. He then proceeded as follows: I can give the Cortes and the country the assurance that the rebels shall not triumph, for they cannot, and, if the Chamber accords what the Government asks, order will be speedily reëstablished. The Government declares that it will not enter upon any

reactionary course, and it promises to render an account to the Cortes, of what it has done, immediately after the cessation of the circumstances which oblige it to solicit extraordinary power.

On October 2d, the republican volunteers of the town of Reuss declared their adhesion to the movement in Catalonia, cut the telegraph-wires, and stopped the trains. Great alarm prevailed on October 1st, at Bejar, where the populace endeavored to set a prisoner named Pec and his accomplices at liberty, but the civil governor, aided by the respectable classes, succeeded in restoring order. The Republican deputy Noguera had organized a band in the province of Huesca, cut up the railway lines, and freed the prisoners in jail. A band, commanded by the deputy Joaritzto, had been defeated in the vicinity of Martarelli by an armed column of troops. Agitation continued to prevail at Xeres and other towns of Andalusia. Serious events were apprehended, but affairs at Madrid were tranquil.

The Cortes opened on October 2d, and the Government presented a bill suspending individual rights until the insurrection, which was increasing, should be quelled. On October 4th the ministry was charged with concealing the truth with regard to the situation of affairs in the provinces. At Reuss—an important manufacturing town in Catalonia—the insurgents were said to number 10,000. The town, however, was soon relieved of their presence, as their leaders were anxious to avoid an engagement with the troops. Santander had established an understanding with Torrelavega, Laredo, and Castro, to cause a rising in those towns on a given day. A rising was feared throughout Castile, and it was said that the city of Valladolid had pronounced. On October 5th the ministerial papers asserted that Señor Paul, the deputy, had threatened with death all those persons who did not join the insurrection. Acts of vandalism and pillage and assassination were perpetrated by the insurgents. The situation was considered bad, but not desperate, if the army remained faithful to the Government. The plan of the republicans was to raise all the provinces, and afterward to attempt a *coup de main* upon Madrid from various points at once. On October 6th the Republican minority retired from the Chamber before the vote upon the bill for suspension of individual liberties. General Prim urged them to remain, in a speech partly of entreaty and partly angry, intimating that he should regard them as enemies, and that he would meet iron with iron, force with force. Señor Castellar said they might reconsider their determination in deference to judicious counsels, but they would never yield to threats.

Meanwhile the republican risings spread all over Spain; their headquarters were in Manresa, 30 miles north of Barcelona; several bands were roving through Andalusia. The volunteers in Madrid offered their assistance to the Government, and several battalions left the capital to perform active service in the field. The connection between Madrid and Barcelona was interrupted. The insurgents evacuated Reuss, however, at the advance of the troops, and were subsequently defeated by General Baldrick with a loss of 80 dead, 300 wounded, and many prisoners. Fights took place between the national troops and the republican insurgents in Catalonia, Aragonia, Old Castile, and Andalusia, the troops coming off victorious.

In October, the Government took still more decided measures against the republicans. The police-inspectors of the different quarters of Madrid received instructions to warn the inhabitants to arm their servants in order to defend their houses. The civil governor ordered the republican clubs to be closed in Madrid. Several batteries of artillery and regiments of infantry started from Madrid in pursuit of the insurgents in the neighborhood of Alcala de Henares, the garrison being reënforced by some chasseurs of the Military School of Toledo. A grand review was held by General Prim of the troops in the city, mustering 8,000 to 10,000 in number, evidently with the intention of showing his real military strength and to disprove the current rumor that the garrison had been reduced by detachments to 8,000. The insurrection was declining in Catalonia, Granada, and Andalusia. About 6,000 rebels submitted themselves in the provinces of Tarragona, Gerona, Lerida, and Barcelona. The movement, however, continued in Valencia, but strong bodies of troops were expected to make the attack. Madrid was still quiet. The Committee of the Cortes recommended the passing of a formal vote of censure on the Republican minority, and the authorization of legal proceedings against those deputies who have joined the insurrection. On October 14th, official intelligence was received, stating that the insurgents of Valencia and the greater part of those from the country had retired to a part of the city which they were fortifying. Eighteen battalions of Government troops had occupied the greater portion of the town. The republican movement was now reduced to Valencia, and to a few small bands of insurgents in Catalonia and Aragon, but they were daily surrendering. On October 15th, the insurgents at Valencia proposed to capitulate, but the authorities demanded unconditional surrender. In Bejar, forty-five miles south of Salamanca, a revolt broke out and many inhabitants fled. A detachment of troops were ordered there to restore order. The republican leaders, Paul and Salvochea, were abandoned by their adherents and fled to Gibraltar. Their adherents were defeated on their retreat through Andalusia, 70 being killed, and the rest dispersed. A number of republican provincial papers were suppressed. The deputies forming the Republican minority did not attend the sessions of the Cortes. The committee appointed by the Cortes to investigate the attitude of the Republican dep-

uties in the insurrection, recommended in their report a vote of censure against them for leaving their seats, and a judicial proceeding against those deputies who had taken an active part in the rebellion. One hundred and twenty-four persons were arrested in Barcelona. The militia of Villafranca laid down their arms. In the middle of October there were still about 20,000 insurgents in the field. The national troops defeated the insurgents in Catalonia and Granada. Railroads and telegraphs around Madrid were destroyed. The session of the Cortes was suspended on October 16th, after the Government had been authorized to prosecute seventeen Republican deputies who had taken part in the insurrection. The insurgents in Valencia surrendered unconditionally, after a fight of several hours. Their leaders disappeared, and the troops of the Government occupied the city. Many houses were consumed by fire, and a large number of rebels captured with arms in their hands. In many streets where barricades had been erected, or the advancing troops were resisted, the walls bore the inscription, "Here stood Valencia!" Order was now pretty well established throughout the provinces. The Cortes resumed their sittings. General Prim worked hard in consolidating the disjointed state of affairs, and paid a tribute to the bearing of the army and navy in defence of the Government and the people. The revolt in Bejar was suppressed. The troops had a fight with the remnants of Salvochea's force and routed them. Among the killed was Guillen, a deputy.

The prospects of the election of the Duke of Genoa to the throne of Spain continued to improve. By the end of October, 110 members had openly pronounced for him; but the majority of the people seemed opposed to him.

On October 30th General Prim declared in the Cortes that the Government hoped to withdraw at an early day the decree establishing martial law; but that at present such a step could not be taken, because conspirators still remained at large, and the cases of several rebel leaders were pending before the councils of war. Señor Ardanaz, in his budget submitted to the Cortes, announced that the financial deficit for the current year amounted to 520,000,000 reals. He said he looked forward with hope to the ensuing fiscal year, extending from January, 1870, to January, 1871, his estimates for which showed a surplus in favor of the Treasury.

On November 1st, the Cabinet was partly reconstituted by the appointment of Martos as Minister of Foreign Affairs, and of Figuerola as Finance Minister. According to General Prim's explanation, the question of a candidate for the throne was the cause of the ministerial crisis. He added that the attitude of the Unionists hindered a solution of the question, and declared that the Government would remain faithful to the principles of the resolution. The opposition to the Duke of Genoa became more determined. Admiral Topete resigned, owing to disagreement with General Prim, and was elected Vice-President of the Cortes. The situation became again critical. The Unionists and Progressists disagreed more than ever, not only regarding the choice of a king, but also concerning the constitutional oath and the election of deputies for the vacated seats in the Cortes. In the middle of November, 161 deputies were in favor of the Duke of Genoa. The constitutional guarantees suspended on account of public security were reëstablished in the beginning of December. In the middle of December, the Carlists recommenced their movements on the French and Portuguese frontiers. The Cortes having adopted a resolution to investigate the theft of the crown jewels by 120 votes against 5, ex-Queen Isabella replied that she had not taken them away. On December 17th the Cortes adopted a resolution directing the Constitutional Committee to prepare a bill concerning the election of a king. The Government ordered that the parliamentary elections to fill the seats remaining vacant in the Cortes should be held on January 20, 1870. The press of the opposition demanded that elections should be first held for the different municipal councils, so as to thus terminate the existing unconstitutional situation, the present municipal officers having been illegally appointed by the Government. In the Cortes the Republican minority made an energetic protest against these elections and demanded the restoration of the former ayuntamientos. They declared that they would carry the matter before the legal tribunals, but counsel the people in the mean time to keep the peace and make vigorous efforts at the new elections to return their true friends. The popular opposition to the Duke of Genoa increased. Even the Minister of Justice, Zorilla, declared in a public speech that, if the Government could not find a king, they would throw themselves into the arms of a republic, although he spoke everywhere in favor of monarchy. On December 29th, Castellar, the leader of the Republican party, attacked the ministry, because they were ready to throw the crown of Spain upon a mere boy-king. On December 31st it was announced that Victor Emmanuel had absolutely refused his consent to the candidature of the Duke of Genoa. The Spanish Cabinet offered its resignation in consequence of this refusal.

STANLEY OF ALDERLEY, EDWARD JOHN, second Lord, an English liberal statesman and cabinet officer, born at Alderley Park, November 13, 1802; died in London, June 16, 1869. He was educated at Eton and Christ Church, Oxford, graduating B. A. in 1823. He entered Parliament for Hendon, in 1831, and was a representative of the northern division of Cheshire from 1832 to 1841, and again from 1847 to 1848, when he was raised to the peerage as Lord Eddesbury. He succeeded to his father's title, as Lord Stanley of Alderley, in 1850. In 1833–'34 he was Under-Secretary

of State for the Colonies; in 1834–'35, under Lord Melbourne, Under-Secretary for the Home Department. Late in 1835 he was made Patronage Secretary of the Treasury, and continued in this office till 1841, when he was promoted to be Paymaster-General of the Forces, but went out with the ministry three months later. In 1846, in Lord John Russell's Cabinet, Mr. Stanley was made Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs. In 1852 and again from 1853 to 1855 he was Paymaster of the Forces and vice-president of the Board of Trade, and in 1855 he became president of the Board of Trade, which position he held for three years. In September, 1860, he was Paymaster-General in Lord Palmerston's administration, with a seat in the Cabinet, and continued in that office under Earl Russell's second administration, retiring from official life in 1866. He was offered a seat in the Cabinet by Mr. Gladstone in December, 1868, but declined it on account of failing health. He was a man of great shrewdness and good sense, and thoroughly familiar with the political movements and measures of the last hundred years. In private life he was a man of genial temper, ready wit, and great kindliness of heart.

STANTON, Edwin M., LL. D., an American statesman, and Cabinet officer, born in Steubenville, Ohio, December 19, 1814; died in Washington, D. C., December 24, 1869. At the age of thirteen he became a clerk in a book-store in Steubenville, and in 1831 a student in Kenyon College, Gambier, Ohio, where he graduated in 1833. After a few months more as a bookseller's clerk at Columbus, he commenced the study of law early in 1834 in the office of his guardian, Daniel S. Collins, in Steubenville, and subsequently in the office of Benjamin Tappan, an eminent jurist of Ohio. In 1836 he was admitted to the bar and commenced practice at Cadiz, in Harrison County, where he was very soon elected county prosecuting attorney. He speedily attained to a large practice, especially in the Circuit Courts. In 1839 he removed to Steubenville, and was a partner for some years of his old preceptor, Judge Tappan. In 1842 he was elected reporter of the decisions of the Supreme Court of Ohio, and prepared volumes xi., xii., and xiii., of the Ohio State Reports. He had by this time attained a very high position at the Ohio bar, and was regarded as the ablest lawyer of the State in all questions of land-titles and commercial law. In 1847, he formed a partnership with Charles Shaler and Theodore Umbstratter, of Pittsburg, Pa., and, though retaining an office in Steubenville, removed with his family to Pittsburg. The firm devoted their attention almost entirely to civil causes of the highest character in the higher courts of Pennsylvania, and in the United States District, Circuit, and Supreme Courts. In all the important cases Mr. Stanton's services were secured on the one side or the other. He was possessed of great powers of application, and a remarkable intuition. His business before the Supreme Court of the United States became so large that in 1857 he was compelled to remove to Washington to attend to it. In 1858, he was sent by the Government to California, to attend to some land cases of importance. He was successful in these, and returned in 1859, and was employed as one of the counsel in the Many and Mc Cormick reaper case, where for the first time he met Mr. Lincoln, who was associated with him in the case. In December, 1860, while still engaged in a later stage of this same case, he was nominated by Mr. Buchanan Attorney-General, as the successor of Judge Black. He accepted the appointment, though aware of its difficulties. General Cass, Howell Cobb, and John B. Floyd, had resigned, the two latter with the purpose of going into the secession movement; Judge Black, now Secretary of State, and Mr. Thomas, of Maryland, Judge Holt, General Dix, and Mr. Stanton, were the members of the Cabinet, and all Democrats. On the 4th of March, 1861, Mr. Stanton retired from the Cabinet, and resumed the practice of his profession, but manifested a deep interest in the national cause. On the 11th of January, 1862, on the resignation of Mr. Cameron, Mr. Stanton was nominated by President Lincoln as Secretary of War. He was confirmed by the Senate on the 13th of January, and immediately entered upon his duties. The position was one of responsibility and overwhelming labor. During the greater part of the war, he had two or three assistant secretaries, men chosen for their executive ability and energy, as well as for other good qualities, but one after another they broke down in attempting to keep up with their chief. He never seemed to know the need of rest, and for months, we might almost say years, he slept at the office, working on till two or three o'clock in the morning, and rising before the sun to renew his toil. The burden of the war was upon him, and manfully and skilfully did he sustain it. That some of his measures were not judicious, that amid the pressure of care and anxiety he was at times brusque, harsh, and overbearing, must be admitted. Even his errors of judgment were prompted by his intense zeal for the national cause, and his anxiety to have the war brought to a successful close. That his course should bring down upon him the most intense hatred, and the most violent maledictions, was to be expected, but even his bitterest enemies never accused him of perverting the public funds to his own purposes, or to fill the pockets of his friends. He was believed to be quite incorruptible. After Mr. Lincoln's death he was retained in the Cabinet by Mr. Johnson; but ere long his stanch fidelity to the principles for which the war had been prosecuted made him obnoxious to the President, who,

fearing while he disliked him, sought to drive him to resign. Mr. Stanton, however, believing that his remaining in office would better strengthen the aims of his party, refused to resign, although heartily sick of his position. The President, at length, in August, 1867, suspended him from office, and made General Grant Secretary *ad interim;* but when Congress came together in December, 1867, they decided that Mr. Stanton was still Secretary, and General Grant promptly vacated the office in his favor. The President, thereupon, removed Mr. Stanton on the 21st of February and appointed General Lorenzo Thomas Secretary *ad interim;* and a day or two later sent a nomination for Secretary of War to the Senate. These measures being regarded as violations of the Tenure-of-office Act, led to the President's impeachment and trial, Mr. Stanton remaining in office till the conclusion of the trial, when, in May, 1868, the articles of impeachment failing to receive the constitutional majority, he regarded himself as rebuked from any further continuance in a position which for more than a year had been exceedingly tenacious. After leaving the Cabinet, Mr. Stanton sought to regain his health, which had been seriously impaired by his labors; but it was too thoroughly broken to be fully restored, and, though he appeared in a few cases before the Supreme Court, and manifested much of his old ability, each effort was followed by great prostration. In December, 1869, President Grant nominated him for an Associate Justice of the Supreme Court in place of Grier, resigned, and he was promptly confirmed by the Senate. His commission had not been made out, however, when he died after two or three days' illness. His property being insufficient for the support of his family, Congress ordered a year's salary as Justice of the Supreme Court to be paid to them, and his friends throughout the country made up a memorial fund for them.

STEWART, CHARLES, Rear-Admiral, U. S. N., and senior flag-officer in the service, born in Philadelphia, July 28, 1778; died at Bordentown, N. J., November 6, 1869. He was of Irish parentage, and his father, a captain in the merchant service, died when he was but two years old. His mother, a woman of remarkable talent and energy, superintended his education, and guided as carefully as she could the fun-loving and somewhat erratic tendencies of her son. When he was about ten years old, his mother was married a second time to Captain Britton, a former shipping-master, and then a prosperous shipping-merchant of Philadelphia, who had at one time commanded Washington's body-guard. At the age of twelve, he accompanied his step-father in a formal visit to General Washington, whom he had often seen, and for whom he felt a great reverence. The general spoke to him very kindly and showed him considerable attention, an honor which he remembered to his last day. Some years later he had the opportunity of another interview, as the representative of Captain Barry, of the Navy, with Washington.

At the age of thirteen, Charles Stewart made his first voyage as a cabin-boy in the merchant service, and passing through many and great perils (for, in those days of revolution, buccaneering, and piracy, a sailor's life was full of dangers), he rose rapidly in his profession, till, at the age of twenty, he was the commander of an Indiaman, a position only attained at his age by nautical skill and consummate courage. But his ambition led him to seek a higher and more honorable position, and the same year (1798) he abandoned the merchant service and took a lieutenant's commission in the navy of the United States. He was at first with Commodore Barry on the West India station, but in July, 1800, he was assigned to the command of the United States schooner Experiment, mounting twelve guns, in which he cruised in the West Indies, capturing French privateers, demanding and obtaining the release of American sailors who had been impressed on English vessels, and protecting the hapless inhabitants of the islands who were the prey of some of the insurgents and revolutionists. He was next ordered to the Mediterranean and employed in the blockade and siege of Tripoli. At the conclusion of hostilities there, he returned to New York to superintend, in 1806–'7, the construction of President Jefferson's gunboats. Subsequently, for several years, with the sanction of the Government, he and several other of the naval officers were engaged in the prosecution of mercantile enterprises in the Mediterranean, the Arctic, the Adriatic, and the East Indies. In 1812, as soon as war had been declared with Great Britain, Stewart, who already held a captain's commission in the navy, and Captain (afterward Commodore) Bainbridge, hastened to Washington to offer their services to the Government. They were met there with the announcement that the Cabinet, in view of the great superiority of the British Navy, had decided to place all the ships-of-war belonging to our navy in the harbor of New York, for the defence of that city. Such a decision seems now so absurd, that we can hardly realize that it could ever have been made; but the evidence is too conclusive to admit of a doubt. Against this preposterous determination, Captains Bainbridge and Stewart protested so earnestly and indignantly, that the President (Madison) reversed the Cabinet's decision, and directed the Secretary of the Navy to send the vessels-of-war to sea, to seek their enemy, and he would take the responsibility upon himself. Rejoiced at thus gaining permission to meet the enemy, instead of remaining in the harbor awaiting his onset, the two heroes returned to Philadelphia, and Stewart was assigned to the command of the Constellation, and assisted in defending Norfolk and Craney Island. In 1813 he assumed command of the Constitution, of 49 guns, and during a year's cruise succeeded

in capturing several British vessels. On the 19th of February, 1815, he fell in with the British ships-of-war Cyane, of 34 guns, and the Levant, of 21 guns, and captured them after a sharp combat of 40 minutes, having three men killed and 13 wounded, while the British vessels lost 35 killed and 42 wounded. The Levant was subsequently recaptured by the British squadron, but the Constitution escaped with her other prize. On his return he was received with the highest honors. The Legislature of Pennsylvania presented him with a sword, and a gold medal, commemorative of the capture of the Levant and Cyane, was ordered to be struck by Congress. The skill with which Captain Stewart had managed his ship, so as to rake both his antagonists without giving them the opportunity of damaging him, was indeed deserving of the highest praise. In 1817, Stewart, by this time a commodore, was ordered to the command of the Mediterranean squadron, which was almost in a state of mutiny, the officers in command of the vessels composing the squadron manifesting a spirit of insubordination which was exceedingly alarming. On his taking command, there was, for a time, a somewhat better spirit manifested, though there were still occasional evidences of a mutinous disposition. In June, 1819, however, these officers were guilty of an act of gross insubordination which could not be overlooked. A court-martial had been ordered to meet on the Guerrière to try a marine for some offence; but the officers preferred to meet on shore at the comfortable Sun Tavern in Naples, and there tried the culprit and found him guilty. The papers were sent to the commodore, and, as their proceedings had been entirely illegal, he disapproved them, released the prisoner, and called the court together to inform them of his decision. When they were assembled, he addressed a communication to them, stating what he had done, attributing their conduct to inadvertence, saying that therefore he should take no further notice of it, and recommending greater carefulness in the future. The officers, ready for a mutiny, took offence at this very mild rebuke, and a series of resolutions were offered which were grossly insulting to the commodore; and, as their vessels were getting under weigh for another port of the Mediterranean, they adjourned to meet at the call of their president. At their next meeting, the resolutions were passed, and the commodore immediately suspended from command, and sent home under arrest, Captain Thomas McDonough, of the frigate Guerrière, Master-Commandant Henry E. Ballard, of the ship Erie, Master-Commandant I. I. Nicholson, of the brig Spark, Lieutenant-Commandant John Gallagher, of the ship Franklin, and Lieutenant Benjamin Page, Jr., executive officer of the same ship. Lieutenant (afterward Commodore) Stockton commanded the vessel in which these officers made their unwilling voyage homeward. This sudden blow had an excellent effect. There was no more insubordination, and the Mediterranean squadron, from being the worst, became the best disciplined and most orderly squadron of the navy. The President and Cabinet approved Commodore Stewart's course, but, as the officers were deeply humbled and penitent, they were let off from any further punishment with a reprimand, the commodore himself interceding in behalf of one or more of them. In 1821 Commodore Stewart was transferred to the command of the Pacific squadron, another position of great difficulty, owing to the revolutions in progress in the South American states, the Spanish blockades, and the frightful piracies of the buccaneers. His administration of affairs, and defence of our rights on this coast, were able and satisfactory to all right-minded men. There were, nevertheless, some of those whose selfish and nefarious projects had been thwarted by his straightforward management, who filled the ears of the Government with their clamors against him, and on his return home, in 1824, the Naval Department thought it best that these accusations should be submitted to a court-martial. The result was eminently satisfactory to the commodore. The court, not content with acquitting him from all charges of mismanagement or dereliction of duty, felt itself compelled to make this declaration to the world: "So far from having violated the high duties of neutrality and respect for the laws of nations—so far from having sacrificed the honor of the American flag, or tarnished his own fair fame, by acting upon any motive of a mercenary or sordid kind—so far from having neglected his duty, or betrayed the trust reposed in him, by refusing proper protection to American citizens and property, or rendering such protection subservient to individual interests, no one circumstance has been developed, throughout the whole course of this minute investigation into the various occurrences of a three-years' cruise, calculated to impair the confidence which the members of this court, the navy, and the nation, have long reposed in the honor, the talents, and the patriotism, of this distinguished officer, or to weaken in any manner the opinion which all who know him entertain of his humanity and disinterestedness. These virtues only glow with brighter lustre from this ordeal of trial, like the stars he triumphantly displayed, when valor and skill achieved a new victory to adorn the annals of our naval-glory." From 1825 to 1837, Commodore Stewart was almost constantly employed on naval boards and commissions, naval courts-martial, etc. In 1837 he succeeded Commodore Barron as commander of the Navy-yard at Philadelphia, and remained there until 1861, when he was relieved at his own request. In 1855 the retiring board, created by act of Congress in that year, placed him on the retired list. He was at this time seventy-seven years of age, but he appealed in eloquent terms to Congress against this indignity,

feeling that he possessed as yet the vigor and the intellectual ability to do his beloved country service. On the death of Commodore Barron he became the senior officer of the service, and when a special act of Congress was passed in 1861, conferring upon him the title of senior flag-officer on the active list, he refused the commission, claiming that he already held that rank. In July, 1862, he was commissioned as the first rear-admiral under the new law. In 1841 a resolute effort was made by some of his friends to place him in nomination for the presidency, but, failing to receive his sanction or approbation, nothing came of it. He sympathized most heartily with the Union cause in the late war, and, though eighty-three years of age at its commencement, pleaded most earnestly to be allowed an active command. His counsels, clear, and wise as ever, were of great service to the Administration. He had purchased a home in Bordentown, in 1816, but his long absences and official duties had prevented his occupying it very constantly until after 1855. His last illness was protracted and attended with intense suffering, but it was endured with the most heroic patience.

STOW, Baron, D. D., an American Baptist clergyman and author, born in Croydon, Sullivan County, N. H., June 16, 1801; died in Boston, Mass., December 27, 1869. In his childhood his parents removed to Newport, N. H., where his youth was passed. He was fitted for college at Newport, and entered Columbian College, Washington, D. C., in 1821, graduating with the highest honors of his class in 1825. For the next two years he was editor of the *Columbian Star*, a religious paper published in Washington, and meanwhile was prosecuting his theological studies under the direction of Rev. Dr. Staughton. On the 24th of October, 1827, he was ordained pastor of the Baptist Church in Portsmouth, N. H. Here he remained five years, and, in 1832, accepted the call of the Baldwin-Place Baptist Church of Boston, to become their pastor. He remained with them until 1848, and then became pastor of the Rowe Street (now the Clarendon Street) Church. In the autumn of 1867 he resigned his pastorate, and since that time had been without a charge, but had been one of the editorial corps of the *Watchman and Reflector*. He was an able preacher, an excellent executive officer, and a faithful and affectionate pastor. At all times, and under all circumstances, he sought the things that make for peace, shrinking sensitively from strife and debate, and ever ready for any service in the cause of Christian love and duty. He had, from his first entering upon the ministry, manifested a deep interest in the cause of missions. He was Recording Secretary of the Board of the General Missionary Convention, afterward merged in the American Baptist Missionary Union, from 1838 to 1846. He served thirty years or more on its Executive Committee, and was several times elected Corresponding Secretary, but in each case declined, from a preference for pastoral work. Dr. Stow also served as President of the Trustees of the Newton Theological Institution, and was a member of the Board of Fellows of Brown University and of the Board of Overseers of Harvard. His published works, apart from occasional sermons, numerous articles in reviews and periodicals, etc., were: "Daily Manna for Christian Pilgrims," "Christian Brotherhood," "The Psalmist," "First Things, or Development of Church Life," "The Whole Family in Heaven and Earth," "History of the Danish Mission on the Coast of Coromandel," "Memoir of Harriet Dow," "Question Book of Christian Doctrine," and "History of the English Baptist Mission to India." In 1840–'41 Dr. Stow made the tour of Europe, and in 1859 he spent some time in Great Britain.

STRANGFORD, Percy Ellen Algernon Frederick William Smythe, eighth Viscount, Baron Penshurst, F. R. S., F. R. G. S., F. R. A. S., etc., a British Orientalist, philologist, geographer, and diplomatist, born in St. Petersburg, November 26, 1825; died in London, January 9, 1869. His father was, at the time of his birth, and had been for some years, British minister at St. Petersburg, and though Percy was removed to England when but a few months old, the Russian tongue was that which he first spoke. He was educated at Harrow and Oxford, and at Harrow, being unable, from extreme near-sightedness, to join in the athletic sports of the school, he occupied his out-of-school hours in acquiring a knowledge of Persian, while he was foremost in his classical studies. At Oxford he mastered Arabic, and when appointed, in 1845, one of the student attachés of the Constantinople embassy, he speedily made himself thoroughly familiar with the structure, idioms, and history of all the Asiatic languages except the Chinese, beginning with the Sanscrit, and acquiring such a thorough command of all of them that he spoke them with the fluency of a native, distinguished the different dialects and the place of their origin whenever he encountered them, and habitually thought in Persian. He was not, however, simply a linguist, though few living men are masters of so many languages as he was; but he was a philologist and ethnologist in his thorough study of the structure, progress, and history, of all these languages, and of the knowledge to be derived from them of the migrations of the tribes to whom they were native. He was passionately fond of physical geography, and had made his linguistic studies contribute to his acquirements in that fascinating study, and possessed a remarkable ability for careful and extended generalization of the great mass of facts so patiently and laboriously gathered. He remained in Constantinople until 1858, a paid attaché of the embassy from 1849 to 1851, and thenceforward Oriental Secretary, till his succession to the

title and estates of his brother, and his own failing health, made a change necessary. He continued to prosecute his favorite studies, however, till his death; but, with singular modesty, he seldom published any thing, though he wrote much. His few papers in the Transactions of the Royal Society, the Royal Geographical Society, and the Royal Asiatic Society, of which last he was president, gave evidence of vast learning, and careful, almost painful, research. His death occurred from apoplexy. In the summer of 1869 his widow, the accomplished daughter of Admiral Beaufort, edited and published two 8vo volumes of Lord Strangford's "Selected Writings on Social, Political, and Geographical Subjects," which contain many very valuable papers.

SUBTERRANEAN ROME. Although most educated people have a tolerably well-defined impression of the nature and appearance of the subterranean primitive Christian cemeteries of Rome, there are yet many facts concerning them of which they must necessarily be in ignorance, because as time goes on fresh discoveries are made which furnish new information. Most people, for instance, will be surprised to hear that the extent of galleries now found, would, if drawn out in a straight line, stretch from the northernmost part of Italy to its southernmost shores. In many particulars, too, the newest information requires us to throw away opinions that were supposed to be founded on facts. Thus it is now ascertained, and demonstrated too, that the subterranean galleries and chambers are not adaptations of old sand-pits, or *arenaria*, but were originally made by the early Christians for the purpose to which they put them. It used to be looked upon as certain that the pozzolana so largely used in building operations in Rome was found here, and that the workings, when abandoned because exhausted, were thus utilized. Ordinary visitors to the dim, narrow labyrinthine passages, and the crypts opening out of them, looked into their guide-book, and read: "The origin of these subterranean cemeteries was evidently for the purpose of extracting that peculiar species of volcanic ashes called pozzolana, so extensively used by the ancient and modern inhabitants in their constructions. Nearly all the catacombs can be traced to no other cause. Originally *arenaria*, the classical designation of these sand-pits, they were arranged by the primitive Christians for their new destinations of dwellings, places of worship, and retirement;" and, having read, they believed. More earnest students consulted bulkier volumes, but found the same opinion expressed. Looked at from an artistical point of view, too, the paintings with which they are decorated were formerly described as poor, meagre, and feeble. To entertain these opinions to-day, however, is to have fallen out of the ranks in the grand march of progress, to be behind the time, and of the old school. The catacombs were excavated out of the *tufa granulare*, which material was useless for any other purpose, showing that it must have been selected by the early Christians as suitable for graves, and not adapted by them because it was already hollowed out to their hand. Again, the language of the old criticism of the worth and date of the art-work no longer applies. Specimens that were inaccessible and scarcely to be made out have in these latter days been opened out; many others have been found, and a certain degradation from simplicity and excellence, to be noted in those examples that are clearly the first steps of mediæval effort, points out that many works of much richness, freedom, and variety, must be of earlier date than those of this stiff and meaner type. And when this poorer style of art is known to belong to the end of the third century, it follows that the earlier specimens must have been painted in days that were close upon those we term Apostolic.

Who is it that makes these discoveries, asks the English *Journal of Engineering*, and comes to these conclusions? As is well known, a Commission of Sacred Archæology has been directing excavations for some years, and among the members was the late Padre Marchi, who published a work upon the monuments of the primitive Christians, and gave great impulse to the interest felt about them; and the Commendatore de Rossi, who has given nearly thirty years of his life to a minute examination and classification of the same relics of early Christian art. For the last few years all eyes in Rome have been directed to the appearance of a rumored work by this last-mentioned authority, which was expected not only to recount the proceedings of the society, or the results of them, but to give to the world a narrative of surpassing interest, which his discoveries would enable him to relate. Padre Marchi's work was published in 1841. The twenty-nine years that have elapsed since that date have proved more fruitful than the two centuries that preceded it; and De Rossi's industry has been rewarded with the discovery of six or seven historical monuments of great interest, to the position of which, owing to his intimate acquaintance with all the old records, and, specially, two ancient itineraries, he was able to point beforehand with sufficient precision to lead to a successful search.

To study these ancient catacombs, where not "cooked," is to take up the history of Christianity from the time and place where the New Testament breaks off the wondrous thread. Immediately we approach them we are transported back to those old times when the bodies of St. Peter and St. Paul were but newly buried; and when many, who had listened to their stirring words entranced, were still living. De Rossi speaks positively on this head: "Precisely in those cemeteries to which history or tradition assigns apostolic origin, I see, in the light of the most searching archæ-

ological criticism, the cradle of Christian art and Christian inscriptions; there I find memorials of persons who appear to belong to the times of the Flavii and of Trajan; and, finally, I discover precise dates of those times." There is one inscription known bearing date the third year of Vespasian, i. e., A. D. 72, but no record has been kept of the site on which it was found. In the catacomb of St. Lucina, however, scratched on the mortar of one of the *loculi*, was found by Boldetti a record of the time of the consulate of *Sura et Senecio*, which marks the year A. D. 107; and another on marble in the same place recording *Piso et Bolano*, consuls, A. D. 110; as well as a third inscription which De Rossi considers marks the burial of a Christian within forty years of the time that the body of St. Paul was deposited in the same place. This interesting record runs thus:

"DORMITIONI
T. FLA. EVTY
CHIO. QVI. VI
XIT. ANN. XVIIII
MES. XI. D. III
HVNC. LOCVM
DONABIT. M
ORBIVS HELI
VS. AMICVS
KARISSIMVS
KARE BALE"

"As a resting-place for Titus Flavius Eutychius, who lived nineteen years, eleven months, three days, his dearest friend, Marcus Orbius, gave this spot. Farewell, beloved."

The cemetery of St. Priscilla, on the Via Salaria Nova, always said to have been dug on the property of the family of Pudens, converted by the Apostles, also presents evidences that confirm the statement of this antiquity. The catacomb of St. Agnes is supposed to be no other than the cemetery of Ostrianus, described by Pauvinus, the Augustinian friar, as the oldest of all, "because it was in use when St. Peter preached the faith of the Romans;" and, again, the sepulchre at Tor Marancia is now identified as that cemetery which was formerly called by the name of St. Domitilla, or by that of her chamberlains, Sts. Nereus and Achilles, for two inscriptions found there clearly state that the ground formerly belonged to this member of the imperial family. After glancing in succession at the principal catacombs supposed to be of apostolic antiquity, the authors of a summary of De Rossi's work (Northcote & Brownlow's "Roma Sotterranea") thus draw up the facts of the position:

The local traditions of ancient Christian Rome have come down to us, partly embodied in the acts of the martyrs; partly in the stories that were told to foreigners visiting the city in the seventh and eighth centuries, and by them committed to writing in itineraries; partly in the "Books of Indulgences," and in the "Book of the Wonders of Rome," compiled both for the use of strangers and of citizens; partly also, but more sparingly, in the scattered notices of a few mediæval writers. From a diligent comparison of all these various authorities, it is gathered that some five or six of the subterranean cemeteries of Rome were believed to have had their origin in apostolic times; and in every one of these instances, so far as we have an opportunity of examining them, something peculiar has been either noted by our predecessors, or seen by ourselves, which gives countenance to the tradition. When these peculiarities are brought together, they are found to be in perfect harmony, not only with one another, but also with what we should have been led to expect from a careful consideration of the period to which they are supposed to belong. The peculiarities are such as these: Paintings in the most classical style, and scarcely inferior in execution to the best specimens of contemporary pagan art; a system of ornamentation, in fine stucco, such as has not yet been found in any Christian subterranean work later than the second century; crypts of considerable dimensions, not hewn out of the bare rock, but carefully, and even elegantly, built with pilasters and cornices of bricks or terra-cotta; no narrow galleries, with shelf-like graves thickly pierced in their walls, but spacious *ambulacra* with painted walls, and recesses provided only for the reception of sarcophagi; whole families of inscriptions, with classical names, and without any distinctly Christian forms of speech; and, lastly, actual dates of the first or second century. It is impossible that such a marvellous uniformity of phenomena, collected with most patient accuracy from different and distant cemeteries on all sides of the city, and from authors writing at so many different periods, should be the result of accident or of preconceived opinion.

Two of the itineraries, mentioned as having conveyed useful information to the archæologist, were discovered only about a hundred years ago in the library of Salzburg, and were therefore unknown to Bosio and other writers on the Christian remains after their discovery in A. D. 1578. One of these important guides was written between the years 625–638, and the other within a few years of the same date. The first starts from the centre of Rome, passing out through the Flaminian Gate, and passes to the principal roads from one to the other by by-paths, some of which can be still pointed out; the other follows a similar plan, but is second to it in interest, because the writer does not seem to have actually made the survey himself, but rather to have compressed the descriptions he gives from some larger work; but both of them are useful in containing mention of topographical details concerning the cemeteries before the great work of emptying them of their choicest contents was commenced. A third document that has been useful in pointing out the locality of particular tombs is a list of relics collected by Abbot John from the various shrines in the catacombs, in the days of St. Gregory the Great, for Theolinda, Queen of the Lombards, which list is written on papyrus, and preserved with some of the relics in the Cathedral of Monza. But the chief clew to the success of De Rossi's labors was the tact which enabled him, instead of rejecting these authorities as worthless, to accept their help. He saw that, where St. Damasus and other early popes had been at the trouble to build spacious staircases down to particular spots in the catacombs, would be found the tombs of martyrs that were once visited by pilgrims, for whose accommodation these means of access had been

made. Whereas Padre Marchi avoided such places as bore evidence of having been tampered with in later times, and was always on the lookout for chambers and galleries in their primitive condition as when first hewn out of rock, De Rossi judged that where the crypts had been changed into sanctuaries, *luminaria* opened out for light and air, galleries widened, and any other structural arrangements made for the accommodation of numbers, then he stood upon a site of the utmost value. Pope Damasus, too, must not be overlooked for the large share he has borne in handing down a true history of the contents of the catacombs in his custom of renewing old inscriptions, and placing others to mark important sites. His assistance, rendered 1,500 years ago, has been invaluable. The beginning of the fifth century, when Rome was sacked by the Goths, ended the history of the catacombs as cemeteries; and for the next 400 years they were used only as shrines and places of pilgrimage, except in rare instances, when they have been chosen as places of refuge, as when Boniface I. concealed himself for a time in the cemetery of St. Felicitas. The popes during these centuries kept the tombs of the martyrs beautified and repaired, as we may see from entries in the *Liber Pontificalis*. Even after Totila had desolated Rome these were restored, and the services renewed, John III. ordering that oblations, cruets, and candles, should be sent from the Lateran Palace for the ceremonies every Sunday. But after the siege by the Lombards, under Astolphus, when some of the graves were broken open and the bodies carried off, Paul I. resolved to remove "the bodies of the martyrs, and confessors, and virgins of Christ" into Rome, and place them in a church he built to receive them, dedicated to Sts. Stephen and Sylvester, on the site of the house in which he was born and bred, and which he had then inherited. On this occasion more than a hundred saints were removed, and their names duly chronicled in a list still extant. The succeeding popes endeavored, however, to rehabilitate the ancient cemeteries with their ancient glories, but without much popular support; for, in consequence of the crypts of the martyrs being destroyed and abandoned, Paschal I. translated 2,300 bodies in July, 817; and this new feature in the history of early Christian relics remained in great favor for some time, the succeeding popes not only translating more, but retranslating those already deposited in Rome. Thus rifled, ruined, and abandoned, the cemeteries that were not near monasteries were one by one forgotten. In those that were so fortunately situated, lamps were kept burning as late as the eleventh and twelfth centuries. A pilgrim of the eleventh century noticed the cemetery of St. Valentine, on the Via Flaminia, and another writer mentioned it again in the twelfth century. In the fourteenth century, a statistical account of Roman churches mentions only three that were attached to cemeteries; and by the fifteenth there was only one cemetery that was left open and frequented by pilgrims, which was that beneath the Church of St. Sebastian, called, in old documents, *Cœmeterium ad Catacumbas*. This title, applying only to the part of the Campagna in which the church was built, just as the circus built in the same neighborhood by Maxentius was called the *Circus ad Catacumbas*, has since been indiscriminately given to all subterranean cemeteries over the globe. Except as belonging to that of St. Sebastian, the term is not mentioned in old times, the names in use being *hypogæum*, *cœmeterium*, *martyrium*, or *confessio*.

A set of terms, new, yet very old, has to be mastered by those who would understand any thing of these ancient burial-places. The little chambers opening out of the narrow passages are known as *cubicula*. An ordinary grave—that is, a flat oblong compartment large enough to receive a body, hollowed in the sides of the passages, generally in tiers one above another — is called a *locus* or *loculus*. When a grave was made large enough to contain two, three, or four persons, it was called *bisomum*, *trisomum*, or *quadrisomum*, accordingly. There are to be seen in many of the *cubicula* graves of a more ornamental type. These consist of a semicircular arch recessed in the wall, below the straight base line of which is sunk the space for the body; they are called *arcosolia*, *solium* being the term in use among the pagans for their funeral-urns. Sometimes the recess is found square-headed instead of semicircular: when De Rossi, for the sake of distinction, calls it *sepolcro a mensa*. Burial was called *depositio*, and those who dug the graves, *fossores*, in old writings.

Prominence is given to the cemetery of St. Calixtus. This, it will be remembered, is that which De Rossi discovered on the Via Appia, after having seen only a fragment of a marble slab, bearing part of the letter R and the syllables NELIUS MARTYR, in the cellar of a vineyard, 1849. He induced Pope Pius IX. to purchase this and the adjoining vineyard, and in the course of subsequent excavations found the other portion of this slab, with the missing piece of the letter R and the letters C O upon it, which showed him that the conjecture he formed, that the tomb of Cornelius, pope and martyr in the middle of the third century, was before him, was correct. This tomb he knew from the old writings was close to the cemetery of St. Calixtus, in which there was a chapel more famous than most others, as the bodies of the popes in the third and fourth centuries were deposited in it, to which adjoined another chapel in which St. Cecilia was laid. The author of the earliest itinerary we have mentioned, specially notices this cemetery as containing "an innumerable multitude of martyrs; first, Sixtus, pope and martyr; Dionysius, pope and martyr; Julian, pope and martyr; Flavianus, martyr; St. Cecilia,

virgin and martyr. Eighty martyrs rest here below." Further excavations were made, in the course of which 121 fragments of one of the Latin inscriptions Pope Damasus put up were found.

This decided De Rossi that he was in the papal vault mentioned, ruined indeed, with its approaches blocked up, probably to preserve it from depredators, but still containing among its *débris* fragments of monuments of great interest. In one corner of this crypt, to which access was at first obtained, it appears, down the *luminare*, though one of the ancient staircases has now been restored, is a narrow doorway cut irregularly in the rock, which opens into a large chamber about 20 feet square, furnished with a wide *luminare*, which enables it to be well seen now. When first found it was filled with earth, which had to be removed, as in other instances, to the surface through this *luminare* or shaft from above. As this work proceeded, and the *luminare*, also full of earth, was emptied, the figure of a woman in the attitude of prayer was deciphered on the wall; below this a Latin cross between two sheep; and below this again, though still in the *luminare*, the figures of three saints. On the wall of the chamber, close to the entrance-way from the burial-place of the popes, was found a painting of a woman, "richly attired, and ornamented with bracelets and necklaces such as migh be looked for in a high-born and wealthy Roman bride, and might well be intended to represent St. Cecilia." But this painting, which appeared of seventh-century date, was found to be executed on the surface of ruined mosaic-work; and a niche close by, decorated with a Byzantine head of our Lord, was also noticed to have been previously encased with marble, indicating there had been a renewal of ornamentation, marking a site of high religious interest. This fact, taken in connection with the circumstance that close to these paintings was a recess large enough to hold a sarcophagus, and which left but an inch of rock between it and the back of a similar recess in the papal crypt, and compared with the statements in the documents we have mentioned, led De Rossi to the conclusion that it was in this chamber that the beautiful Christian bride of the martyr Valerius was laid, after three strokes of the executioner had left her to bleed slowly to death on the pavement of her own palace.

We would mention the care with which the rude scribblings, or *graffiti*, of ancient visitors are now scanned. De Rossi calls them "the faithful echo of history and infallible guides through the labyrinth of subterranean galleries." Sometimes the writing is a mere name, with or without a title; others are exclamations connected with distant or departed friends; and others are invocations addressed to the martyrs upon whose tombs they are inscribed. The names are of two kinds, the most convenient parts of the walls being scribbled over with such classical appellations as Rufina, Felix, Polynices, Leo; and those higher up with more mediæval designations, such as Ildebrand, Bonizo, Joannes, Presb., etc. The ejaculations correspond with the simplicity of the earliest epitaphs. They repeat "VIVAS, VIVAS IN DEO CRISTO, VIVAS IN ETERNO," and similar aspirations, over and over again. This custom is referred to one among the heathens, that prompted them to write the names of those they loved on sacred places they visited, in the hope they might then partake of any benefit to be derived from the attention. An inscription in the island of Phyle, Egypt, is quoted as an illustration, where Seraphion, son of Aristomachus wrote, "Having come to the great Isis, Goddess of Phyle, he makes a remembrance there of his parents, for their good." One Christian pilgrim can be traced, from sanctuary to sanctuary, by this means. On the vestibule of the principal sanctuary he wrote, what was evidently the wish nearest to his heart, which we translate, "Sofronia, mayest thou live with thine own;" and when he approached the entrance he wrote and prayed, "Sofronia, mayest thou live in the Lord;" again, when he came to an altar tomb in another chapel he scratched, "Sweet Sofronia, thou shalt ever live in God;" and before he left he added, "Sofronia, thou shalt live." Other *graffiti*, calling upon the martyrs, take the following forms among others: "Holy souls have in remembrance Marcianus, Successus Severus, and all our brethren. Holy souls, ask that Verecundus and his friends may have a prosperous voyage. Ask for rest, both for my parent and his brethren; may they live with God. Holy Sixtus, have ye in remembrance in your prayers Auretius Repentinus. Have ye in remembrance Dionysius." We have selected these as extremely ancient examples. Sometimes they are cut off in the middle of a sentence by some alteration or renovation that has been made since they were written. As such works were executed chiefly by St. Fabian about the year 245, or by St. Damasus in 370, we get a tolerably precise clew to their date. One of them, De Rossi states, must have been written while the plaster was wet. This is an apostrophe to Pontianus, who was probably an exiled pope of that name, brought home after his death in Sardinia, and buried here by St. Fabian.

Of the paintings in the catacombs, De Rossi ascribes two to the first century. These are the Virgin and Child, with the prophet Isaias, in the catacomb of Sta. Priscilla; and the free and flowing vine covering the roof of the entrance to St. Domitilla. The decoration of the roof of the Chapel of St. Januarius, in the catacomb of St. Prætextatus, with the paintings of the fish carrying a basket, and the lambs on either side of a milk-pail on an altar, on the walls of a *cubiculum* in the crypt

of St. Lucina, he ascribes to the second; while the great bulk of the Biblical paintings he considers the work of the third century. He divides the paintings, generally, into six classes, those that are symbolical being the earliest and largest; the next, allegorical; the third, Biblical, depicting histories from both the Old and New Testaments; the fourth, pictures of our Lord, the Virgin, and the saints; the fifth, scenes from the lives of these latter, or from the history of the Church; and scenes from the Liturgy being the sixth. There does not appear to be any addition to the known circle of symbols recently discovered, but the instances in which they are associated with one another, interchangeably, and sometimes with the names of the deceased on whose gravestones they occur, make the array large. One gravestone is illustrated, which the *fossor* inserted in the wall with the name upside down, but upon which the artist sculptured his dove correctly, showing it must have been executed after the stone was fixed in its place. The subjects of the Biblical paintings are limited in number, and are also treated in a symbolical manner. We have Noah in the ark, typical of baptism—the ark a small box, with a man in it, and sometimes a woman, as in the instance in which a dead person's name is painted on it, Juliana; Jonas and the fish, a type of the resurrection — the fish being a large-headed dragon with a long neck, perhaps, it is supposed, to keep the representation distinct from the fish, which was so often employed as a symbol of the Saviour; Daniel in the lions' den, intended either to encourage the persecuted, or as an emblem of the resurrection, and used for both purposes by the Fathers; upward of twenty examples of the adoration of the Magi; Moses striking the rock, whence issued the living water, which was Christ; and the resurrection of Lazarus, or the Victory over Death; and Moses taking off his shoes as he approaches the burning bush, typical of the renunciation of the world, the flesh, and the devil. This limited range of subjects occurs over and over again, as though they were current illustrations of the thought of those old times. No real portraits of Christ or of the Virgin have been found, though it is shown that there is always an adherence to certain leading characteristics in the faces of Sts. Peter and Paul in the glasses found in the catacombs, as though from an attempt to maintain a likeness. There are representations of Christ, however, one of which is quoted by Kugler as the oldest portrait in existence, and, in consequence, is eagerly inquired for by visitors to the catacombs. This is a head and bust in a medallion, occupying the centre of a roof in a *cubiculum* in the cemetery of Saints Nereus and Achilles. Its claim to the highest antiquity is not allowed by all. The liturgical paintings are very rare —quite, in fact, exceptional; they are found in the *cubicula* near the papal crypt we have mentioned, and belong to the end of the second century. Baptism and the Consecration of the Holy Eucharist are the subjects of representation—the first mixed up with Biblical stories and allegories, and the second still further veiled and complicated by the sign of the fish, and both associated with full-length figures of *fossors* about to hew with their pickaxes fragments of rock. A man fishing, another baptizing a youth in the same water, and a paralytic carrying away his bed, are painted on one wall. On that which faces the doorway is a three-legged table with bread and fish upon it, with a woman on one side of it and a man on the other. The first is standing with arms thrown up and hands extended, which is called an attitude of prayer; and the second, partially draped only in the pallium, extends both hands toward the table, which he actually touches with his right. This attitude has been interpreted by some to indicate the act of consecration. Again, seven men sit at a table with two dishes of fish before them, and eight baskets of loaves upon the floor; and close to them Abraham is preparing to offer up his son. These last three scenes, which are painted side by side between two graves, have the figure of a bareheaded, bare-legged *fossor* on either side of them. The same series of subjects is introduced, slightly varied in details, in the other *cubicula* in the neighborhood of the papal crypt, which persistence again suggests some familiar homily or teaching. Tertullian's explanation of their meaning is referred to as sufficient for their complete interpretation.

Gilded glasses were also found in the catacombs; at the present time there are some examples of them on loan in the South Kensington Museum. There are about thirty specimens also in the British Museum, and a few others in the museums of Paris, Florence, and Naples; but the largest collection is in the Vatican Library. Mr. Wilshere, the owner of the specimens at South Kensington, possesses about twenty. In all not more than 340 examples are known; and De Rossi's twenty-three years of labor in the catacombs have only yielded two fragments. They are, we need scarcely add, generally the bottoms of drinking-cups, with designs executed in gold-leaf between two surfaces of glass, so arranged that the figures and letters were seen from the inside. The cups of which they were the base were stuck in the cement round newly-made graves before it hardened; but, as they were thinner than the double glass enclosing the gold-leaf and more exposed, they have in nearly every instance got destroyed. The subjects depicted upon them are more numerous than those painted on the walls of the catacombs; and are minutely described by the authors of the work from which this summary is prepared. One of those in the possession of Mr. Wilshere has the Apostles Peter and Paul in the centre,

with six compartments round them, each having a distinct subject. Another, belonging to the same gentleman, has Christ with the rod of power, changing water into wine; and, again, enabling the paralytic to carry his bed, and also protecting the "three children" in the fiery furnace; as well as Tobias with the monster fish. Our Lord is frequently represented as the Good Shepherd upon them. The Virgin also occurs very frequently, and in various combinations. There are inscriptions upon them, too, such as "Joyfully mayst thou live with all thine; happy mayst thou live forever in the peace of God." Eighty of the known examples have figures of Saints Peter and Paul upon them; and some of these have inscriptions which are of a convivial character, as though they were intended for use at feasts, or especially at the feasts of those Apostles. The examples of these quoted are, when translated, as follows: "A mark of friendship, drink, and [long] life to thee, with all thine. Mayest thou live [long]. A mark of friendship, drink, and [long] life to thee, with all thine, drink [or, live], and propose a toast. Mayst thou live happily with thine own. Life and happiness to thee and thine."

The Christian sarcophagi are another distinct department in the antiquities of the catacombs. By far the largest number of these have been transported to the great hall of the Lateran palace, where they were arranged by Padre Marchi, and have since been increased in number by De Rossi. They are not so early as the paintings. Only eighteen can be identified by their inscriptions as belonging to the first four centuries, and of these only four are considered as anterior to the time of Constantine. The earliest, with a definite Christian subject depicted upon it, the nativity, has a consular date, which determines it as the work of A. D. 343. The cause of this tardy use of sculpture is attributed to the fact that the painter could prosecute his work underground safe from observation, while there would be not only the danger of drawing attention to any sculpture executed in a workshop, but the difficulty of getting it conveyed to the catacombs. But, directly the Christian religion became protected by the conversion and profession of Constantine, the sculptor was freely employed. Sometimes, we know, a Christian, desirous of placing some beloved object in a sarcophagus in preference to depositing the remains in an ordinary recess in the wall of a catacomb, bought a sculptured stone of a pagan artist, and then effaced his work with a chisel, or turned the ornamentation to the wall that it might not offend Christian eyes when fixed. On the reverse of a tomb slab inscribed Irene, for example, was found a Bacchanalian scene; and a representation of Cupid and Psyche was found with signs of plaster upon it buried beneath the floor, as though it had been likewise hidden from devout eyes. This branch of the subject is also ably treated.

The mode of construction, and the gradual development of a cemetery is the next department broached. It is illustrated with several plans, which make it extremely clear notwithstanding its intricacy. Taking the catacomb of San Calixtus as an example, it is shown that after the Christian proprietor had secured a site 250 feet along a road, with a depth of 100 feet, he caused a staircase to be dug down to a certain level, and then a gallery to be picked out which extended round three sides of the area, and was furnished at the extreme end with a second staircase to the surface. The second side, of course, connected the two others, but at intervals down the length of frontage there were two other galleries that extended and also communicated right through the site with both. Besides these, there were also four other galleries crossing the depth, but not quite extending to the opposite side. One of these shorter galleries led to the papal crypt and its accessories; and opening out of the main passage close to the approach to this celebrated centre were formed three *cubicula*. Thus the plan is three sides of an oblong, with passages crossing from one side to the other, and others beginning to cross, but not completing the undertaking; and one of these shortened galleries widening out and opening into crypts, all alike being filled with graves. Afterward fresh excavations, on a lower level, gained by steps, formed more galleries stretching across the area; and additional *cubicula* were made to open out of the first main gallery, uniform with the first set, only, instead of ascending a few steps into them as in their case, a descent of several was made. A third extension of the cemetery is visible when the *fossori* endeavored to penetrate to a still lower level: but when they had made thirty-three steps down they found themselves through the stratum of *tufa granulare* in which they had hitherto been working, and in one of a friable pozzolana. They strengthened their wall with brickwork, and made some *loculi* with bricks and pushed on, probably thinking to get through this unsuitable stratum, but eventually abandoned the plan of obtaining space by this means. The tiles and bricks used by them are found to be all stamped with the mark of the imperial brick-kiln of Marcus Aurelius, and must therefore have been manufactured between the years A. D. 161 and 180. The *fossori* enlarged the crypt of the popes at this time. By-and-by we find means taken to prevent the approach to the cemetery by concealing the entrances and blocking up the staircases. About six feet of the base of one staircase was removed, and several entrances were made from an adjacent sand-pit, so that, in case of pursuit, escape was facilitated. Finally, this cemetery was enlarged by communications made into others, into the history of which we cannot enter. And, after all, in the days of the persecution under Diocletian, the galleries that had been made with so much care, and lined with

the pious dead from the floor-lines to the headways, were purposely filled with earth, so as to baffle the tyrant's attempts to dishonor them.

SWEDEN AND NORWAY, two kingdoms in Northern Europe, united under one king; present King, Charles XV., born May 3, 1826; succeeded his father July 8, 1859. Area of Sweden and Norway, 292,929 square miles. Population of Sweden, in 1868, 4,173,000, against 4,195,681 in 1867, a decrease of 22,681, partly, to the increase of emigration, which amounted in 1867, to 9,334; in 1869, from the beginning of the year to June, to 17,878. The population of Norway, in 1867, amounted to 1,701,756. The Swedish island of St. Bartholomew in the West Indies had, in 1866, 2,898 inhabitants. In the Swedish budget for 1870, the revenue was 42,966,300 rix-dollars; the expenditures 44,969,250; deficit, 2,002,950. The public debt amounted, in 1868, to 120,206,642 rix-dollars. The imports in 1867 were valued at 134,200,000 rix-dollars; the exports at 128,600,000. Number of vessels entering the Swedish ports in 1867, 5,711, together of 188,670 lasts; number of clearances, 10,877, together of 504,019 lasts (1 Swedish last=4.7 English tons). The merchant navy consisted, in 1867, of 3,301 vessels, together of 94,842 lasts. In the Norwegian budget for the period 1869–'72, the annual revenue and expenditure are fixed at 5,092,000 specie thalers each. The public debt, in 1867, amounted to 8,154,200 specie dollars; but, deducting assets, only to 750,800 dollars. The imports, in 1867, were valued at 24,500,000 thalers; the exports, at 17,400,000. The number of vessels entering Norwegian ports in 1867 was 11,881, together of 676,191 lasts; the number of clearances, 11,915, together of 683,946 lasts. The merchant navy, in 1867, numbered 6,457 vessels, together of 418,294 commercial lasts (1 commercial last=2 English tons).

A Swedish newspaper describes the large export trade in ice carried on in Norway. It appears that a company has purchased an extensive lake, surrounded by mountains, in the neighborhood of Droebak, on the Gulf of Christiania, and, to insure the perfect purity of the water from sewage, has even bought all the houses that stand on its shores. Each winter the ice, which frequently attains a thickness of two or three feet, is cut by a kind of plough into long strips, and subsequently sawn into blocks weighing from three to five hundredweight. In this form it is shipped for export, and, in properly-constructed cellars, can be preserved for so long a period that a large portion of the ice now sold in London actually arrived there in 1866. Besides the regular ships belonging to the company, many vessels accidentally frozen up in the Norwegian fiords leave in the spring with cargoes of ice. By far the largest trade is carried on with England, which in 1865 took 44,055 tons out of a total of 45,593 exported.

The two Chambers of the Swedish Diet, in April, discussed the royal proposition relative to the revision of the Act of Union between Sweden and Norway. This suggestion was intended to realize the idea, constantly pursued by King Charles, of drawing closer the ties which unite the two Scandinavian kingdoms, and to assimilate their legislation, the differences of which are essential, from a political point of view. Norway, enjoying democratic institutions and an almost absolute autonomy, experiences, as may be conceived, the greatest repugnance to sacrifice the slightest portion of her privileges for a union the advantages of which do not appear very clear. In Sweden, for other reasons, the proposition also encounters a persistent opposition. In the Upper Chamber the committee charged with the examination of the affair advocated the postponement of the question as involving a reform of the fundamental law, and that course, in spite of the efforts of the Government, was (April 28th) adopted by a large majority (89 to 21). The Lower Chamber voted still more emphatically on the same side. The matter is, therefore, put off till the Diet of 1870, but it will certainly be again postponed, because it cannot be considered by the Norwegian Storthing till 1871 (the annual meeting of that Assembly then commencing), and the decision has been made to treat the question simultaneously in both countries.

In May, a royal proposition for the establishment of more enlarged religious freedom was adopted by both Chambers.

The Norwegian Storthing rejected a royal proposition for the abolition of the office of stadtholder (the highest executive office of the kingdom). The Government intended, by its proposition, to make it possible for a Swede to hold that office.

SWEDENBORGIANS. The fifteenth annual session of the General Convention of the New Jerusalem in the United States was opened in New York City, June 16th. The most prominent subject of discussion, besides the consideration of the reports, was whether the use of the words "parish" and "diocese," to describe the societies and associations of the Church, should be tolerated. No decision was arrived at, but the question was recommitted. The sales of the publishing-house during the year were about $12,000, being an increase of fifty per cent. over those of the previous year. The capital of the establishment is $14,807.34. Three periodicals, a monthly magazine, a weekly paper, and a child's paper, are published. Six new books have been stereotyped. The theological school at Waltham, Mass., was taught four months during the preceding year. Six students attended. The committee of missions, consisting of six members, had charge of missionary work only in those parts of the country which were not within the limits of the associations. But little missionary work had been done by the committee as a board under the auspices of the convention, but much

by individual members, and on behalf of the different associations. A book is in course of publication in German, which is designed to aid in disseminating the doctrines of the New Church among the Germans in the United States. Prof. R. L. Safel has been engaged, at Stockholm, Sweden, and London, under the direction of a committee of the convention, in examining the condition of the manuscripts of Swedenborg, with a view of having them copied by photolithographic or other process. This work was attended with interesting results in the discovery of new manuscripts, and writings which had been before inaccessible. The idea of photolithographing the manuscripts was, however, abandoned, because of the small amount of the subscriptions to the work that were obtained in the United States, and because the Swedenborg Society of England declined to coöperate in the enterprise. The thanks of the convention were voted to the Royal Swedish Academy of Sciences, for the courtesies and assistance which it had rendered Prof. Safel. A complete copy of all the publications of the convention was ordered to be presented to the Royal Library at Stockholm.

The Tract Society have published three tracts, printing 82,000 copies in all. It has a membership of 68, 39 life-members and 29 members. Its receipts for the year were $1,253.97.

The numerical statistics of the New Church are imperfect in shape and incomplete. The following is a view of the associations and societies:

ASSOCIATIONS.	Ministers.	Societies.	Members.
Illinois	9	10	656
Maine and New Hampshire	2	5	240
Maryland	5	6	393
Massachusetts	16	16	1204
Michigan and Northern Indiana	7	6	....
Missouri	..	5	208
New York	11	10	358
Ohio	9	12	359
Pennsylvania	4	4	156

The title "ministers" includes licentiates.

In connection with the Massachusetts association, there is a New Church Union, which has a free library, and supports a missionary. Sunday-school unions are connected with several of the associations. Besides the theological school at Waltham, Mass., there is a children's school at the same place, which has given instruction, since its establishment, to nearly three hundred children. The church school at Urbana, Ohio, had sixty to seventy pupils. It reports the receipt of legacies and donations amounting to $30,000. A school at Foster Hill, near Glendale, Ohio, had twenty-one pupils. Lay teaching has been tried by the New York Association with successful results. Isolated societies reported to the General Convention from Philadelphia, Edenfield, Pa., and Milwaukee, Wis. There is a society at Laporte, Indiana, which is not connected with the association.

SWITZERLAND,* a federal republic in Europe. Area, 15,722 square miles; population, in 1860, 2,510,494. President of the Federal Council, from July 5, 1869, to the close of the legislative session ending in 1869, L. Ruchonnet, of the Canton of Vaud. The budget, for 1869, estimates the revenue at 20,812,700 francs; the expenditures at 20,740,000 francs; the surplus at 72,700 francs.

On April 18th, the electors of the Canton of Zurich adopted, by 34,000 votes against 22,000, the new Constitution submitted to them. It is assumed that this vote marks the beginning of a new era in the internal politics of Switzerland. Taken by itself, it is the adhesion of the most advanced, the best educated, and richest canton of the Confederation to a system of government in which the people are called upon to play a more immediate and more important part in the management of what most nearly affects themselves than they have ever yet done. The Constituent Assembly, which sprang from this vote, devoted the greater part of last year to a revision of the cantonal constitution, and the changes which it has introduced may be briefly stated. The liberty of the press is henceforth to be complete; no special legislation with regard to press offences will be recognized; editors, like other citizens, will be subject to common law alone. Public functionaries are to have no special privileges. The whole penal code is modified, and the punishments are made less severe. Capital punishment is abolished; any citizen illegally arrested is to be indemnified by the state; a *habeas corpus* act similar to our own is introduced; civil marriage is sanctioned, but compliance with it is purely voluntary; at the same time, all services necessary to constitute a marriage, whether civil or religious, are to be wholly gratuitous. Some of the other enactments are interesting to foreigners as indicative of the peculiar customs of the people. That important person in a Continental town, the notary, is to be elected in each district by the votes of his fellow-citizens from a list of candidates, none of whom shall present themselves without proper certificates of qualification. All actions for debt are to be undertaken by the municipal authorities of the district. Such are the law reforms. The financial are scarcely of less importance. The sliding-scale of income-tax is introduced, applicable, however, only to moneys raised for the purposes of the whole canton. Legacy and succession duties, in imitation of our own, will be raised. All monopolies are abolished. No taxes upon the necessaries of life are to be imposed; those already existing are to be reduced or removed with all possible dispatch. The care of the poor is to be left to each district or township, but the state will aid any district overburdened with poor, as well as make grants to all asso-

* For an account of the Council of State, the National Council, and the Army, see ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

ciations for the relief of pauperism. It will also assist private efforts which have for their objects the education of pauper children or the care of the sick and helpless. The railroads are to be worked under the inspection of the state, and, should fresh lines be judged necessary, the canton is to bear part of the expense of their construction in districts too poor to support the total outlay. A cantonal bank is to be established under Government auspices, and lastly the contingent of recruits furnished to the federal army is to be wholly equipped and armed at the expense of the canton. What are called "the rights of the people" are carefully defined and guaranteed by the new constitution. Every citizen has the right of petitioning the Grand Council to promulgate, modify, or abrogate any law. If one-third of the Grand Council approves the petition, it is to be submitted to the vote of the canton. In the same manner, any demand emanating from 5,000 citizens is to be at once submitted to the popular vote, unless the Grand Council adopts it of its own free will. By the side of the right of petition the old right of the *referendum* is revived and reinvigorated. Twice a year, in the spring and autumn—and oftener if necessary—the whole body of the people is to be convoked to approve or annul any fundamental changes in the Constitution, any new laws or concordats, agreed upon by the Grand Council. No decision of this executive body on such matters is valid until ratified by the people. Thirty days before each General Assembly every citizen is to be furnished with a copy of all the laws to be voted. The people are to vote yea or nay, and the absolute majority decides. The people have further the right of a limited veto upon the minor acts of the Grand Council—for example, in deciding upon any work or undertaking the cost of which will exceed 250,000 francs (£10,000), or create an annual charge on the budget of more than 20,000 francs (£800). Last of all, the executive body in the State is to consist of seven members, directly chosen by the entire canton voting as a single electoral college. In like manner, and at the same time, and for the same term of three years, the two deputies who shall represent the canton in the Federal Diet are to be elected. Such is the constitution adopted by the canton of Zurich. Already Thurgau has adopted an almost identical constitution by 11,681 votes against 6,741; Lucerne, by 8,600 against 4,200; and Saint Gall, which stands in many respects next to Zurich in importance, by a still larger majority.

Two international Congresses were held, in 1869, in Switzerland—the International Labor Congress at Basle, and the Peace Congress at Lausanne. These bodies almost invariably unite in denouncing the present system of "bloated armaments" and crushing war taxation, which is producing so much misery and poverty throughout Christendom. The burdens of war, we are told, have become intolerable. Millions of soldiers are being maintained, and must be supported by the industrious classes, a large proportion of whose strongest helpers are withdrawn by conscription or enlistment. Hence the weight of taxation and hard labor is falling heavily even on weak women and poor girls. For example, one of the complaints latterly raised against the present system has come from the female spinners of Lyons and Anduze. These wretched women have been compelled to earn their livelihood by working sixteen hours a day (and for the pittance of one shilling). They have at length struck for a change; but, with a remarkable patience and moderation, only demand that their working-hours should begin at five and end at seven. Of course the women of France must work (and exceedingly hard) as long as the present law continues, which renders every man above twenty-one years of age liable to conscription, and enacts a minimum annual draft of 160,000 soldiers. Further, these are prohibited from marriage. The consequent vice and distress brought upon the cities and families of France are incalculable. The first act of the Labor Congress of Basle was to elect a president and to nominate the various bureaux, to each of which was confided the duty of drawing up a general report, framed upon the instructions given to the delegates, on each of the five questions set down for discussion. These questions were—landed property and land tenure; the rights of inheritance; mutual credit, and how far it can be employed by the working-classes in their struggle for emancipation; compulsory and thorough education; the use of trade unions in defending the workman's interests. The president chosen by the Congress was M. Jung, a Swiss watchmaker, residing in London, who speaks each of the three languages in use at the meetings with equal facility. The task which fell to the lot of the president was not of the lightest, and M. Jung displayed a tact and firmness which entered largely into the success of the proceedings. Among the most notable of the reports were those of Marseilles, where the sailors have formed themselves into a trade union; and from Lyons, where the women have adopted a similar course. In Spain, the progress of trade-unionism has been more rapid than elsewhere—upward of 195 unions, with 25,000 members, exist. The Spanish workmen appear to be in favor of a federal republic, including Portugal as well as Spain, and they advocate the abolition of all property in the soil by individuals, and gratuitous and complete education for all. The committee appointed to consider the land question was unable to agree on a report, and two were therefore presented—one advocating that the soil should be vested in individuals or associations, and the other that the land should be the inalienable property of the village or parish, to be cultivated for the benefit of the community.

The Congress of the International Peace and Liberty League assembled on September 15th, at Lausanne. Upward of 400 members were present, among them Victor Hugo, the honorary president, Gambetta, Terrier, and Laurier, from France; Louis Simon and Venedey from Germany. The following resolutions were adopted:

Whereas, The material and permanent cause of the warlike condition in Europe is the entire want of judicial international institutions;

Whereas, It is the first condition that an international tribunal to decide upon questions, to solve which war and diplomacy try in vain by force and deceit, should be chosen and appointed directly by the will of the nations and governed in its decisions by international laws voted by these same nations;

Whereas, The moral weight of such tribunal requires that to effectuate its decisions it should be secured by an executive vested with sufficient power;

Whereas, Such executive power can legally exist only if regulated and countenanced by the direct will of the peoples; and

Whereas, The three institutions together, namely, an international statute, a tribunal to apply it and a power to execute its decisions, constitute a government:

The assembled Congress declares that—

1. The only means to secure peace in Europe is to establish a confederation of the peoples, by the name of a United States of Europe.

2. The government of this union must be republican and federal—that is, it must be based upon the principle of the sovereignty of the people, with a proper regard to the autonomy and independence of each member of the confederation.

3. The forms of government must be open to improvement.

4. The European Confederation has to guarantee to all nations belonging to it—

(*a*) Sovereignty and autonomy.
(*b*) Individual freedom.
(*c*) Liberty of the ballot.
(*d*) Liberty of the press.
(*e*) Liberty of assembling and forming associations.
(*f*) Liberty of conscience.
(*g*) Liberty to labor without taking undue advantage of operatives.
(*h*) Actual personal responsibility of all executive officers.

5. No peoples can be admitted to join the European Confederation if not in the full possession of—

(*a*) The general franchise.
(*b*) The right of voting or refusing taxes.
(*c*) The right of making peace and declaring war.
(*d*) The right of entering into and ratifying political and commercial treaties.
(*e*) The right to amend its constitution.

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TALLMADGE, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS, a political leader and jurist of New York City, born in Litchfield, Conn., August 29, 1792; died there, September 17, 1869. He was a son of Colonel Benjamin Tallmadge, a distinguished officer of the Revolutionary War. He was educated at Yale College, where he graduated in 1811, studied law under Judge Reeve, at the Litchfield Law School, commanded a troop of volunteer cavalry for the defence of New York in 1812, was admitted to the New York bar, and commenced the practice of his profession in New York City in 1813, and for more than half a century was identified with the prosperity of New York. He had attained high rank in his profession before he intermingled in politics at all. In 1834 he was chosen Assistant Alderman for the Eighth Ward, and in 1836 Alderman for the same ward. In 1837 he was elected State Senator, and at the end of his term was reëlected. In 1841 he was appointed Recorder of the City of New York, a judicial office, analogous to that of city judge, which position he held till 1846, when, the recordership under the new constitution becoming an elective office, Mr. Tallmadge was nominated, as a Whig, for Congress from the Fifth District, and elected by about 400 majority over his Democratic competitor, David Broderick, subsequently a California Senator in Congress. In the beginning of 1849 he was again chosen Recorder. In May, 1849, occurred the Astor Place Riots, which were effectually put down by Recorder Tallmadge's decision and energy. The history of these riots was briefly this: Edwin Forrest, the tragic actor, had become a leader in the Native American movement, and was attempting to obtain a nomination and election to Congress through it. He was at the same time vaunting himself as the great American tragedian. William C. Macready, a well-known and able English tragedian, had, at the time, an engagement at the Astor Place Opera-House. Certain partisans of Forrest, led by E. Z. C. Judson (Ned Buntline), and secretly supported, it was said, by Captain Rynders, Mike Walsh, and others, determined to mob Macready, and assaulted the Opera-House during his performance, with a shower of paving-stones. The Seventh Regiment were called out to preserve the peace, but were assailed by the rioters and thrown into disorder. The Sheriff (Westervelt) was urged by prominent citizens to order the military to clear the streets, but he had not the nerve to do it. They then appealed to the Mayor (C. S. Woolhull), but he was even more timid than the sheriff. Meantime the riot was increasing, the police were useless, and the military powerless for want of orders. At this juncture, Recorder Tallmadge came upon the ground, and, having commanded the mob to disperse, ordered the military to fire over their heads. They did so, but, as no one was hurt, the rioters rushed upon them, hurling paving-stones and other missiles at them with great violence. The soldiers held their lines without wavering, though a number of their men were injured. Recorder Tallmadge immediately gave his second order to fire, and aim low, and within three minutes nearly twenty of the rioters were killed, more than thirty seriously wounded, and

the remainder in full flight. His action received the approval of all good citizens. It was eight years before another riot was attempted in New York. Mr. Tallmadge continued in office as Recorder till the close of 1851. When the Metropolitan Police was established in 1857, Mr. Tallmadge was its first Superintendent, remaining in that position, and doing much to perfect its organization, until 1859. In 1861 he was the Union candidate for Canal Commissioner, but was defeated. In 1862 he was candidate for Clerk of the Court of Appeals, and was elected by 8,669 majority. He served from 1862 to 1865, and then returned to New York City and to the practice of his profession.

TELEGRAPHIC CABLE. The laying of the telegraphic cable from Brest, France, to the island of St. Pierre, near the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and thence to Duxbury on the coast of Massachusetts, was successfully accomplished in July of the year 1869. The Société du Câble Transatlantique Français was organized under a charter granted by the French Government in the summer of 1867 to Emile d'Erlanger, of Paris, and Julius Reuter, of London, who were empowered to lay the cable and control its operation for a period of twenty years from the 1st of September, 1869. It was provided in the charter that no soil foreign to the United States or France should be touched in the transit of the cable, and that the price for transmitting messages should not exceed $20 for twenty words. The capital stock of the company was fixed at $6,000,000 in 60,000 shares of $100 each, the whole of which was speedily taken by capitalists in London and Paris. The contract for constructing and laying the cable was given to the Telegraph Construction and Maintenance Company, of England, who were to receive £920,000 for successfully performing the work. The entire length of the cable is about 3,047 miles, which is upward of 1,000 miles longer than the English cable; it consists of two main sections, one from Brest to St. Pierre, 2,825 miles, and the other from St. Pierre to the American terminus, 722 miles. The cable was so manufactured as to give it the greatest strength and the greatest conductive capacity. The central copper wire is larger than that in the English cable, the former weighing 400 lbs., and the latter 300 lbs. to the mile. To render insulation more perfect, the wire is covered with Chatterton's compound, and over that are four layers of gutta-percha. Around these is bound a spiral net of steel wires, each wire being surrounded with five strands of Russian hemp, saturated with a preservative compound. The actual strength of this hemp and steel cable is 7¼ tons, while the strain required for submersion was estimated not to exceed 14 cwt. The conductive capacity of the French cable was estimated at twelve words per minute, which represented a gain of four words per minute over what had previously been attained. On the 22d of June, the Great Eastern, carrying 2,725 miles of cable, departed from Brest, and on the 13th of July reached St. Pierre, when successful communication between these two points was established, as proved by the transmission of a message to the Emperor Napoleon. The remaining section of the cable was soon laid to Duxbury, the American terminus.

The physical character of the ocean-bed along the route chosen is such as to afford complete protection to the cable from anchorages and dangers from icebergs. The main cable, extending from deep water off Brest to the junction with the shore end at St. Pierre, lies on one of the great plateaus known to exist at the bottom of the Atlantic, on one of which the cable between Newfoundland and Valentia was laid. The path of the cable from Minou Bay is in water gradually increasing in depth from shallow to ninety fathoms, until in a line with the most westerly part of the coast of Ireland, where, taking a northerly course, it passes down a gentle slope of sand, and in a short distance a depth of 1,700 fathoms was reached. The course then continues in a uniform depth of 2,000 and 2,200 fathoms on a bottom of mud, shells, and sand. The line is taken in an arc of a large circle, the most southerly point of the cable being in latitude 42° N., and the most northerly 48°. Along the southern end of the Newfoundland Bank it is sunk in a depth of from 150 to 200 fathoms, the water on the bank itself varying from 50 to 90 fathoms. From this point to the western terminus of the line the water varies in depth from 100 to 500 fathoms.

Before the completion of the enterprise the question arose as to the right of a foreign company to land a cable upon territory of the United States without first having obtained the consent of Congress. The position of the United States Government on this subject may be considered as set forth in the bill relating to telegraphic communication between the United States and foreign countries which passed the Senate in February, but was not acted upon by the House, for want of time. The bill provides that, whenever communication shall hereafter be established between a foreign country and any point within the jurisdiction of the United States, the same shall be subject to the following conditions and stipulations:

1. The Government of the United States shall be entitled to exercise and enjoy the same or similar privileges with regard to the control and use of any such line or cable, and the lines or cables connected therewith, that may by law, agreement, or otherwise, be exercised and enjoyed by any foreign government whatever.

2. The United States Government shall at all times be entitled to the use of any such line or cable, and the lines or cables connected therewith, by a telegraphic operator of its own selection to transmit any messages to and from its military, naval, diplomatic and consular agents; and such messages shall be entitled to take precedence of all other messages.

3. The rates to be paid for the transmission of any such message or messages, when not otherwise fixed by agreement, shall be established by the Postmaster-General of the United States.

4. The offices of any such lines or cables shall be kept open to the public for transmission for daily publication of market and commercial reports and intelligence, and all messages, dispatches, and communications, shall be forwarded in the order in which they are received, except as hereinbefore provided.

5. It shall at all times be within the power of Congress to determine the rates to be charged for the transmission of messages and communications over any such line or cable, and to fix and establish such rules and regulations in relation thereto as it may judge necessary.

6. Before extending or establishing any such line or cable in or over any waters, reefs, islands, shore, and land, within the jurisdiction of the United States, a written acceptance of the terms and conditions imposed by this act shall be filed in the office of the Secretary of State by the company, corporation, or party, proposing to establish telegraphic communication.

SEC. 2. *And be it further enacted*, That, subject to the foregoing conditions, stipulations, and reservations, the consent of Congress is hereby given to the laying and maintaining of telegraphic or magnetic lines or cables, between the United States and foreign countries, in and over the waters, reefs, islands, shores, and lands, within the jurisdiction of the United States, subject, however, to any and all rights of property and State jurisdiction over the same; provided that the privilege conferred by this act shall not be enjoyed by any company or persons whose line or cable, by its connections or otherwise, terminates or extends to any foreign country in and by which similar privileges are not conferred upon companies incorporated by the authority of the United States, or of any State in this Union.

Before the connection of the French cable with this country had been effected, Mr. Fish, the Secretary of State, on behalf of the United States Government, addressed a letter to the French minister at Washington, and also the British minister, informing them of the action of the Senate and the disposition of the Government, so far as the same had been developed. It was thought, however, by many that the difficulty would be obviated by the action of the Massachusetts Legislature. A bill was passed by that body and approved on the 30th of March, incorporating the "Ocean Telegraph Company," who were authorized to "lay and maintain a telegraph cable in and over the waters, shores, and lands, of this Commonwealth, from some point or points on the shore of the county of Plymouth to the open sea, and to connect the same with any foreign telegraph cable." The validity of such legislation on the part of a State was subsequently considered in an opinion given by Attorney-General Hoar, who regarded it as a violation of that provision of the Constitution vesting in Congress the power "to regulate commerce with foreign nations and among the several States." The views of the Attorney-General upon this point are clearly stated in the opinion: "Telegraph communication is a new means of commercial intercourse which the discoveries of modern science have supplied. Being, however, an instrument of commerce, and a most efficient instrument of commercial intercourse, the fact that it is a new one does not, in my judgment, prevent the application to it of the constitutional provision. I am of the opinion that the control of telegraphic communication with foreign nations, so far as it is exercised by means of cables leading from the shores of the United States, is within the constitutional authority of Congress—to permit, regulate, or prohibit, in such cases and under such circumstances as their judgment shall direct; and that consequently there can be no security for such enterprises while no authority or protection for them has been derived from the acts of Congress. In other words, that the jurisdiction of the United States Government to regulate commerce with foreign nations, including every kind of commercial intercourse, is complete and supreme; that it can be exercised and asserted whenever and in such manner as Congress shall think fit, and that no action of the government of any *ex parte* State of the Union can confer any rights upon any person or corporation to carry on intercourse with foreign nations by a telegraphic cable, which will afford any permanent security for their value or their continuous enjoyment, unless the previous assent of Congress has been obtained. The separate States may grant the enjoyment of their own rights of soil and of privileges within their control, but they cannot grant rights which interfere with or limit the exercise of the authority of the national legislature so far as that authority is derived from the Constitution of the United States." It is further held that, aside from the question of the power of Congress to regulate commerce, the "connection of this country with a foreign nation by means of a telegraphic cable is a means of national communication so vital and important, both in peace and in war, to the national interests, and under some circumstances possibly even to the national existence, that it is in its own nature a subject for national control, which it would be impossible for the Government or the people of the United States to allow to exist under the separate control of a single State, or to depend upon the arrangements made by one of the States with a foreign power, its citizens or subjects, acting either in a private or corporate capacity." The discussion of this subject did not lead to any actual interference on the part of the American Government to prevent the connection of the foreign line with this country. The French cable proper, however, was not brought within the jurisdiction of the United States; but connection with the shore at Duxbury was effected by means of a cable laid by the "Ocean Telegraph Company," which had been incorporated for the purpose by the Legislature of Massachusetts. A complete communication having been thus secured, the offices of the company were at once opened to the public for the transaction of business.

which has since continued without interruption.

TELEICONOGRAPHY, OR THE DRAWING OF DISTANT OBJECTS. M. Revoil, an architect well known in France, from having had charge of the restoration of the Roman remains at Montpellier, Toulon, and Nîmes, has recently been engaged in a special study of the early architecture of the southern provinces of the ancient kingdom. In the course of his attempts to arrive at exactitude of definition, by the aid at one time of the camera lucida, and at another of the telescope, he has been induced to make experiments as to the combination of the principles of the two instruments. The result of this effort M. Revoil has called the *Têléiconographe.*

The principle of this instrument is that of allowing the image transmitted by the object-glass of a telescope to pass through a prism connected with the eye-piece. The rays of light, that would in the ordinary use of the telescope be transmitted direct to the eye, are refracted by this prism, and thrown down upon a table placed below the eye-piece. The distance between the prism and the table determines the size of the image projected on the latter, and it is easy for the observer to trace, on a paper placed on this sketching-table, the actual outlines indicated by the refracted light.

The idea once grasped, it is easy to work out the details. The telescope is fixed on a stand with screws and clamps, allowing of both horizontal and vertical motion, as it may often be necessary to give traverse to the instrument, in order to make a connected drawing of a larger area than can be included in the object-glass at one view. In fact, an entire panorama can be traced, if the relative positions of the axis of the telescope and the surface of the sketching-table are undisturbed.

M. Revoil's eye-piece might be adapted to the ordinary theodolite, so that any person who possesses one of these instruments may, at a small expense, obtain a good sketching-apparatus.

The advantage possessed by the teleiconograph over the camera lucida is manifest. The size of the image may be determined at will by the person who uses the former, without any diminution of accuracy. The croquis for a lithograph of the summit of one of the towers of Notre-Dame de Paris was taken, by means of the instrument of M. Revoil, at the distance of about 800 metres. It is twelve inches long. A sketch taken by the aid of a camera lucida is drawn alongside, and is only one inch in length, or one-twelfth part of the linear measure of the bold outline of the teleiconogram. Two mountain-peaks, in Provence, sketched by aid of the same apparatus, show how admirably it can be applied to the sketching of country. For the purpose of military surveying, its services promise to be of the utmost value.

The teleiconograph insures certitude in drawing, but it does not draw. It is an aid to the artist, not a self-acting substitute for his eye and hand. The sharp, bold touch of a master of the art of drawing will be as distinct from the feeble peddling of an inferior workman, when the refracting prism is used, as when free-hand sketching is resorted to. The division of attention between the object and the copy, which is often so painful, will be entirely avoided by the use of this instrument. In the hands of a true artist the result will be every way admirable—exact as a photograph, without the distortion of all those parts of the field which are distant from the centre, and at the same time marked by all the peculiarity of touch proper to the master.

TENNESSEE. The disorders which were prevalent in several localities in the State of Tennessee at the close of 1868 continued to disturb the tranquillity of the community during the early part of the past year. Popular sentiment throughout the State condemned these outrages as the acts of a band of outlaws, armed and disguised, whose deeds of violence were productive of excitement among the people, and a source of great damage to the commercial interests of the State. In several counties meetings were held, composed of men of all parties, and resolutions deprecating the prevalent spirit of violence were passed, of which the following may be regarded as a specimen:

Whereas, The people of Bedford County, without distinction of party, desire the repose and safety of society, and the security of property and life, and the maintenance of civil law: therefore be it

Resolved, That we most earnestly condemn, and will persistently oppose, all secret or open organizations, in resistance to the civil law; and we condemn in unmeasured terms the practice of an organization known as the Ku-klux Klan, or any set of men who assume disguise and prowl over the country, creating terror and excitement, or who write anonymous letters, or who are threatening innocent parties with retaliation; and we hereby pledge ourselves to use every persuasive and peaceable effort in our power to put down all lawlessness of whatever character, no matter who may be the perpetrators.

As the efforts of the civil authorities for the preservation of peace seemed to be ineffectual, Governor Brownlow deemed a resort to extreme measures necessary, and on the 20th of January issued a proclamation, in which, after stating that "there exist, in the middle and western divisions of this State, lawless bands of desperadoes, who are setting at defiance civil law, and who, by threats and acts of violence, are forcing many of our citizens to leave their homes;" and that, "in certain localities in those divisions of the State named, it is entirely impossible for the civil officers of the State to enforce the laws thereof," he calls upon "all good and loyal citizens to enter the ranks of the State Guards, and be mustered into service, and assist in putting down these lawless combinations and proceedings, and bringing the offenders to justice, so aiding to

preserve the peace of this Commonwealth." Those enrolled under this call in East Tennessee were to be furnished with transportation to Nashville, and there armed, equipped, and distributed, under command of General Joseph A. Cooper. The Governor further adds:

This proclamation will, in due time, be followed by another, designating the counties over which I shall declare martial law, the effect of which will be to set aside civil law, and turn offenders over to the military, who will try them, and, upon their conviction, dispose of them in summary manner.

These outrages have been long borne with, in the hope that they would be abated by the public sentiment of the respective communities concerned. Forbearance has now ceased to be a virtue. The Executive is not to be brow-beaten, cajoled, nor terrified out of the discharge of the duties demanded by existing exigencies.

All citizens who may not enroll under this call are hereby requested and enjoined to use their utmost endeavors, in conjunction with the State Guards, and otherwise, to restore and preserve the peace and dignity of this Commonwealth, and all citizens are also hereby warned against harboring those masked marauders called Ku-klux Klans, or giving them aid and countenance.

The Governor is determined to make the State Guards sufficiently numerous and effective, and to continue them in the field sufficiently long, until Middle and West Tennessee are as orderly and secure as, happily, East Tennessee is to-day.

Shortly after the publication of this proclamation, the following order was issued by General Cooper:

General Order, No. 1.

HEADQUARTERS TENNESSEE STATE GUARDS,
NASHVILLE, TENN., *January* 25, 1869.

In obedience to instructions from his Excellency the Governor,

The undersigned assumes command of all the Tennessee State forces in the field.

All persons applying for permission to raise companies must be of good moral character and must be in sympathy with the State and Federal Government.

There will be no commissions issued to line officers until they have a command equal to the rank which the commission represents; eighty-four men will be entitled to a captain, first and second lieutenant; forty-four to one first-lieutenant, and will be consolidated with some other organization if they fail to fill up a minimum company.

By command of
JOSEPH A. COOPER, Brig-Gen'l., Commander.
L. B. GAMBLE, Captain, A. D. C.

On the 20th of February, martial law was declared in nine counties of the State by the following proclamation of Governor Brownlow:

Whereas, There are now sixteen hundred State Guards at Nashville, armed and equipped, under command of General Joseph A. Cooper; and

Whereas, These troops are intended to preserve the peace and enforce the laws in counties heretofore partially in rebellion: now, therefore,

I, William G. Brownlow, Governor of Tennessee, do hereby proclaim martial law in and over the following-named counties, to wit: Overton, Jackson, Maury, Giles, Marshall, Lawrence, Gibson, Madison, and Haywood; and I further direct that General Cooper distribute these troops at once, and continue them in service until we have unmistakable evidence of the purpose of all parties to keep the peace.

It is further ordered in this proclamation that the general in command shall enforce the most rigid discipline among his troops, requiring them in every particular to conform to strict military discipline, showing no quarter to either officers or privates who shall be found guilty of habitual drunkenness.

In testimony whereof, I have caused the great seal of the State to be attached hereunto, this 20th day of February, 1869, and I order that the same be inserted three times in each of the newspapers entitled to publish legal advertisements.

(Signed) W. G. BROWNLOW,
Governor of Tennessee.

The policy chosen by the Executive to secure the enforcement of the laws caused no little alarm among the citizens in the counties affected thereby, who made efforts to free themselves from the inconveniences of martial law, by the adoption of resolutions pledging the coöperation of all good citizens to aid the civil authorities in a fearless execution of the laws, and expressing the belief that "neither martial law nor troops is necessary to preserve the peace or protect the lives of citizens." The Executive, however, was determined not to withdraw the militia until order was fully restored, and the civil authorities were able to preserve the peace. During the spring the attention of the people was gradually diverted from the subject of martial law by the growing excitement of the political canvass, which during the summer became unusually spirited, and attracted the attention of the country at large. The contest was waged not by the usual rival parties, but by opposing factions of the Republican party. These factions were unable to agree upon any candidate for Governor in the Republican State Convention held at Nashville on the 20th of May, and so irreconcilable was the difference between them that the Convention abruptly terminated in disorder before even a permanent organization had been effected. Subsequently the delegates representing the two hostile factions of the party held separate meetings, and respectively nominated De Witt C. Senter and William B. Stokes as candidates for Governor, each of whom claimed to be the regular nominee of the Republican party. Both of these candidates were prominent Republicans, and claimed to "stand fully and frankly upon the platform of the National Republican party." Mr. Stokes represented the third district of the State in Congress, and Mr. Senter, by virtue of his position as president of the Senate, had, in the latter part of February, succeeded to the office of Governor, made vacant by the resignation of William G. Brownlow to enter the Senate of the United States. No nominations for Governor were made by any other party; and it was understood that the Conservatives and the Democrats would unite in supporting Mr. Senter on account of his views on the franchise question, while Mr. Stokes was regarded as the representative of the more radical element of the State. On account of the disruption of the convention, no declaration of principles in the form of resolutions had been made by either party;

but the views of both sides were presented to the people by the joint discussion of the two leading candidates in various parts of the State. The most important question at issue had reference to the enfranchisement of a large portion of the population still subject to political disabilities. Mr. Stokes was opposed to an immediate restoration of the disfranchised class to the privileges of citizenship, and indorsed the policy announced in the National Republican platform adopted at Chicago in 1868, favoring "the removal of the disqualifications and restrictions imposed upon the late rebels in the same manner as the spirit of disloyalty will die out, and as may be consistent with the safety of the loyal people." His views were expressed in a letter bearing date January 31st, as follows:

When the killing of Union men ceases, the hellish organization of the Ku-klux is disbanded, and the laws are observed, then I am willing to entertain a proposition to amend the State constitution so as to allow the disfranchised to come in gradually, by providing that the Legislature may, by a two-thirds vote, remove the disabilities of those who petition and come well recommended by their loyal neighbors. This would let in well-disposed ex-rebels, and keep out bad ones. This would not endanger the Republican party, for the reason that it would require a two-thirds vote of each House to remove their disabilities, and, in my judgment, it will be some time before the Conservative Democracy will have such a majority.

The idea of amending the constitution so as to place the ballot in the hands of those outlaws at one clean sweep, and at the present time, would be cruel to the Union men.

The sentiments of those opposing the election of Mr. Stokes may be regarded as expressed in the address issued by Governor Senter in the early part of the canvass, the following passage of which has reference to the important topic of franchise:

The question which most interests the people of Tennessee at the present time, and which, in itself, is, perhaps, more pressing and important than any other, is the elective franchise. On this subject I am free to say that, in my judgment, the time has come, and is now, when the limitations and disabilities which have found their way into our statute-books as the result of the war should be abolished and removed, and the privilege of the elective franchise restored, and extended so as to embrace the mass of the adult population of the State. In other words, I am in favor of so amending the constitution and laws of the State that the present disfranchising clause and provisions shall be made to disappear from the same, and the privilege of the elective franchise made to rest upon the facts and conditions of the present instead of the past, and upon principles of impartiality, equality, and justice. * * *

Disfranchisement was adopted only as a temporary necessity growing out of the needs and situation of the time, and with no expectation that it would be long continued; and there can be no reason for its further continuance now except in a selfish partisan ambition to gain office, or a selfish partisan fear of losing it. Disfranchisement necessarily produces restlessness and discontent, and, as we have all seen, engenders animosities, discord, and strife. Enfranchisement will, in my opinion, heal the animosities which have so long divided our people, and bring concord, peace, and prosperity to the State, while, at the same time, it is most consonant with the theory and principles of our republican form of government, and with the declared policy and purpose of the party now in power."

Mr. Senter then declares in favor of a liberal system of common schools and a reduction of "taxation to the lowest possible point consistent with the punctual payment" of the obligations of the State. In advocating the ratification by the Legislature of the fifteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution, he says:

Its practical adoption and recognition are the ultimate fact and necessity of the Government, and its adoption now will remove much of the division, discord, and danger, which will otherwise disturb the future. Fears have been expressed that, if the disfranchised citizens of Tennessee should be again admitted to the ballot-box, and to the possession of political power, they would endeavor to use it so as to deprive our colored fellow-citizens of the political privileges which they now possess.

I am assured and satisfied that such would not be the result, and have taken the position I now occupy, and have said what I have in their behalf, upon the assumption that they would be willing to guarantee to others, without distinction of color, or previous condition of servitude, all the rights and privileges they claim for themselves; and trust that they will soon so express themselves in the indorsement to this amendment, that all doubts and fears in reference to their position may be removed.

The canvass was ended by the election held on the 5th of August, which resulted in the choice of Mr. Senter for Governor, by a majority of 65,297. The whole number of votes cast was 175,369, of which Mr. Senter received 120,333, and Mr. Stokes 55,036. At the presidential election of the preceding year, 82,757 votes were polled, of which 56,628 were cast for Grant, and 26,129 for Seymour.

The results of this election were influenced in no small degree by the important decision of the Supreme Court, delivered in May, declaring unconstitutional the acts of the Legislature authorizing the Executive to set aside registrations of voters in cases of fraud and irregularities. This question arose on an indictment in the Circuit Court against William Staten, in which he was charged with illegal voting. On the 10th of December, 1867, the name of Staten had been registered as a qualified voter in Gibson County, and a certificate to that effect issued to him. But on the 25th of February, 1868, in accordance with the act of the Legislature empowering the Executive to set aside the registration of any county "when it shall be made to appear to his satisfaction that frauds and irregularities have intervened in the registration of the voters of such counties," Governor Brownlow issued a proclamation declaring the registration in Gibson and other counties null and void. Subsequently, on the 7th of March, Staten, by virtue of the certificate issued to him in December, and still in his possession, voted at an election for county officers, whereupon he was arraigned for illegal voting. The counsel for the defendant demurred to the indictment in the Circuit Court, on the ground that the Legislature,

neither by direct legislation, nor by conferring power upon the Governor, could deprive a citizen of his right to vote after the franchise had once vested it in him. The indictment having been quashed in the Circuit Court, the question was taken to the Supreme Court, and the action of the court below was sustained. The Supreme Court held that the elective franchise was a "right which the law protects and enforces as jealously as it does property in chattels or lands," and that "the rules of law which guard against deprivation or injury the rights of persons in corporeal property, are alike and equally applicable to the elective franchise, and alike and equally guard persons invested with it against deprivation of, or injury to, it. Persons invested with it cannot be deprived of it otherwise than by due process of law." It was the opinion of the court that "due process of law," by which a person may be deprived or divested of his properties, rights, privileges, or franchises, was not "an act of the Legislature, or an act of Executive power, or a proceeding in court, other than a proceeding wherein the party whose right is involved can have, or is authorized to have, a hearing, and to make a defence," and that the act of the Governor, in setting aside and annulling the registration of a county, was not "due process of law." In deciding that the functions and powers of the commissioners of registration were of a judicial nature, and not properly subject to legislative or Executive control, the chief justice said:

> The act, and decision, and judgment of the commissioner are of a judicial nature. Under the franchise law he is the appointed tribunal, and the only tribunal, empowered to ascertain and decide what persons possess the qualifications which entitle to the privilege of the elective franchise, and to award to them the evidence of their right to vote, and authority to exercise and enjoy the right. Without his adjudication no person can establish his right, and obtain the evidence of the right and authority to exercise and enjoy it. And, with his adjudication, persons are invested with the privilege of the franchise, and the right to exercise and enjoy it. It is an adjudication upon a right, and a decision declaring its existence, and awarding its enjoyment. Without, and until such adjudication, the privilege of the franchise has no practical existence to the person, and with such adjudication the applicant is invested with the privilege and the authority to exercise it.
>
> The functions and powers, then, of the commissioner, are of a judicial nature; and his office is an office of a judicial nature; and his decisions are of a judicial nature; and his decision in favor of an applicant is an adjudication of a right; and the certificate issued to the applicant is in the nature of a judicial award, declaring, evidencing, and establishing the right.

After a thorough discussion of the subject in all its bearings, the conclusions reached by the court were expressed as follows:

> The form and plan of the constitution of the State, expressed in the whole and in the parts, declare, organize, and establish a system and form of government, popular, elective, republican, wherein sovereignty is in the electoral body of the people. This is expressed in and by the clauses which delegate, reserve, restrain, and distribute the powers of government among the several departments and officers, for the purpose of maintaining and enforcing checks and balances upon the several functionaries, and so securing the liberties and rights of the people, and a popular, elective, and republican form of government.
>
> The statute which empowers the Governor, in his discretion, practically and effectually to abrogate the right to vote, of any and every qualified citizen of the State, and at any time and all elections, is repugnant to that portion of the Constitution which is expressly ordained to secure to the people the right to elect officers of the government.
>
> The statute which practically and effectually empowers the Governor to determine who of the qualified citizens shall vote and who shall not, and who shall elect and who shall not elect the officers of the government, himself included, is repugnant to that portion of the organic frame of the government which was ordained to establish and maintain a republican form of government.
>
> The statute which empowers the Governor practically and effectually to divest any and every qualified voter his right to vote, not only once, but from time to time and without end, is repugnant to those provisions of the organic law which are ordained to invest the courts with judicial power, and to exclude the Executive Department of the government from the exercise of such power.
>
> For these reasons the court is constrained to hold that the statute which confers on the Governor the power to set aside and annul the registration of a county, in whole or in part, is unconstitutional and void.

By this decision the elective franchise was restored to many thousands of citizens, whose registration and privilege of voting had been annulled by Executive proclamation.

The Legislature assembled at Nashville on the 4th of October, and proceeded without delay to the consideration of important measures. This body was composed of 20 Democrats and 5 Republicans in the Senate, and 66 Democrats and 17 Republicans in the House, showing a Democratic majority of 15 in the Senate and 49 in the House. Intimations having been made that there was a party in the General Assembly that favored repudiation of a portion of the State debt, the following resolutions, intended to restore full confidence in the public faith, were introduced into the Senate and unanimously adopted under a suspension of the rules:

> *Whereas*, Previous legislation on the part of those who have heretofore controlled the State government, in pledging the public faith by the issuance of State bonds, has tended greatly to impair the public credit and impart distrust to the minds of many as to the ultimate payment of our public debt; and
>
> *Whereas*, A people who, in all their history, have shown scrupulous fidelity, commercial and otherwise, to private obligations, must consider justice to all public creditors as essential to the honor and dignity of the State: therefore,
>
> *Resolved by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee*, That the people of Tennessee will never signalize their restoration to the control of public affairs by sanctioning in any manner indifference to public obligations.
>
> *Resolved*, That expediency, together with the honor and good faith of the State, demands that the interest on the public debt be paid at the earliest practicable moment, and its principal securely provided for at maturity; and to these ends, under a careful retrenchment and rigid economy in all other respects, the en-

tire available revenues and resources of the State should be faithfully applied, as they in honor are pledged.

Resolutions were also passed requesting Congress to remove from the citizens of the State the political disabilities imposed by the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution. When the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution came up for consideration in the House, the proposition to ratify it was rejected by a vote of 57 to 12.

Among the reasons advanced in the majority report of the Committee on Federal Relations for its rejection were the following:

"It is class legislation of the most odious character. It singles out the colored race as its special wards and favorites, and upon them it confers its immunity, bestows its bounty, confers its affection, and seals its love.

"It is inexpedient, because it will become a bone of contention in all future time, and the subject of ceaseless agitation in the halls of Congress and before the people. One Congress will think our mode of legislation 'appropriate,' and another Congress will think a different mode 'appropriate' to enforce said fifteenth amendment. It leads inevitably to a concession of all sovereign power to the legislative branch of the Federal Government, and consequently is destructive of the rights of States, and tends to consolidation and despotism."

Considerable attention was attracted by the contest which occurred at this session for the election of United States Senator for the term of six years from the 4th of March, 1871, for which position ex-President Johnson was a candidate. His successful rival was Henry Cooper, a member of the State Senate, who, though a young man, had for many years held a prominent position in the public affairs of the State as an old-line Whig, a stanch supporter of the Union during the war, and subsequently a conservative in politics. Mr. Cooper had been appointed to the judiciary of the State by Andrew Johnson when Governor of Tennessee, and was the first to present the name of the ex-President for the senatorial honors which were subsequently conferred upon himself. The claims of Mr. Johnson were at first contested by the friends of Emerson Etheridge, who, after the withdrawal of the name of that gentleman, supported Mr. Cooper. The ballotings continued during four days, when on the last ballot 55 votes having been cast for Henry Cooper, and 51 for Andrew Johnson, the former was declared elected.

The most prominent question considered by the General Assembly at this session had reference to the calling of a constitutional convention, for the purpose of changing the organic law of the State. Various bills were introduced early in the session, having for their object certain changes in the constitution, by "striking out the present franchise law," by repealing the law requiring the test oath, passed May 3, 1866, and all other laws requiring test oaths in order to procure certificates to constitute persons electors, and to enable them to become candidates for office, and by "making such amendments to the constitution of the State as will secure equal taxation to all the people—the last provision having reference to levying a poll-tax upon colored citizens." In lieu of all other bills and resolutions a bill was reported by the Judiciary Committee of the House, the leading features of which were the following:

A Bill to authorize the people to call a Convention, and for other purposes.

Whereas, According to section one, article one, of the Declaration of Rights, all power is inherent in the people, and all free governments are founded on their authority and instituted for their peace, safety, and happiness; and

Whereas, It is declared that, for the advancement of these ends, the people have at all times an inalienable and indefeasible right to alter, reform, or abolish the government in such manner as they may think proper; and

Whereas, In the opinion of this General Assembly, the public exigencies do now demand the exercise of these inherent and reserved powers on the part of the people of the State: therefore

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, That the citizens of the State, entitled to vote for members of the General Assembly, are hereby athorized to assemble on the —— day of ——, 1869, at the several places of holding elections in their several counties, and vote for or against calling a convention to amend, revise, or form and make a new constitution for the State.

SECTION 2. *Be it further enacted*, That, in submitting the question of a convention to the people, they shall have written or printed on their ballots the words "*Convention*," or "*No Convention*," and if the number of votes cast for a convention be greater than the vote cast against a convention, then there shall be a convention.

SEC. 3. *Be it further enacted*, That an election for delegates to a convention of the people of the State shall be held in the several counties thereof, at the same time and places, and that said election shall be held at all the precincts and voting-places established by law, and shall be managed and conducted by the Commissioners of Registration and other proper officers of the counties respectively, in the same manner and under the same rules, regulations, and restrictions, that members of the General Assembly are now elected. And it is hereby declared to be the duty of the Governor to issue his proclamation to the several Commissioners of Registration of the State, at least thirty days before the time appointed for holding said election, requiring them to hold and conduct the same as herein provided. The said Commissioners of Registration shall advertise the time and places as in cases of members of the General Assembly.

SEC. 4. *Be it further enacted*, That the whole number of delegates elected to said convention shall be one hundred, and that each one of the twenty-five senatorial districts shall each compose a district and elect each one delegate to said convention.

SEC. 5. *Be it further enacted*, That each one of the representative districts, as established by the apportionment act of 19th February, 1852, shall constitute a district, and elect and send to said convention exactly the same number of delegates that they have representatives in the General Assembly by said act of apportionment.

SEC. 6. *Be it further enacted*, That each one of the electoral districts, as established by said act of apportionment, shall constitute a district, and elect and send to said convention each one delegate.

SEC. 7. *Be it further enacted*, That the votes of the several senatorial, representative, and electoral districts shall be compared at the several places where the votes for members of the General Assembly were compared in the last August election.

SEC. 8. *Be it further enacted*, That no person shall be eligible to a seat in said convention who is not twenty-one years of age, and who has not been a citizen of the State for twelve months, and of the county and district from which he is elected six months immediately preceding the election.

SEC. 9. *Be it further enacted*, That all laws requiring test-oaths to enable persons to become candidates for office, or requiring judges and clerks of elections to take said oaths, shall not apply to the election under this act.

The first section of this bill, which excluded from a participation in the convention that class of citizens who were disfranchised, was the subject of a protracted and animated discussion. It was contended, by those opposing this feature of the bill, that the call for a convention should come from the people, who were the true source of power, and that there is no power, either in the Legislature or the constitution, to prescribe as to who shall vote, when it is agreed that a convention of the people shall be held. This inherent right of the people to call a convention was guaranteed by the constitution, and had never been surrendered; nor was it subject to legislative control. It was further claimed that the franchise law had never been recognized as a part of the constitution by any legal tribunal, and that the Legislature had full power to repeal any of its provisions.

On the other hand it was argued that the franchise law was part of the constitution, and could not be changed by mere legislative action; that "the people had a right to assemble and elect delegates to a convention for the purpose of altering, or abolishing, the State government only by and with the assent of the existing State government, given by the Legislature;" and that only those were competent to unite in the call for such a convention, who were vested by the constitution with the right of suffrage. The prevailing sentiment of the House was in favor of allowing the disfranchised class to vote on the call for the convention, and the first section of the bill was amended so as to read as follows:

Be it enacted by the General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, That every male person not convicted and rendered infamous for crime, of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States and a citizen of the county where he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election, is hereby authorized to assemble on the third Saturday in December, 1869, at the several places of holding elections in their several counties, and vote for or against calling a convention to amend, revise, or form and make a new constitution for the State, and no certificate or other qualification than the foregoing shall be required by the judges holding said election.

When the bill came before the Senate for consideration, a minority report of the Judiciary Committee was presented in favor of submitting to a popular vote, including the disfranchised class, the following amendments to the constitution:

ARTICLE I., *Sec.* 1. That every male person, not indicted and rendered infamous for crime, of the age of twenty-one years, being a citizen of the United States, and of the county where he may offer his vote six months next preceding the day of election, shall be entitled to vote for members of the General Assembly and other civil officers for the county or district in which he resides.

ARTICLE II., *Sec.* 1. The General Assembly of the State of Tennessee shall have power to grant reprieves and pardons in all cases of conviction under impeachment, two-thirds of both Houses concurring therein.

This proposition not meeting with the approval of the Senate, the following amendment to the House bill was adopted, but on a subsequent reconsideration of the vote was rejected:

Be it further enacted, That said delegates when assembled in convention shall only amend the constitution of the State as it now exists, in so far as the same has reference to the qualification of voters, to the judiciary, and to the regulation of taxables and towns and formation of new counties, and on these and cognate subjects they are clothed with full power; but all the other articles and provisions of the constitution of the State, as contained in the constitution of 1834, except so far as they relate to the former condition of slavery, shall be preserved, and not amended, altered, or changed in any way whatever by said delegates.

The convention bill, having been amended by fixing the number of delegates at seventy-five, passed both branches of the General Assembly. It is made the duty of the Governor, if a majority of those voting be in favor of a convention, "immediately to issue his proclamation announcing the result, and said convention shall convene in the city of Nashville, on the second Monday in January, 1870." It is also provided that the constitution or form of government which said convention may adopt shall not be of any binding force or efficacy until the same has been submitted to and ratified by the people of the State in such manner and in such time as the convention shall provide.

At the election held on the 18th of December, 50,520 votes were cast for, and 10,020 against the convention; accordingly, that body assembled on the 10th of January, 1870.

The receipts into the Treasury for the year ending September 30, 1869, amounted to $2,842,209.06, and the expenditures to $2,834,348.54, leaving a balance of $29,209.54 in the Treasury on the 1st of October.

The total debt of Tennessee is stated at $39,264,244.55, and is classified as follows:

STATE DEBT PROPER:	
Turnpike	$1,223,856 66
Bank of Tennessee	1,000,000 00
Railroads	410,250 00
Hermitage Purchase	48,000 00
State Capitol	658,000 00
Total	$3,344,606 66
Funded interest	735,553 00
Total	$4,080,159 66

RAILROAD DEBT:

State bonds loaned	$26,412,000
Bonds indorsed by the State	2,196,000
Funded interest	3,213,046
Interest to July 1, 1866	2,306,477
Total	$34,127,523

In addition to which the State has loaned to turnpike-roads $545,000 in bonds, and has assumed claims of the United States against the Edgefield and Kentucky Railroad, and the Memphis and Clarksville Railroad, amounting in the aggregate to $511,560.24. The estimated receipts into the Treasury for the fiscal year ending October 1, 1870, are stated at $1,555,382, and the expenditures, including the interest on $18,099,000 bonds, at $1,500,000, indicating an excess of receipts over expenditures amounting to $55,382. In referring to the finances of the State in his last message to the Legislature, Governor Senter said:

With a return, under economy, to our average annual expenditures preceding the war, in State government proper, so saving about $400,000; with largely-increased revenues from polls, by universal enfranchisement; with all causes for State Guards and other extraordinary expenses by the State forever removed, I trust; and with confidence and satisfaction in the hearts of the people at such results, I feel thoroughly convinced the small deficit in our revenues, needed to enable prompt resumption of interest payments on our public debt and, at the same time, provide a sinking fund adequate to discharge it at maturity, can be easily supplied by your wisdom, without in the least discontenting the people by undue taxation.

TERRITORIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The number of organized Territories is nine, viz., Arizona, Colorado, Dakota, Idaho, Montana, New Mexico, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming. Besides these, there is the Unorganized Indian Territory, and the District of Columbia. The vast tract purchased from Russia, known as Alaska, has been annexed as a county to Washington Territory, by the Forty-first Congress, at its session 1869–'70. The opening of the Union and Central Pacific Railroads in 1869, the energetic prosecution of work on the Northern Pacific, and the progress made on the Kansas Pacific and Southern Pacific, have greatly stimulated emigration to the Territories, and it will not be long before three or four of them will be asking admission to the sisterhood of States. The exploration of the Colorado River by Captain Powell and his party in the summer of 1869, elsewhere described (*see* GEOGRAPHICAL EXPLORATIONS), has thrown much light on the geological structure, climate, soil, and capabilities, of the extraordinary region through which that river cuts its way. The agriculture and mineral productions, especially of gold, silver, iron, lead, and coal, of the Territories, are in process of rapid development, and although in Dakota, Montana, New Mexico, Arizona, and some sections of Idaho and Wyoming, there are some Indian troubles, the measures taken by the Government, and the progress of the railroads, will speedily remove these.

Arizona.—This Territory lies between the 31st and 37th parallels of latitude, and the 32d and 38th meridians west from Washington. It has Utah on the north, New Mexico on the east, Mexico on the south, and California and Nevada on the west. Its area is estimated at 130,800 square miles. The Colorado River and its affluents drain the northern and northwestern portions of the Territory, and the main stream forms the greater part of its western boundary. The southern and southeastern portions are drained by the Gila and its tributaries. The greater part of the Territory is an elevated plateau, from 3,000 to 8,000 feet above the sea-level, with occasional bluffs, and volcanic cones, rising from 500 to 2,500 feet above the plateau. These lofty table-lands are riven almost to the sea-level by the cañons of the Colorado, and its affluents, the Grand, Green, Colorado, Chiquito, and San Juan Rivers, and in the south and southeast by the more open valleys of the Gila and its branches. Much of it is dry and parched for the want of water, rain seldom falling, and being drained rapidly into the river cañons. There are, however, abundant evidences that it was, five or six hundred years ago, a fertile and populous country, with numerous walled towns, and a considerable degree of civilization. It is believed by the settlers that, by means of artesian wells and irrigation, its fertility can be restored, and it can again become densely inhabited. Its mineral wealth is very great, and during the year 1869 many rich lodes were opened. In those portions of the Territory where irrigation can be practised, or where, as in the valley of the Gila, there is sufficient moisture, the crops are excellent, and the cereals yield abundantly. The Territory had raised nearly all the grain consumed there, including a supply for the half-dozen United States forts within its limits. Fruit-raising has been very successful wherever it was tried. The Apache Indians are troublesome, but the other tribes are generally friendly. There was during the year a considerable increase in the number of new settlements, and the value of taxable property was increased about twenty-five per cent. As no portion of the Territory has yet been surveyed by the Government, the settlers can only preëmpt their land.

Colorado.—Area, 105,675 square miles. Population estimated at 110,000 in 1869. Capital, Central City. Governor, General Edw. McCook. The Territory has nineteen counties, viz.: Larimer, Weld, Boulder, Arapahoe, Douglas, Jefferson, Gilpin, Clear Creek, Summit, Park, Lake, Saguache, Conejos, Costilla, Huerfano, Las Animas, Fremont, Puebla, and El Paso. The Kansas Pacific Railroad, eastern division, is in rapid progress to Denver, and arrangements have been entered into between that road and the Denver Pacific Railroad, by which they are to prosecute their enterprises together, and unite their rolling-stock for the working of their several roads. They have also in progress

a railroad to Georgetown, in Clear Creek County, and others surveyed from Denver to Santa Fé, New Mexico, to South Park, and the Rio Grande, with a branch to the head of the Arkansas River, to Pueblo and the south line of Colorado, with a branch to Cañon City, and a branch road to Boulder. The yield of bullion in 1869 was a little more than $5,000,000. The gold and silver ores of Colorado are more refractory than most of the ores of the Pacific coast, but when the precious metals are extracted the yield is very large, averaging from $300 to $600 per ton. New processes have been devised for reducing the ores more readily, and less expensively, and the results are already very encouraging. Coal is abundant and of excellent quality, and there is no reason to fear any future scarcity. Iron, copper, and lead, abound, and the mines of each are becoming better known and developed. In its agricultural productions Colorado is happily disappointing those who have regarded it as a part of the Great American Desert. It has not less than 6,000,000 acres which can be supplied with water by irrigation, and thus irrigated yield enormous crops. Of course with its present sparse population but a small portion of these arable lands is yet under cultivation, but the crops of 1869 were stated by Mr. W. R. Thomas, at the anniversary of the Colorado Agricultural Society, to have been in round numbers 675,000 bushels of wheat, 600,000 bushels of corn, 550,000 bushels of oats and barley, 350,000 bushels of potatoes and other root crops, and, adding to these the hay and dairy products, the aggregate market value of the agricultural crops of the year was above $3,500,000. Wheat averages 28 to 30 bushels per acre; oats and barley 35 bushels, corn 40 bushels, and potatoes 100 bushels. Colorado is said to be the best grazing country in the United States. Neat-cattle can be raised to the age of five years at a total cost not exceeding $10, or $2 per annum. The natural grass of the Territory is remarkably nutritious and fattening, and there is no occasion for housing the cattle, as the climate is so mild that they can graze the year round. All the expense of stock-raising consists in the hiring of a few herdsmen, and the gathering of a small quantity of hay for occasional feeding during the extreme cold which occurs in some winters. Wool-growing is equally profitable and easy. The natural increase of sheep and goats in these pasture-lands is 100 per cent. per annum, and of neat-cattle about 80 per cent. Over 1,000,000 pounds of wool were shipped from Colorado to the East in 1869. Dairy products are also becoming abundant, and are of excellent quality. The Territory supplies the demand of its own population for them and is beginning to export them to some extent.

Dakota.—This Territory has on the north the British possessions, on the east Minnesota and Iowa, on the south Nebraska, and on the west Montana and Wyoming. Its area is 150,931 square miles, and a population of about 60,000 whites and civilized Indians, and not far from 25,000 Indians of the Sioux and other wild tribes. Capital, Yankton. Governor, J. A. Burbank. The surface of Dakota is generally elevated, but not mountainous. Traversing the eastern portion for several hundred miles is a plateau called the Couteau des Prairies, having an average elevation of 1,500 feet above the sea, with a breadth of from 15 to 20 miles, while a similar table-land of less height, the Couteau du Missouri, extends from the southeastern to the northwestern portion, and westward nearly to the Missouri River. The basin of the Red River of the North, and that portion east of the Dakota River, are covered with grassy plains, with but slight irregularities to break the uniformity of their appearance. The remaining portion of the Territory, mostly west of the Missouri River, consists of high-rolling prairie. The soil of the eastern and southern parts is excellent and well adapted to the cultivation of the cereals, and root crops, and to stock-raising. Almost the entire Territory is well watered, and the western and northwestern parts contain fine grazing-lands, as well as some adapted to the growth of the smaller grains. The "Bad Lands" (*Mauvaises Terres*) in the southwest, and the high gravelly land between the Missouri and Dakota Rivers, are the only poor soils in the Territory. The Missouri, with it numerous affluents, traverses the Territory almost centrally, and the Red River of the North, with its southern tributaries, drains the northern portion. The Missouri has eight large, and numerous smaller, affluents within the Territory. In the eastern part are many lakes, six or seven of them of considerable size. The Territory abounds in mineral wealth. Gold, silver, iron, copper, and coal, are known to exist in considerable quantities in the Black Hills in the southwest, and in 1868 and 1869 valuable lodes of both gold and silver were discovered in that section, and considerable immigration ensued. In the southeast, in the neighborhood of the Big Sioux River, coal of good quality has been discovered, while the southern portion has quarries of building-stone, and limestone, and beds of excellent clay for brick. In the north, near Devil's Lake, there are rich deposits of salt. The Territory would be rapidly settled, if immigrants could be satisfied that the wily and treacherous Sioux would remain quiet; but their presence and their hostile disposition are serious drawbacks on its growth and prosperity.

Idaho.—Area, 86,294 square miles (a small tract having been set off to Wyoming in 1868). Population, about 30,000. Capital, Boise City. Governor, D. W. Ballard. The whole Territory is highland, and portions of it mountainous, varying in elevation from 2,000 to 5,000 feet above the sea. The climate on the uplands is severer than that of Utah or Nevada, but the sheltered valleys of its numerous streams have a mild, equable, and delightful climate. The

Territory is copiously watered, the Clearwater, Salmon, Snake, and Boise Rivers, and their numerous tributaries, furnishing an abundant supply of pure water, from their sources in the perpetual snows of the Bitter-Root and Rocky Mountain summits. Yet, except on its northeast and east border, where the rain and snow fall, on the western slope of the Rocky Mountains, is considerable, Idaho belongs to the *dry* regions, the annual rainfall not being more than one-fourth that of the Atlantic States. Yet, such is the depth of the soil in the valleys, and such its facilities for successful irrigation, that the crops can be depended upon with as much certainty as in countries of greater rainfall. The cereals, fruits, and root crops, do well in the valleys, and the remainder of the Territory is well adapted to grazing, and wool-growing is likely to be largely profitable. It is estimated that there are not less than 3,000,000 acres of land so situated that irrigation is practicable, a considerable district where it is not generally necessary, and at least 30,000,000 acres of good grazing-lands. In mineral wealth it is probably not inferior to any of the Territories, with the possible exception of Arizona. Its yield of gold in 1869 exceeded $8,000,000, mostly from quartz lodes, the placers which first attracted attention having, in many cases, become exhausted. The Northern Pacific Railroad, now in course of construction, will prove of immense benefit to Northern Idaho, while the branch railroad from Ogden, on the Union Pacific, which is to connect with the Northern Pacific in Oregon, will pass through the Boise Basin, the rich mining-district of Southern Idaho. Iron-ore of superior quality, and excellent coal, are found in close proximity, and Idaho will probably eventually furnish much of the iron for rails, machinery, and building, which will be required in the States on the Pacific slope. As yet the lands of the Territory, over 55,000,000 acres, have not been brought into market, the surveys not having been completed. The settlers have generally preëmpted their claims.

Montana.—Area, 143,776 square miles. Population in 1869, 50,000. Capital, Virginia City. Governor, James M. Ashley. The territory is bounded on the north by the British Possessions, on the east by Dakota, on the south mainly by Wyoming, on the west by Idaho. The Rocky Mountains, with their numerous spurs and ranges, occupy a tract in the western part of Montana 200 miles in width and 320 miles in length from north to south, with summits rising from 2,000 to 14,000 feet in height, many of them covered with perpetual snow. The eastern part of the Territory consists chiefly of rolling and elevated table-lands, while the western has, nestling among its mountains, many beautiful and fertile valleys. The Missouri and Yellowstone, with their numerous affluents, drain the portion east of the watershed of the Rocky Mountains, and discharge their waters into the Gulf of Mexico, while the highlands west of the water-shed are drained by the Clarke's Fork and Kootenay Rivers and their tributaries into the Columbia River and the Pacific Ocean. The Territory is therefore well watered, and has a much greater rainfall than Idaho. Its climate is diversified. In the more protected valleys, and in the basin of Clarke's Fork, as well as in the southern portion generally, it is pleasant and salubrious, snow seldom falling, and cattle grazing throughout the year. On the more elevated lands it is colder, and the climate approximates to that of Northern New England. The mineral wealth of the Territory is very great. From 1862 to 1867, both inclusive, the aggregate product of gold and silver from its mines and placers was $72,100,000. In 1868 there was $8,640,000 of gold and silver refined and run into bars in the Territory, besides the ores and crude gold and dust sent out. The product in 1869 is estimated at over $9,000,000. The principal gold-bearing regions are four or five in number, at considerable distances from each other, on the Hell-Gate River, the Big-Hole Creek, and other tributaries of the Madison and Jefferson rivers, on the Missouri, from the junction of the Three Forks to the mouth of Smith's or Deep River, and on the branches of the Yellowstone east of Helena. Silver is found in most of these localities, and also in four or five others, where it is not combined with either gold or copper. There are also extensive deposits of copper and lead. Bituminous coal is abundant, and lignite exists in great quantities on the Yellowstone and Missouri, and the northern tributaries of the latter. Iron, gypsum, plumbago, arsenic, antimony, tellurium, tin, and cinnabar, have been met with. There are hot springs and geysers in numerous localities, but principally about the head-waters of the Madison.

The Surveyor-General estimates that more than 30,000,000 acres, or one-third of the area of the Territory, is susceptible of profitable cultivation, with the aid of occasional irrigation. The assessed value of real and personal property in 1868 was $9,400,000. The Indians are troublesome in the eastern section, but have done little mischief in the southern and western part of the Territory. At the election in 1869, James M. Cavanagh, Democrat, was elected delegate to Congress, receiving 1,860 majority in a total vote of 9,350. The Council was entirely Democratic; the House had twenty-one Democrats to three Republicans. There are eleven organized counties in the Territory.

New Mexico.—Area, 121,201 square miles. Population in 1869, about 100,000, of which about 25,000 are Indians. Capital, Santa Fé. Governor, William A. Pile. There are 18 counties, viz.: Bernalillo, Colfax, Dona Ana, Grant, Lincoln, Mora, Rio Arriba, Santa Ana, Santa Fé, San Miguel, Socorro, Taos, and Valencia. At the election in 1869, J. Francisco

Chaves, of Santa Fé, Republican, was elected delegate to Congress by a majority of 1,921, in a total vote of 14,467. The Council consisted of ten Republicans and three Democrats, and the House of Representatives of twenty Republicans and six Democrats.

The surface of New Mexico, like that of Arizona, consists of immense elevated plateaus, from which rise occasional bluffs and rounded mountain-summits, often giving evidence of past volcanic action. Through these plateaus the rivers and streams have, during long periods of time, worn deep channels and furrowed out valleys, often of picturesque beauty and great fertility. The rivers of New Mexico have not generally such deep and dark cañons as those of Arizona; the river valleys are generally narrow, but very fertile. The principal rivers of the Territory are the Rio Grande, a river strongly resembling the Nile in many particulars; the Pecos, the Canadian, an affluent of the Arkansas, and the San Juan and Gila, tributaries of the Colorado. The climate is dry, rather warm, but exceedingly healthful, and admirably adapted for the growth of the cereals, which, under the thorough irrigation practised there, yield immense crops. It is also an excellent country for stock-raising, its grama-grass and mesquit-grass furnishing nutritious food for cattle and sheep, and fattening them rapidly. The infrequency of rain and the mildness of the temperature are great advantages, as it is not necessary to house the stock at any season of the year. Experienced viniculturists pronounce it the best region in the world for the cultivation of the grape for wine. The Apache and Camanche Indians, by their constant depredations upon stock, render the business of stock-raising more precarious; but it is to be hoped that this hinderance to the growth of the Territory will ere long be obviated. The Pueblo or village Indians are a quiet, peaceful race, of considerable civilization. The Navajos, though nomadic, are not troublesome. The mineral wealth of the Territory is as yet very imperfectly developed; but there can be no doubt that it is exceedingly rich in gold and silver ores, which can be easily and cheaply reduced. There are also copper, iron, coal, cinnabar, and zinc.

Utah.—Area, 84,476 square miles. Population, in 1869, 120,000. Capital, Great Salt Lake City. Governor, J. Wilson Shaffer. The Territory is intersected by the Wasatch Mountains, which divide it into two unequal parts, that west of the range being the smaller, and included within the "Great Basin," while the eastern division forms part of the basin drained by the Colorado of the West. The "Great Basin" has no known outlet for the waters which flow down the mountains, and its lakes, which are numerous, are mostly either brackish or salt. Lake Utah, having the river Jordan for its outlet, is an exception, its waters being pure, sweet, and abounding in fish. The general elevation of the valleys and lakes is from 4,000 to 6,000 feet above the sea. The mountain-ranges traversing its surface rise from 2,000 to 7,000 feet above the valleys, the highest peaks being perpetually snow-clad. The lands of the "Great Basin" are generally sterile, for want of moisture, though when irrigated they yield very large crops. The region east of the Wasatch Mountains is a better soil, furnishing excellent grazing-lands, and where irrigated yielding large crops of cereals. Fruits generally succeed remarkably well. There are numerous mineral springs, of various kinds. There are, probably, gold and silver in the foothills of the Wasatch range, and lodes have been discovered near Great Salt Lake City; but the policy of the Mormon leader has been to discourage mining, and hence it has received no development. During the past year a branch of the Union Pacific Railway has been in progress from Ogden to Salt Lake City, and the junction of the Union Pacific and Central Pacific has been effected within the bounds of Utah, at Ogden. The great influx of people from all quarters into the Territory, consequent upon the completion of the great railway, and an uprising of a considerable body of malcontents against Brigham Young, the head of the Mormon Church, have created considerable excitement among the people of Utah, and may eventually lead to the breaking up of this extraordinary community, or to the departure of its leader to some other secluded and desert region.

Washington.—Area, 69,994 square miles. Population, in 1869, estimated 40,000. Capital, Olympia. Governor, E. S. Salomon. At the election for delegate to Congress in 1869, Selucius Garfield, Republican, was chosen, receiving 148 majority in a total vote of 5,338. The Legislature had 5 Republicans to 4 Democrats in the Council, and 16 Republicans to 14 Democrats in the House. The Territory is divided into two unequal parts by the Cascade range of mountains, the eastern division, including the great basin of the Columbia, embracing an area of 40,000 square miles, and a general altitude of from 1,000 to 2,000 feet above the sea. It is drained by the Columbia River and its tributaries, these tributaries often flowing through cañons with perpendicular walls from 500 to 2,000 feet in height. The western portion, extending from the summit of the Cascades to the Pacific Ocean, is divided into three basins, the Columbia, the Chehalis, and Puget Sound, and embraces an aggregate area of 28,000 square miles. The climate of the eastern section is generally clear and cold in winter, hot and dry in summer, resembling in temperature that of Southern Ohio and Pennsylvania. It is chiefly a grazing region, the bunch-grass affording excellent food for cattle. Much of it is also well adapted to the growth of cereals and root crops. The snow falls early, and usually lies till spring. In the western section there are two seasons—the wet and dry. The temperature is very mild

for so high a latitude, the difference in mean temperature between summer and winter in Puget Sound being only 24 degrees. The rivers of the west coast abound in fine salmon, cod, and halibut. The real and personal property of the Territory is assessed at a little more than ten million dollars. Gold is found in Stevens County, in the northern part of the Territory, on Clark's Fork of the Columbia and its tributaries, and silver near the coast in Pacific County, in the southwest part of the Territory. Coal is found, of excellent quality and in large quantities, at several points. Iron and other minerals abound. The leading exports of Eastern Washington are live stock, gold, wheat, and flour; of Western Washington, lumber, coal, salmon and other fish, piles and spars.

Wyoming.—Area, 97,883 square miles. Population, in 1869, estimated at 60,000. Capital, Cheyenne. Governor, J. A. Campbell. The Territory was organized in 1868, and held its first election September 2, 1869. For delegate to Congress, S. F. Nuckolls, Democrat, was elected, having 1,336 majority in a total vote of 5,266. The Legislative Council has nine members, and the House of Representatives thirteen. Both are unanimously Democratic. The Territory had five counties—Albany, Carbon, Carter, Laramie, and one not named at the time of the election. To Wyoming more than to any other Territory or State of the Union the title of "The Heart of the Continent" may be appropriately applied. Situated between the 41st and the 45th parallels of north latitude, and between the 27th and 34th degrees of west longitude from Washington, traversed in its whole breadth by the Union Pacific Railway, and soon to be connected by railroad lines with Idaho, Montana, and Colorado, with a soil of remarkable fertility, well adapted to all the crops of the temperate zone, and to the rearing of stock with the greatest facility, rich in the precious metals, which only require development to equal the abundant yield of the Territories north and south of it, and still more rich in its vast coal-beds, its excellent iron-ores, its silver, copper, lead, and its petroleum-wells, with a market at hand for all it can produce from its mines, its fields, its herds, the new Territory enters upon its organized existence under favorable auspices. There were in May, 1869, in the northern part of the Territory (the Wind River Valley) some troubles with the Indians, but these are not likely to be repeated, as the United States troops are specially watchful in that region, and the locality is not so favorable as some others for Indian raids.

TEXAS. The great event of 1869 in Texas was the work of reconstruction in accordance with the provisions of the acts of Congress, known as the "Reconstruction Acts," to the end that she might be recognized and admitted as a State into the Union again, and, as such, participate, through her representatives, in the administration of the Federal Government.

An election having previously been held and delegates chosen to sit in a convention, for the purpose of framing a new State constitution, the Assembly met at Austin on the 15th of June, 1868, and the session was long and stormy, though the delegates were almost all Republicans, the Democrats numbering only about ten. But the Republican members themselves composing that body were not of one mind. A great, seemingly irreconcilable, contrariety of sentiments on substantial points manifested itself among them from the beginning, and time served only to increase it.

The chief subjects of discord between these two sections were the white citizens of the State who had favored secession, and the extent of the State. Texas now measures about 220,000 square miles, which is nearly equal to five times the area of the State of New York. The "Radicals" insisted on disfranchising some thirty thousand whites—all those, in fact, who had been in any way connected with secession; they insisted also upon dismembering Texas, and dividing it into several States, so that the organic law, in course of formation, should be moulded for the use of that one only among the projected States within whose boundary they would continue to reside. On both these subjects the Conservatives met and firmly opposed the "Radicals," contending that the white citizens who had taken part in the secession movement should now be enfranchised, and that the State should remain, in regard to its area, as at present, and be governed by the provisions of the new constitution.

These two sections of the Republican party had about an equal number of adherents among the delegates in the convention, and, as neither would yield to the other, the result was an open disruption, when they formed themselves into two opposite parties. Each division had also its leader, the Radicals being headed by Edmund E. Davis, who was also the president of the convention; the Conservatives by A. J. Hamilton, formerly Governor of the State, in 1865–1866, and now one of the Associate Justices of the Supreme Court, who exercised, perhaps, a greater influence on a large portion of the assembly than the president.

This split, on the other hand, gave strength and importance to the few Democratic delegates, who, on account of their number, must have otherwise been quite insignificant. They could, indeed, neither originate nor carry a measure calculated to give expression to their principles or promote their interests; but they were enabled to hinder the passage of extreme measures proposed against them by adding their weight to that portion of their adversaries who were less inimical.

By a letter dated February 4, 1869, Major-General Canby, commanding the Fifth Military District, informed the Secretary of War

at Washington that "the convention had completed the work of forming a constitution for Texas," and that this instrument "would be submitted to the people some time in July." This time had been suggested by himself, because of the somewhat unsettled condition of the State, which he describes as follows: "In thirty counties there is no civil organization that is in relation with the Executive department of the State; in some of the counties there is none whatever; in others it is partial, while in others it is understood to be complete, but the county officers have refused to recognize the Secretary of State or to make any reports to him. Some counties are so remote, and so difficult are the means of communication, that it takes from twenty-five to forty days to send to them and to receive an answer. In many other counties the county organization is still very imperfect, and in my judgment it will take at least ninety days to complete the civil organization throughout the State. The registrars of election having been discharged last fall, there are no original lists on file. Measures have been taken, however, to collect the original records, and to reorganize the *personnel* of the registration. Although the condition of the State has materially improved since the November election, and appears to be improving constantly, there are still some sections in which the authority of the United States and of the State is openly defied, if not resisted, and the civil authority is indifferent or powerless, while the military force stationed there is too small to make itself respected." He concludes: "The arrangement of the troops now being made will, I hope, cure the evil; but, until that be done, and the machinery for the registration of voters and holding elections be established, a fair and free election, as contemplated by the fifth section of the law of March 23, 1867, cannot be secured."

To his letter the general appends one addressed to him by Mr. Davis, president of the Constitutional Convention, who stated that "the convention had passed a resolve for the division of the State," and that "the division was supported by nine-tenths of the loyal people," concluding: "We earnestly believe that this measure will finally disperse and demoralize the disloyal element, and give us a separation of the State which will bring us the rest, peace, and prosperity, which we have for so many years been striving to secure."

Those who were for dividing the State had previously held the "Republican State Convention of Texas," in which they adopted the following preamble and resolutions:

Whereas, The extent of territory of the State of Texas, the conflicting interests of the widely-separated sections of the State, and the disorganization so widely prevalent, render a division of the State essential to the proper well-being of the people thereof, and the establishment of law and order: therefore, be it

Resolved, That, in the opinion of this convention, the State of Texas ought to be subdivided into States of more convenient size.

Resolved, That the President of this convention is hereby directed to forward a copy of this preamble and resolutions to the Speaker of the House of Representatives and President of the Senate of the United States.

Resolved, That for the purpose of giving the Congress of the United States a correct report of the condition of the State, and to bring to the attention of that body all such matters relating to the condition of the State, and the wants of her loyal people, as may require the consideration and action of Congress, the convention shall proceed to elect by ballot, for commissioners, members of this convention, one of whom shall be a resident of that portion of Texas lying north of the thirty-second parallel of latitude, one a resident of that portion of the State lying east of the Trinity river, and south of said thirty-second parallel, one a resident of that portion of the State lying between the Trinity and Colorado Rivers, and south of said thirty-second parallel, and one a resident of that portion of the State lying west of the Colorado River, and two commissioners from the State at large, who, being intimately acquainted with the wants of their respective sections of the State, shall proceed to Washington City to bring to the attention of the United States all such matters relating to the condition of this State, and the wants of her loyal people, as in the judgment of this convention or of said commissioners require the consideration of Congress.

They also caused these commissioners to be voted for in the Constitutional Convention, and sent to Washington, at an expenditure of $1,000 of State money for each commissioner, the president of the convention being one among the chosen six.

At the time when General Canby wrote the above letter to the Secretary of War, the work of forming a constitution for Texas seems not to have been completed, since, upon the convention being adjourned, which was subsequently done in disorder, he sought to take possession of its disjoined records and papers, and assumed to himself, with the coöperation of his assistants, military and civil, the task of examining what the convention had done, and reducing it to the form of a constitution. The *Weekly Texas State Gazette*, of February 13, 1869, published the following account of the time and manner in which the convention was adjourned, as well as of some of its proceedings; and its statements have been confirmed by subsequent events, even by the confession of the actors themselves. It says: "The reconstruction convention was adjourned *sine die* on Saturday evening last, at about 8 o'clock, by its president, General Davis, a quorum of its members not being present. Its records, such as they were, went into the possession and care of the military commander, through his assistant adjutant-general, who was present and received them. The closing hours of the convention were worthy of its long and stormy existence, and were distinguished by so much and varied wrangling and cross-purposes, that it would be impossible, if desirable, to give the details thereof. A brief statement of general causes which have, from the begin-

ning, led to confusion and disorder, may not be amiss." * * * It further says:

After the divisionists had succeeded so far as to appoint six of their number to go on to Washington and represent their views at an expense of $6,000 to the State, a majority of the convention proceeded to complete a constitution for the whole State. Not liking the provision on suffrage, which was finally adopted, the *ab initio* and division portion commenced doing their utmost to break up the convention, beginning to leave, and preventing the orderly conclusion of the whole business. * * * The last quarrel was over the printing, the president's faction being determined to prevent its being given to the Republican office, in which they succeeded by breaking up a quorum. Their plan was to give the control of the printing to the Washington committee, who were to take every thing on to the North, and have the printing done there, which would have been a disgraceful proceeding for themselves and the State. Finally, the whole matter ended by the military taking possession, and we believe that General Canby will fix up matters as well as they can be arranged under the state of confusion and disorder in which the convention left them. We have heard it reported that the general will appoint one of each wing of the Republicans, together with a military officer, to inspect and determine what the convention really did do; and thus, after a while, we shall be enabled to know what has been done, and then the people of Texas can begin to consider what they ought to do in the premises. General Canby, an unprejudiced party, will be able to perform all the ministerial duties left undone by the turbulent body which has, at last, dispersed. We have full confidence that the military commander will act for the best under all the circumstances.

In its issue of February 20th, the same paper says: "We understand, through the energy of General Canby and his assistants, military and civil, the constitution has been put in proper shape, and will shortly be published. We trust, on the whole, it may be found such a one as the people of Texas may accept with honor and safety."

Some two weeks later, the constitution was published in pamphlet form, and circulated among the citizens. It was also generally printed, or commented upon, in the newspapers throughout the State, so that the people at large might easily acquire a knowledge of its contents. Its preamble and first section were as follows:

PREAMBLE.—We, the people of Texas, acknowledging with gratitude the grace of God, in permitting us to make a choice of our form of government, do hereby ordain and establish this constitution:

ARTICLE I.—*Bill of Rights.* That the heresies of nullification and secession, which brought the country to grief, may be eliminated from future political discussion; that public order may be restored, private property and human life protected; and the great principles of liberty and equality secured to us and our posterity: we declare that—

SECTION 1. The Constitution of the United States, and the laws and treaties made, and to be made, in pursuance thereof, are acknowledged to be the supreme law; that this constitution is framed in harmony with, and in subordination thereto; and that the fundamental principles embodied herein can only be changed, subject to Federal authority.

Concerning the right of suffrage, Article VI. ordains thus: "Every male citizen of the United States, of the age of twenty-one years and upward, not laboring under the disabilities named by this constitution, without distinction of race, color, or previous condition, who shall be a resident of this State at the time of the adoption of this constitution, or who shall thereafter reside in this State one year, and in the county in which he offers to vote sixty days next preceding any election, shall be entitled to vote, etc. Persons disfranchised, of unsound mind, and criminals, are excepted.

The oath of office is to be as follows:

SECTION 1. Members of the Legislature, and all officers, before they enter upon the duties of their offices, shall take the following oath or affirmation: "I (A.B.) do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will faithfully and impartially discharge and perform all duties incumbent on me as ——, according to the best of my skill and ability, and that I will support the Constitution and laws of the United States and of this State. And I do further swear (or affirm) that since the acceptance of this constitution by the Congress of the United States, I, being a citizen of this State, have not fought a duel with deadly weapons, or committed an assault upon any person with deadly weapons, or sent or accepted a challenge to fight a duel with deadly weapons, or acted as second in fighting a duel, or knowingly aided or assisted any one thus offending, either within this State or out of it; that I am not disqualified from holding office under the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States (or, as the case may be, my disability to hold office under the fourteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States has been removed by act of Congress); and further, that I am a qualified elector in this State.

The Ordinance of Secession made by the State of Texas in 1861, and all her subsequent acts relating thereto, the new constitution expressly declares, in Article XII., to have been null and void from the beginning, with some limitations, especially as they may affect claims acquired by private parties.

The new constitution makes important provision for the education of youth in Texas. Having created the office of a Superintendent of Public Instruction, and defined the duties of that officer, it earnestly enjoins the Legislature to establish and perfect a general system of public schools, and enforce strict compliance with its regulations; it also provides, for their maintenance and progress, ample means from various sources.

The State being as yet very thinly inhabited, the framers of the new constitution, with a view to increase her population and thus promote the development of her vast resources, made provisions which seem well calculated to invite and draw settlers from abroad, as follows, namely:

SECTION 1. There shall be a Bureau, known as the "Bureau of Immigration," which shall have supervision and control of all matters connected with immigration. The head of this Bureau shall be styled the "Superintendent of Immigration." He shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. He shall hold his office for four years, and, until otherwise fixed by law, shall receive an annual compensation of $2,000. He shall have such further powers and duties, connected with immigration, as may be given by law.

SEC. 2. The Legislature shall have power to appropriate part of the ordinary revenue of the State, for the purpose of promoting and protecting immigration. Such appropriations shall be devoted to defraying the expenses of this Bureau, to the support of agencies in foreign seaports, or seaports of the United States, and to the payment, in part, or *in toto*, of the passage of immigrants from Europe to this State, and their transportation within this State.

Powerful inducements to settlers are also the ordinances set down in Article X., reserving the lands of the State with whatever minerals found beneath their surface, for gratuitous distribution among them, as follows:

SECTION 6. The Legislature shall not hereafter grant lands to any person or persons, nor shall any certificates for land be sold at the Land-Office, except to actual settlers upon the same, and in lots not exceeding 160 acres.

SEC. 8. To every head of a family, who has not a homestead, there shall be donated 160 acres of land, out of the public domain, upon the condition that he will select, locate, and occupy the same for three years, and pay the office fees on the same. To all single men, twenty-one years of age, there shall be donated 80 acres of land, out of the public domain, upon the same terms and conditions as are imposed upon the head of a family.

But more, perhaps, than other inducements, the section which secures to the citizen the possession and use of his property, by exempting it to a liberal amount from attachment and sale for all common debts, will both attract people from abroad, and fix them there.

The convention appended two acts to the constitution: the one distributing the counties of the States into four Congressional districts, the other assigning the first Monday and next following days of July, 1869, as the time in which the people should be called out to vote for the ratification or rejection of the new constitution, as well as for the election of Senators and Representatives in the Legislature, of all State, district, and county officers, and of members of the United States Congress; and the second Monday of September, 1869, in which "the members of the Legislature elected under this act should assemble at the capitol in the city of Austin.

Soon after the Constitutional Convention had been adjourned, its president, Edmund J. Davis, with the other five commissioners, representing the State-division and white-disfranchisement party, proceeded to Washington, where they endeavored to persuade Congress and the Administration that the new constitution should be set aside, and they themselves, with their adherents in Texas, empowered to mould another, embodying the realization of those views. In this they failed, however. A. J. Hamilton, with other Republicans, followed them and showed the character and provisions of the constitution to be just and expedient; so that the conflict which had been carried on for so long a time between these two Republican sections at the convention-hall in Texas was in a manner fought over again in Washington with no less ardor, and the same result. But, though the radicals failed to accomplish the chief purpose of their mission, they did so far succeed as to render the conservative Republicans suspected of having entered into a coalition with the Democrats and secessionists of Texas, and get themselves the credit of representing the only Republican party existing in that State. They succeeded also in obtaining the postponement of the general election for the ratification or rejection of the new constitution, which had been fixed for the first Monday in July. It was postponed by the President on the 30th day of November, as appears from the following proclamation:

In pursuance of the provisions of the act of Congress approved April 10, 1869, I hereby designate Tuesday, the 30th day of November, 1869, as the time for submitting the constitution adopted by the convention which met in Austin, Texas, on the 15th day of June, 1868, to the voters of said State, registered at the date of such submission, viz.:

I direct the vote to be taken upon the said constitution in the following manner, viz.: Each voter favoring the ratification of the constitution as adopted by the convention of the 15th of June, 1868, shall express his judgment by voting "For the Constitution." Each voter favoring the rejection of the constitution shall express his judgment by voting "Against the Constitution."

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the United States to be affixed.

Done at the city of Washington, this fifteenth day of July, in the year of our Lord one thousand eight hundred and sixty-nine, and of the independence of the United States the ninety-fourth.

U. S. GRANT.

By the President:
HAMILTON FISH, Secretary of State.

Meantime, the Radicals, having failed in the attempt to prevent the new constitution from being framed and adopted by the convention in Texas, and in the further attempt of causing it to be repudiated in Washington, resolved publicly to announce their acceptance of it and run candidates for State officers to be elected under its provisions, with Edmund J. Davis for Governor. The Conservatives, to whose exertions that instrument in its present form owes its existence, naturally offered their candidates for State officers to be chosen at the same election, with A. J. Hamilton for Governor; whereupon the two Republican sections engaged in a hot contest, which found its expression in meetings, conventions, and speeches, throughout the State.

By order of the Army Headquarters at Washington, issued on April 10, 1869, Brevet Major-General J. J. Reynolds had been appointed to the command of the Fifth Military District again, and returned to Texas. In a letter to the President of the United States, dated September 4, 1869, the general represents the relative positions and doings of those two Republican sections from the beginning, as follows:

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT,
STATE OF TEXAS, *September* 4, 1869.

To the President of the United States:

MY DEAR GENERAL: After your summer recreation, I have determined to add to your fall labors a few words on the political situation in Texas.

You will remember that about the 4th of March last there were present in Washington two delegations of Texans, both claiming to be representatives of *the* Republican party of Texas. One of these delegations, headed by General E. J. Davis, was appointed by the Constitutional Convention; the other delegation, headed by General A. J. Hamilton, was self-appointed.

Pursuing the policy which I had decided upon in October, 1867, upon my arrival in Austin, of always endeavoring to produce harmony among all classes of Republicans, I declined to permit myself to be identified specifically with either faction, but frankly told their leaders (E. J. Davis and A. J. Hamilton) that I would recommend for office men of both factions, who, I was satisfied, would make good officers. The Federal appointments were pretty evenly divided between the two factions, much to my gratification, as I still hoped to see harmony brought about.

The Radicals (E. J. Davis wing) charged, while in Washington, that the Conservative Republicans (A. J. Hamilton wing) had entered into a coalition with the Democrats of the State to support A. J. Hamilton for Governor, and in turn to be permitted by him, if elected, to exert their influence with the new State government. I then offered to denounce this coalition to you on the production of satisfactory evidence that it existed. The evidence was not produced. I said nothing on the subject, returned to Texas, and I have endeavored to keep myself well informed on all questions of public interest, and especially those affecting the reconstruction of the State.

I travelled from New Orleans to Galveston with Judge J. H. Bell, who is one of the leading men in the A. J. Hamilton faction. He is an ex-Confederate judge. In conversation about Texas politics, I urged upon Judge Bell that all Republicans should attend the convention that had been called by the Radicals to meet at Galveston on the 10th of May, and there to harmonize, bring out their candidates, and cement the party in the State. He emphatically opposed such action. The same course of conduct was pursued by A. J. Hamilton, Governor Pease, Colonel Haynes, and all the leading men of that wing.

The convention met in Galveston on the 10th of May, and, without transacting much business, adjourned to meet in Houston on the 7th of June.

At this last convention, E. J. Davis was nominated for Governor. A. J. Hamilton, Pease, Bell, Haynes, Langley, and many other Conservative Republicans, were in Houston at this time, but took no part in the proceedings of the convention. I am assured by parties in whom I place reliance, that overtures were made at this convention by the Radicals, and rejected by the Conservatives.

A ticket, with A. J. Hamilton for Governor and E. J. Davis for Lieutenant-Governor, might have been nominated then and there, and would have produced harmony in the Republican party, but for the persistent opposition of the A. J. Hamilton (Conservative) faction.

This convention might have been larger, or another one held, but for the same opposition, and to-day the only organized Republican party in Texas is that headed by E. J. Davis.

The Conservative faction have opposed all organized concert of action in the Republican party. It is believed that the reason for this action is found in the fact that, although the Democrats will not openly affiliate with the Conservative Republicans, many Democratic papers advocate the election of A. J. Hamilton for Governor. Some of them place his name at the head of their papers, others do not announce his name, but support him.

The Conservative Republicans who pretend, especially when in Washington, to stand on the reconstruction laws of Congress, nevertheless come right to Texas, and, in their district conventions, nominate men for office who cannot qualify according to these very laws. (Examples are Stribling, of San Antonio, for Congress, and McFarland, of Austin, for the State Senate.)

They denounce such men as General William T. Clarke, who was nominated to Congress by a convention, but not by A. J. Hamilton men.

No fault can be found with such men as William T. Clarke, whose military and civil record is without blemish. No reason can be given for any Republican to oppose such men as Clarke, unless, to be sure, they are included in the class that A. J. Hamilton has denounced from the stump and called carpet-baggers and scallawags.

The circumstances all considered, I am constrained to believe that the coalition which has been charged as existing between the Conservative, or A. J. Hamilton Republicans, and the Democrats (generally ex-rebels), does actually exist.

The platforms of the two wings of the Republican party are precisely the same. The Radical wing act out their professions of adherence to the reconstruction laws of Congress, and present for office men who are qualified under these laws.

The Conservative wing frequently nominate men for office who are known to be disqualified under the reconstruction laws, but who are also known to be acceptable to the Democrats.

The success of the A. J. Hamilton faction, as it will be produced by Democratic votes, will be the defeat of Republicanism in Texas, and will put the State in the hands of the very men who, during the entire period of the rebellion, exerted every nerve to destroy the Union, and who have uniformly opposed the reconstruction laws with a persistency worthy of a better cause.

This letter is already too long. Use it as you please.

Believe me, very truly yours,

J. J. REYNOLDS,
Brevet Major-General, U. S. A.

On publication, this letter was charged with partiality and untruth by both Democrats and Republicans. The Democrats disclaimed all intention to favor the election of such as could not take the test-oath, or were for any reason disqualified according to the requirements of the reconstruction law; they also disclaimed their connection with Republicans of any sort, though they would support those among their adversaries who cherished sentiments of moderation and impartiality to all. Nor was a large portion of the Republican party better satisfied with General Reynolds's letter. In consequence of the representations made by him to the President, that "the only organized Republican party in Texas was that headed by E. J. Davis," and of his belief that the A. J. Hamilton Republicans had actually entered into a coalition with the Democrats, and that their success "would be the defeat of Republicanism in Texas, and put the State into the hands of the very men who, during the entire period of secession, exerted every nerve to destroy the Union," the Administration at Washington seems to have entered into a system of removing from Federal offices the supporters of A. J. Hamilton, and filling them with favorers of E. J. Davis. This was generally complained of, as depriving the people of the freedom of suffrage, and forcing them to vote at dictation. On this account, and to clear himself of all suspicion of being an accomplice in this seeming persecution of Re-

publicans, Governor Pease sent his resignation to the military commander.

Among other removals, two seem worthy of special mention. In the latter part of October, 1869, William R. Fayle, Judge of the Criminal Court of Harris and Galveston Counties, was removed by order No. 249 of the military commander, on the ground that the judge had ordered the sheriff to summon a white jury for the trial of a particular case some time standing, in which the criminal was "accused of two of the gravest offences known to the law," but who appears to have had the power greatly to influence the result of the approaching election in favor of E. J. Davis. The fact that the order removing the judge was issued on the eve of the trial, and based on the mere personal representation of the criminal himself, asking not to be tried before Judge Fayle, with other rather strange circumstances concurring in this affair, are set down in detail by the judge in his letter to General Reynolds on the subject, dated October 26, where he cites, for the truth of his statements, the authentic records of the court, and other facts, concluding thus: "But, general, will not the peculiar circumstances under which that order was issued * * * fasten the conviction in the minds of all unprejudiced and thinking men that the real ground of interference *in this certain case*, by you, is not that there was any actual or intentional violation of the law on my part, but that there was an essential necessity to secure the acquittal of the mouth-piece of E. J. Davis's faction, lest his fair and rightful conviction should prove destructive to their prospects in the coming election, and very largely tend to undeceive the authorities at Washington as to the true condition of affairs in this State of Texas?" Even more remarkable, perhaps, than the removal just referred to, is that relating to Judge D. J. Baldwin, suspended from the office of District Attorney of the Federal Court, because he was a supporter of A. J. Hamilton. This elicited loud cries of indignation even from the judge's political adversaries, it being well known that he condemned secession from the beginning, and maintained his inviolate attachment to the Federal Union by word and deed ever afterward. On this account, he was arrested by General Magruder's orders, and confined, with others, in the jail at Anderson for many months, in continual apprehension of losing his life at the hands of the Confederate mob, who attempted to storm the place for that purpose, but were hindered from accomplishing it only by the firmness and courage of the men who guarded the place. To prevent the repetition of similar attempts, and, perhaps, to employ in other service the many men posted to guard the jail, General Magruder finally sent Mr. Baldwin and the other prisoners out of the Confederacy.

To provide for the manner of holding and conducting the general election at which the new constitution should be submitted to the people for ratification or rejection, when State and county officers, members of Congress and State Legislature, should also be elected, the military commander issued two months in advance the following order:

General Orders, No. 174.

HEADQUARTERS FIFTH MILITARY DISTRICT,
STATE OF TEXAS,
AUSTIN, TEXAS, *October* 1, 1869.

In compliance with the proclamation of the President of the United States, of the 15th day of July, 1869, and the reconstruction laws of Congress, it is ordered:

1. That an election be held at the county seat of each organized county in the State of Texas, commencing on Tuesday, the 30th day of November, 1869, and to continue during the first, second, and third days of December, 1869; at which election all registered voters may vote by ballot "For the Constitution," or "Against the Constitution."

An election will be held at the same time and place, for—

Four members of House of Representatives of United States Congress;

Also, for the following "elective officers, provided for by the said constitution," viz.:

Governor.
Lieutenant-Governor.
Comptroller of Public Accounts.
Treasurer of the State.
Commissioner of the General Land-Office.
Thirty Senators.
Ninety Representatives.

And for each county, one Clerk of the District Court, one Sheriff, and five Justices of the Peace.

Each registered voter, besides his vote on the constitution, may vote for Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Comptroller, Treasurer, Land-Office Commissioner, one member of the United States Congress, one State Senator and the number of Representatives apportioned to the district in which he resides, one Clerk of the District Court, and one Sheriff for his county, and one Justice of the Peace for the precinct in which he resides.

Where the Police Court of any county has not already divided the county into Justices' precincts, in accordance with General Orders, No. 27, from this headquarters, it will be done immediately. The Clerk of each County Court will furnish to the Board of Registrars, on or before the day of election, the boundaries of the Justices' precincts for the county.

There can be no election of District Attorneys until the Legislature shall have districted the State in compliance with the new constitution.

Residents of unorganized counties may register and vote in the counties by whose Boards they were registered in 1867.

2. Commencing fourteen days before the day of election, viz.: on Tuesday, the 16th day of November, the Board of Registrars will, for a period of ten days, not including Sunday, revise, at the county seat of each county, the registration list of the county, being governed by the reconstruction laws of Congress, as published in General Orders, No. 92, current series, from this Headquarters.

3. It shall be the duty of the Board during the revision of registration, upon the application of any duly-registered voter who has removed, or is about to remove, from the county in which he was originally registered, to furnish him with a certificate that he was so registered, and to note the fact and erase the applicant's name from the original list, forwarding a duplicate of the certificate to the Board for the county in which the applicant will vote; and, upon the presentation of said certificate at the place of registration of the county in which his new residence is situated, the Board of Registration for that county will enter

his name upon their rolls, indorsing the fact upon the certificate of the applicant.

4. All registrars, before entering upon the duties of their office, if they have not already done so, will take and subscribe the oath of office of July 2, 1862; and no payments will be made for services rendered until this oath is filed in the office of the Secretary for Civil Affairs for this military district.

5. To prevent the registration of any person not entitled to vote under the reconstruction laws, the Boards may select two white and two colored persons to challenge the right of any person to be registered at the revision, who, in the opinion of the persons challenging, is disqualified as a voter by reason of any of the causes set forth in said acts of Congress, and the Board shall examine and determine upon the right of such challenged person to register.

6. An applicant for registration, who is rejected by the Board, may appeal to the district commander. The Boards will not enter the name of such applicant, but a list of the names of those who appeal will be made out, with the reasons for rejection stated in full, and will be forwarded by mail, or in the most expeditious manner practicable, to district headquarters. A duplicate of this list will be retained with the registration records, to be disposed of as directed in paragraph sixteen of this order.

7. Boards of Registration are invested, while in performance of the duties of their office, with the power to summon witnesses and to compel their attendance to give evidence in cases of challenge, and to suppress disorder and preserve the peace. They are authorized to call upon the civil or military authorities for such aid as may be necessary.

8. The registrars for each county shall be managers of election for their respective counties, and shall appoint to assist them in holding the election two clerks, who shall take the oath prescribed by act of Congress of July 2, 1862.

9. The vote shall be by ballot. The ballot of each colored person will be marked "colored," by one of the managers of election, before being deposited in the ballot-box; but no other marks will be permitted to be placed upon it by the Board of Registrars. Each person, on presenting his ballot, will announce his name, and, if upon examination his name should be found on the list of registered voters for that county, his ballot will be received and his name will be entered upon the poll-list with a remark, showing whether he is white or colored. Blanks for poll-lists will be furnished, upon which the names of all persons voting will be entered.

10. When a person offers to vote whose name appears on the registry, and who is without a certificate of registration, or when the party tendering the ballot presents a certificate of registration unsupported by the registry, or when the certificate shows upon its face that it was issued in another county, he shall be subject to challenge on the ground of identity, or residence, or both. To prevent the confusion, excitement, and delay, which might arise from a multiplicity of challengers, the Board may select two registered voters to act as challengers at the polling-place. Challenges shall be received by the managers of election only through the appointed challengers, or a member of the Board. If the person challenged is known to either of the managers of election or one of the clerks, his vote shall be admitted at once. If he is not known, he must produce satisfactory evidence.

11. No person who is a candidate for office at said election shall be a registrar, manager of election, or clerk.

12. All places where intoxicating liquors are sold, at and in the vicinity of the county seats, will be closed from sunset on the evening of the 29th of November, and will remain closed until sunrise on the morning of the 4th of December; and the sale of intoxicating liquors at or near the polling-places is prohibited.

13. The sheriff of each county, with two deputies, will be required to be present at the revision of the registration-lists and during the period of holding the election, and they are required to obey in good faith all instructions from registrars relative to preserving order, and to see that paragraph *twelve* of this order is strictly enforced.

14. Boards of Registration will see that a full and fair opportunity is given for every man entitled to vote to have his name registered; and managers of election will in like manner do every thing that is required to secure a full and impartial expression of the wishes and opinions of the registered voters.

15. In case of disturbance at the polls, such as to obstruct the free and full exercise of the privilege of voting to any registered voters whatever, the Board will at once close the polls and make full report in the premises to the nearest post commander, who will take immediate action to arrest the offenders, and hold them in military custody until further orders. This election will not be resumed until so ordered from district headquarters.

16. Immediately upon the closing of the polls, the managers and clerks of election shall count the number of votes polled, and compare them with the separate poll-lists, and correct if possible any error that may exist. (The ballot-boxes will not, under any circumstances, be opened during the holding of the election.) The managers will then enter upon blanks, to be furnished, the summary of votes "for" and "against" the constitution, and the number of votes polled for each candidate for election to office, together with the designation of the office. This list will be made out in triplicate, and will be certified to, before an officer authorized to administer oaths, by all the managers and clerks of election: one copy to be forwarded by mail to the secretary for civil affairs at this headquarters; one copy to be retained by the president of the Board. The ballots shall then be placed in packages and securely sealed, and, together with the third copy of the lists of the result of the election, and all other papers and records, will be taken by the president of the Board to the post commander in whose post his county is situated, and turned over to him for safe-keeping.

17. The compensation for registrars, managers of election, and sheriffs, will be at the rate of six dollars per day for each day actually employed; they will also be allowed ten cents per mile in going from their homes to their stations, and in returning therefrom. The clerks and deputy-sheriffs will be allowed five dollars per day.

18. The sessions of the Boards of Registration and election shall be from 8 o'clock A. M. to 5 o'clock P. M. daily, excepting one hour, from 12 o'clock M. to 1 o'clock P. M.

19. The revision and election shall be held in the court-house of each county, if practicable.

20. If from any cause any of the registrars of a county fail to act, their places will be supplied, if it occurs before the time for holding the revision or election, by the post commander; if during this period, the vacancy will be supplied by the remaining registrars. The person selected must be able to qualify according to this order.

21. All communications regarding questions arising from registration should be addressed to the "Secretary for Civil Affairs" at this headquarters.

By command of Bv't Maj.-General REYNOLDS.
H. CLAY WOOD, Assistant-Adjutant-General.

The persons whom the commander subsequently selected to compose the Board of Registrars were pointed to as calculated to secure the election of the "Radical" ticket, they being well known as most declared partisans of Davis, whereas the practice had always been to have the contending parties equally represented by the members of the Board.

The Democrats, as a party, took no direct action in regard to this election. They held no State Convention, nor offered candidates for office. Their leading men and papers, however, earnestly urged every one to vote for the new constitution and for the election of those among the Republican candidates who professed sentiments of impartiality toward all citizens.

The result of the election appears from an order issued by the military commander on January 11, 1870, as follows:

VOTE ON THE CONSTITUTION.

Number of votes "For"	72,366
Number of votes "Against"	4,928
Majority for Constitution	67,438

The following-named persons having received a plurality of the votes cast, were declared elected to the positions designated:

Members of Congress.—First District, G. W. Whitmore; Second District, J. C. Connor; Third District, W. T. Clarke; Fourth District, E. Degener.

State Officers.—Governor, Edmund J. Davis; Lieutenant-Governor, J. W. Flanigan; Comptroller, A. Bledsoe; Treasurer, G. W. Honey; Land-Office Commissioner, Jacob Knechler.

The Legislature elected under the provisions of the new constitution seems to have a fair representation of all parties, "Democratic," "Conservative," and "Radical," the last-named apparently preponderating. They have been so classified in some papers as to make seventeen "Radical" and thirteen "Conservative" senators; though others contend that "several of those marked Radical were elected by Conservative votes;" in the Lower House, forty "Democrats" and "Conservatives," and fifty "Radicals." Among the members of the legislative body there are ten negroes; two in the Senate, eight in the House of Representatives.

With regard to the natural and social condition of Texas, it might be described as an immense country with vast resources of all sorts, and with very few inhabitants to render them available. The amount of her live-stock, especially of horned cattle, has become proverbial, it being almost countless; although the Indians and the Mexicans, separately or jointly, make their efforts to diminish it by stealing as much, and as frequently, as they dare.

Among the products raised upon its soil, including wheat and other cereals, cotton seems the principal. A correspondent, not a Texan, of the New York *Sun*, in a letter dated Houston, August 25, 1869, says: "Lands can be bought in Texas to-day at from $3 to $5 per acre, upon which can be annually raised a 500-pound bale of cotton per acre. The cotton crop last year brought about $20,000,000; the beeves and hides about $10,000,000; and the wool grown and exported amounted to about $5,000,000. It is thought by some that the cotton crop this year will amount to 300,000 bales, of 500 pounds each, which at to-day's price would bring $52,500,000. This, however, may be rather a large estimate." The cotton crop set down by its correspondent at $20,000,000, actually amounted to more than $30,000,000.

Railway communication is now much attended to, a large portion of the surplus money being generally invested in that interest. Several important lines are at present under construction within the State, which will be a great addition to those in actual operation. "The Houston and Texas Central Railroad will be running from Houston to Calvert on the 1st of September, 1869. This will extend communication by rail one hundred and eighty miles from the coast into the interior. The Memphis, El Paso, and Pacific, and the Vicksburg, Shreveport, and El Paso Railroads, as well as the Texas and New Orleans, and the Mexican Gulf and San Antonio Railroads, are now in process of construction; while there are three lines of steamships in successful operation between New York and Galveston, besides a number of sail-vessels." A branch of the Central Railroad is now being laid from Brenham to Austin, and the work is vigorously prosecuted, some four hundred and fifty hands being employed on it, over two hundred convicts among the number.

A great calamity befell portions of Texas in July, caused by the freshet in consequence of extraordinary rains of three days' continuance. The Guadalupe, Comal, Nevada, San Marcos, and Colorado Rivers, and Peach Creek, rose higher above their usual level than ever known before—even to the height of forty-seven feet eight inches. The adjacent lands on each side, to the distance of ten miles and more, were completely submerged, the crops and stores destroyed, and not only all the bridges and mills on the banks were swept away, but the cabins of the negroes and farm-houses, situated far inland, were overtopped and carried off by the flood. In the city of San Antonio itself, both of its bridges lay deep under water, and a large portion of the houses forming the town of La Grange, not to mention other places, when the waters had retired, was seen no more. Not a few human lives were lost by drowning. With regard to property of all kinds, the loss was incalculable. A few days after the high flood, when the waters subsided, the damage on the Colorado alone was estimated at three million dollars. A large number of farmers and workmen were thus reduced to absolute destitution.

On the general condition of Texas, a summary of General Reynolds's report for the year ending September 30, 1869, has been published, as follows:

The length of frontier line in this district to be protected against Indian incursions extends from the Red River to the Rio Grande, about 490 miles, and along the Rio Grande for about 816 miles—a total of 1,306 miles.

Indian raids during the year have been unusually bold, and, it is believed, commanded in most in-

stances by white men. Heavy damages to the citizens, in live-stock and property, have resulted, but the loss of life has been small, amounting to about twenty-six persons.

It will be impossible to prevent Indian raids as long as there are wild Indians not assigned to any defined territory, and protection to the frontier cannot be afforded with the force in the district, owing to the numerous demands made upon it in the execution of the reconstruction laws.

Voluntary county organizations of citizens have in some cases been authorized and proved effective in some localities, but in others the arrangement has not met with cordial response from the people.

It is recommended by General Reynolds that a line of telegraph be built connecting the posts between Red River and the Rio Grande at some convenient point, with Austin, San Antonio, or Waco. Such a line will afford prompt communication with frontier posts, and will effect concert of action. The expenses will be trifling compared with the advantages that may reasonably be expected.

Depredations in the country between the Nueces and Rio Grande, which is sparsely peopled and devoted chiefly to the raising of cattle, have been numerous. The offenders, Indians and Mexicans, generally come from the south side of the Rio Grande, and the stolen cattle are conveyed there for sale. Orders have accordingly been issued directing that the crossing of cattle shall be limited to specified points, but a sufficient time has not elapsed in which to test the efficiency of this regulation. The evil threatens to become one of such magnitude as to demand a reference to the Government of Mexico.

The ordinary civil machinery of the State has been in operation, aided, whenever necessary and practicable, by the military force of the United States. Improvement is apparent in the disposition of juries to punish for murder and other high crimes. Military aid has been furnished to civil authorities to suppress bands of desperadoes who infest the State.

Under the provisions of the joint resolution of February 18, 1869, many county offices were vacated. Efforts to fill the vacancies thus occasioned have, in many cases, been unsuccessful. Laxity in execution of laws and interference with the collection of State taxes have been caused by persons qualified being unwilling to accept office on account of the short duration of the term, and the fact that "appointees" are in most cases unpopular. The number of cases tried by military commission, under section 8 of the act of March, 1867, from October 1, 1868, to September 30, 1869, is fifty-nine, of which twenty-one were convicted, and thirty-eight acquitted.

The number of murders in the State from January 1, 1869, to September 30, 1869, was three hundred and eighty-four, and the number of crimes of this nature is steadily diminishing.

Quarantine regulations have been established, and an officer of the medical department detailed to supervise their observance. The State has been exempt from all epidemic disease.

TOUCEY, Isaac, LL. D., an American jurist, political leader, and Cabinet officer, born in Newtown, Fairfield County, Conn., November 5, 1796; died in Hartford, Conn., July 30, 1869. He was of a family distinguished for intellectual culture and refinement, and was early destined for the bar. His education was mostly a private one, though pursuing the full collegiate course of study. From 1810 to 1814 he was prosecuting his studies with a very accomplished teacher at Westport, Conn., and for nearly three years more he was engaged in teaching the classics and mathematics, and thus fixing indelibly in his mind what he had previously acquired. In 1817 he commenced a course of legal study under Judge Chapman of the Supreme Court, who resided in his native town; and, in 1818, he was admitted to the bar, at Hartford, which thenceforward became his home. He soon attained a high rank in his profession, though surrounded by some of the ablest lawyers in New England. In 1822 he was appointed State Attorney for Hartford County, and retained the position till 1835. In the spring of 1835 he was elected to Congress from the First Connecticut District, and in 1837 was reëlected by a handsome majority. His two terms of service covered the period of the great financial panic of 1837, and, true to his earliest convictions, Mr. Toucey sustained the measures of the Executive (General Jackson during his first term and Mr. Van Buren during his second). A man of calm, thoughtful, judicial cast of mind, he wielded a powerful influence in the House of Representatives. He was chairman of the special committee on the Graves and Cilley duel, and his report on the subject, concluding with a resolution for the expulsion of Graves and the censure of the seconds, was fully approved by the best men of both parties in the House. In 1839 Mr. Toucey returned to the practice of his profession; was again appointed State Attorney in 1842, and held the office till 1844. In 1845 he was nominated for Governor of Connecticut; there was no election by the people, and the Whigs, having a majority in the Legislature, elected their candidate. The next year he was again put in nomination, and, as before, there was no election by the people, but, the Democrats having a majority in the Legislature, Mr. Toucey was chosen. His course in regard to a proposed prohibitory liquor law, and the question of a bridge over the Connecticut at Middletown, was used to prevent his nomination the next year, as he had foreseen would be the case. In 1848 President Polk nominated him for Attorney-General of the United States. He accepted and served in this capacity till the close of Mr. Polk's Administration, being also, for a part of the time, acting-Secretary of State. He added, while in this position, to his already high reputation as a jurist. In 1850, a year after his return home, he was elected a State Senator, and in 1852 a member of the Assembly from Hartford. There was an unfilled United States senatorship at this time, and Mr. Toucey was elected to serve out the five years of it. He took his seat immediately after receiving his credentials, and though during that period he was for but little of the time the representative of a majority of the people of his State, yet his course in the Senate was dignified, and never specially offensive to his political opponents. His term expired March 4, 1857, and Mr. Buchanan at once offered him a seat in his Cabinet as Secretary of the Navy, which he accepted, and held till March 4, 1861. As a member of the Cabinet and one of the constitutional counsellors of the President, his opinions were always

characterized by a judicial deliberation and coolness, and usually by sound judgment. He was never impetuous or violent, never rash or hasty. It should be said, in justice to his memory, that the two charges persistently made against him while in this position, that he deliberately sent away the vessels of the Navy to distant seas, to prevent their use in suppressing secession at its commencement, and that he favored and aided it, had very little foundation in truth. It was proved before the "Committee on the Conduct of the War," that in the summer and autumn of 1860 the number of vessels on the Home Squadron was larger than for many years, and that the dispatch of some of the best ships of that squadron to foreign stations, late in 1860, was only a necessary change, in accordance with all previous precedent. We have his own distinct avowal that in the Cabinet from first to last he opposed secession, believing that it was entirely inadmissible under the Constitution. But, though as a jurist he held this view, it cannot be denied that his personal sympathies were with the South, and opposed to the war. He returned to Hartford in March, 1861, and thenceforward seldom appeared in public, devoting himself to the duties of his profession, and to literary studies, in which he always took delight. In private life Mr. Toucey was remarkable for his dignified courtesy, his hospitality, and his general amiability. His manners were refined, and no political strife or controversy ever caused him to neglect those social amenities which give so much of its charm to private life.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, UNITED STATES.—In the early part of the third session of the Colonial Congress, a resolve was passed, dated February 17, 1776, "that a standing committee of five be appointed for superintending the Treasury." On the first of April subsequent, it was resolved that "a Treasury Office of Accounts be instituted and established, and that such office be kept in the city or place where Congress shall from time to time be assembled and hold their sessions, and that the said office of accounts be under the direction and superintendence of the standing committee of the Treasury." On the 26th of September, 1778, Congress established the offices of Comptroller, Auditor, Treasurer, and two Chambers of Accounts, to consist of three commissioners each, all of whom were to be annually appointed by Congress. On the 11th of February, 1779, the office of "Secretary of the Treasury" was established, with a salary of $2,000, but without any designation of the duties of the office; this law lasted but a few months. July 30, 1779, an ordinance was passed "establishing a Board of Treasury and the proper offices for managing the finances of the United States," consisting of five commissioners for "the Board," an Auditor-General, and six (temporary) auditors of the army; this ordinance dropped the Secretary, but clothed the Auditor with his powers. On the 7th of February, 1781, it was resolved "that there be a Superintendent of Finance, a Secretary of War, and a Secretary of Marine." In the September following, "the functions and appointments of the Commissioners of the Treasury, Chamber of Accounts, Auditor-General, auditors, and extra commissioners of accounts, their assistants, under-officers, and clerks" were ended, and a Comptroller, a Treasurer, a Register, auditors and clerks were appointed in their place. On the 28th of May, 1784, it was ordered "that a board, consisting of three commissioners to be appointed by Congress, be instituted to superintend the Treasury, and manage the affairs of the United States, which shall be styled "The Board of Treasury." And here ended the efforts to organize the Treasury during the Confederation.

In the first session of Congress under the Constitution, an act was passed dated September 2, 1789, "to establish the Treasury Department," which was thus organized: "There shall be a Department of Treasury, in which shall be the following officers, namely, a Secretary of the Treasury, to be deemed the head of the department, a Comptroller, an Auditor, a Treasurer, a Register, and an Assistant to the Secretary of the Treasury." That law has met with various modifications in the eighty years that have elapsed since its passage; it has been enlarged to meet the requirements of a growing nation; but so perfect is its theory, that its general provisions still remain the law of the land. Under it the following persons have been Secretaries of the Treasury:

Alexander Hamilton, of New York, appointed in 1789; Oliver Wolcott, Jr., of Connecticut, 1795; Samuel Dexter, of Massachusetts, 1800; Albert Gallatin, from Pennsylvania, 1801; G. W. Campbell, of Tennessee, 1814; A. J. Dallas, of Pennsylvania, 1814; W. H. Crawford, Georgia, 1816; Richard Rush, Pennsylvania, 1825; Samuel D. Ingham, Pennsylvania, 1829; Louis McLane, Delaware, 1831; W. J. Duane, Pennsylvania, 1833; Roger B. Taney, Maryland, 1833; Levi Woodbury, New Hampshire, 1834; Thomas Ewing, Ohio, 1841; Walter Forward, Pennsylvania, 1841; John C. Spencer, New York, 1843; George M. Bibb, Kentucky, 1844; R. J. Walker, Mississippi, 1845; W. M. Meredith, Pennsylvania, 1849; Thomas Corwin, Ohio, 1850; James Guthrie, Kentucky, 1853; Howell Cobb, Georgia, 1857; Philip F. Thomas, Maryland, 1860; John A. Dix, New York, 1861; Salmon P. Chase, Ohio, 1861; W. P. Fessenden, Maine, 1864; Hugh McCulloch, Indiana, 1865; and George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts, 1869.

The office of Assistant-Secretary, established in 1789, was abolished as early as May, 1793, Tench Coxe, of Pennsylvania, having been the only incumbent. The law was renewed sixty years later, and the following persons appointed under it: Charles B. Penrose, of Pennsylvania,

1849; A. A. Hall, Tennessee, 1849; W. L. Hodge, Louisiana, 1850; Peter G. Washington, District of Columbia, 1853; Philip Clayton, Georgia, 1857; George Harrington, District of Columbia, 1861; and J. F. Hartley, Maine, 1865. In 1864 an additional Assistant Secretary was authorized, and the place has been filled by Maunsell B. Field, of New York, 1864; William Eaton Chandler, New Hampshire, 1865; Edmund Cooper (for six months), Tennessee, 1867; and W. A. Richardson, 1869.

The Treasury Department, as now organized, is divided into eighteen Bureaus, of which ten have to do with the collection, safe-keeping, and distribution of the public moneys; eight with the Mint, statistics, coast survey, light-houses, etc. The Secretary has the appointment of about sixteen thousand employés, of whom over three thousand are in the Bureaus at Washington, five thousand in the various custom-houses and sub-Treasuries, and over seven thousand in the internal revenue service. About two-fifths of the officers of Government act under the direction of the Secretary. The collection of moneys is chiefly made through the Customs and Internal Revenue Bureaus; the distribution of them is under the charge of the two Comptrollers and the six Auditors. All claims for money must first pass the decision of an Auditor, then of a Comptroller. The Comptrollers decide all legal questions; their decisions overule the opinion of the Secretary himself; no moneys can be paid out, unless, in their judgment, authorized by law. They instruct the Auditors how to state accounts and correct the settlements; with them lies the ultimate power of control in the settlement of accounts. The Auditors examine and adjust all claims for payment, and certify their correctness to the Comptroller. The system of checks and balances in the settlement of accounts and management of moneys in the Treasury Department is as perfect as eighty years of financial experience can make it.

The office of the Treasurer of the United States is the highest in the Treasury under the Secretary. During the current year he has had at all times about one hundred and fifty million dollars in his hands for safe-keeping. It is his duty to receive and keep the moneys of the United States, and to disburse the same upon warrants drawn by the Secretary, examined by the Auditor, countersigned by the Comptroller, and recorded by the Register. Seven Assistant-Treasurers, at New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Charleston, New Orleans, St. Louis, and San Francisco, are his deputies to aid in the charge of the public funds. During the six years from 1862 to 1868 the Treasury has annually received and expended six billion five hundred million dollars a year. The following persons have been Treasurers of the United States: Samuel Meredith, 1789; Thomas T. Tucker, 1801; Michael Nourse (*ad interim*), 1828; William Clark, 1828; John Campbell, 1830; William Selden, 1840; John Sloane, 1850; Samuel Casey, 1853; W. C. Price, 1860; and Francis E. Spinner, 1861.

The First Comptroller revises the accounts settled by the First and Fifth Auditors, and the Commissioner of the Land-Office; these include all the civil accounts except those relating to customs and the postal service. The Second Comptroller revises the accounts settled by the Second, Third, and Fourth Auditors, which are exclusively naval and military. The Comptroller of the Currency is charged with the execution of all laws concerning the issue and regulation of the national currency.

The First Auditor examines all accounts accruing in the Treasury Department, and the salaries and contingent expenses of all the departments, including the salaries of the civil list, the construction of public buildings, the contingent expenses of Congress, the salaries of Government clerks, etc., etc. The Second Auditor, whose Bureau is the largest at Washington, audits all accounts relating to the pay of the army, the recruiting, hospital, and medical service, and the property account of officers. The Third Auditor examines the Quartermasters' accounts, and all such as relate to the subsistence of the army, pension-agents' accounts, and the claims of States and Territories for national military services. The Fourth Auditor supervises the expenses of the naval service exclusively. The Fifth Auditor examines and adjusts accounts connected with the diplomatic and internal revenue service; and the Auditor of the Treasury for the Post-Office Department, commonly called the Sixth Auditor, is both auditor and comptroller for all post-office work.

The Internal Revenue Bureau, established July 1, 1862, collects the moneys assessed for internal duties, stamps, licenses, etc. The Commissioner pays over daily to the Treasurer all public moneys which come into his possession. To facilitate the collection of these extensive revenues, the country is divided into two hundred and forty districts, each having its assessor and collector. In the fiscal year 1866, this Bureau collected and paid over more than three hundred and nine million dollars, a sum that considerably exceeded the entire revenue of Great Britain for that year, including customs, excise, stamps, property-tax, and postal receipts. By the acts of 1867 and 1868 considerable reductions have been made in the collections of this Bureau, but during the present year (1869) there have been paid into the Treasury from this source nearly one hundred and sixty million dollars.

The National Currency Bureau, established March 25, 1863, is charged with the execution of all laws respecting the issue and regulation of the national currency. The head of the Bureau is the Comptroller of the Currency. By this act, banking associations may be formed by any number of persons not less than five, with a capital of at least $100,000; in cities containing over 50,000 inhabitants, the cap-

ital must be at least $200,000, and in smaller places, by the approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, with a capital of not less than $50,000. Before commencing business, each association is required to deliver to the Treasurer of the United States registered bonds for not less than $30,000, nor less than one-third of the capital stock paid in. These bonds are held in security for notes to be issued by the bank, which must not exceed either the capital stock, or ninety per cent. of the bonds so transferred. By this law, all State banks were suspended, a currency provided that is equally good in all parts of the country, and the entire control of the currency of the nation placed in the hands of the Federal Government.

The first bank authorized under this act was established in July, 1863. In July, 1869, there were 1,619 banks in existence, with a capital of $422,000,000, with $295,000,000 of notes outstanding, and $587,000,000 of deposits.

The Registrar of the Treasury records the receipts and expenditures of the public moneys; the debts due to and from the United States; and superintends the issue of national bonds, and the examination and destruction of Treasury-notes and fractional currency. Transcripts from the books of the Treasury, certified by him, and authenticated by the seal of the department, are received as evidence in all courts.

The Commissioner of Customs supervises the receipts from customs, and the accounts of collectors. The erection and repair of custom-houses, and the support of marine hospitals and light-houses, and the prevention of smuggling, are under his superintendence.

The Statistical Bureau is the youngest branch of the Treasury. It prepares monthly exhibits of statistics from all parts of the United States, and publishes tabular statements in regard to trade and industry, especially those connected with railroad returns, manufactures, and the material interests of the nation.

The Light-house Board, the Mint, the Coast-survey Office, the Supervising Architect's Office, and the Solicitor's Office, are Bureaus of the Treasury Department, but have no charge of the financial interests of the nation. Their sphere is indicated by their name.

Of the Treasury Department, as thus organized, the following were the receipts and expenditures for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1869.

RECEIPTS.

Customs	$180,048,426 63
Internal revenue	158,356,460 86
Lands	4,020,344 34
Direct tax	765,685 61
Miscellaneous	27,752,829 77
Total exclusive of loans	$370,943,747 21

EXPENDITURES.

Civil service and miscellaneous	$56,474,061 53
Pensions and Indians	35,519,544 84
War Department	78,501,990 61
Navy Department	20,000,757 97
Interest on the public debt	130,694,242 80
Premium on Treasury-notes	300,000 00
	$321,490,597 75

Showing receipts in excess of expenditures to the amount of $49,453,149.46.

When the successful termination of the Revolutionary War made the United States one of the nations of the earth, our domestic debt amounted to $42,000,000; our foreign debt, principally due to France and Holland, to nearly $12,000,000 more. Although this debt had mostly passed at a great sacrifice from the original owners into the hands of speculators, Hamilton advised its payment in full, and the further assumption of $25,000,000 of war debts incurred by the States. The proposition was at first defeated, but, by uniting this measure with one for establishing the capital of the nation on the borders of the Potomac, both were passed. Accordingly the Congress that assembled in New York, in January, 1790, funded the domestic debt, including $21,500,000 of State indebtedness, weighing the young nation down with a debt of $75,000,000. The outstanding continental money was redeemed at the rate of one dollar in specie for each hundred in paper. To meet the interest of this debt, a duty was laid, in 1790, on imported wines, spirits, and coffee, and subsequently on stills and domestic spirits. A duty of five per cent. was laid on sundry woollen manufactures, seven and a half per cent. on those of silk, cotton, and iron, ten per cent. on articles composed of gold, silver, pearls, or other precious stones: moderate duties were also laid on most other imported commodities.

The French Revolution began in the year of the adoption of the American Constitution. The consequent disturbance in Europe greatly increased the price of American productions, more than doubled our exports in seven years, and raised our tonnage from 490,000 tons to 1,033,000.

In February, 1791, a United States Bank was chartered, with a capital of $10,000,000, four-fifths to be taken by the people, one-fifth by the United States. In his next message, Washington congratulated the country on the rapidity with which its stock had been taken: "The rapid subscription to the United States Bank, which completed the sum allowed to be subscribed in a single day, is among the striking and pleasing evidences which present themselves, not only of confidence in the Government, but of resources in the community."

In April, 1792, a national mint was established at Philadelphia; the original act directed it to be kept wherever the seat of government should be located; but it has never been moved from Philadelphia.

In July, 1798, a direct tax of $2,000,000 was laid upon the people, the only tax of the kind prior to 1812. In 1799 a valuable tariff act was framed by the Secretary, Oliver Wolcot, Jr., and passed by Congress.

November 17, 1800, the Treasury Department, with its full corps of fifty clerks, was transferred from Philadelphia to Washington, and commenced its operations in a plain brick

building on the same spot the present Treasury building occupies.

In 1803 Louisiana was purchased from France for $15,000,000; yet so rapid was our financial growth, owing to the wars then pervading Europe, that this increase to our debt was wholly paid off within three years.

The War of 1812 necessitated loans to the amount of $70,478,209.73, and issues of Treasury-notes to the amount of $36,680,794. War taxes were imposed on sugar refined in this country, on distilled spirits, sales at auction, retailing wines and spirits, on pleasure-carriages, bank-notes, bills of exchange, imported salt, furniture, watches, and manufactures. Postal rates were increased fifty per cent. In 1814, two loans were advertised—one of them for $25,000,000—but the rate of discount was so great that the Government declined to negotiate. In August, 1814, the Treasury was burnt to the ground by the British, but most of the papers were saved.

In April, 1815, a new national bank was chartered for twenty years, with a capital of $35,000,000.

To meet the expenses of the war with Great Britain, a new tariff act was passed in 1816, fixing duties at from 7½ to 30 per cent *ad valorem*. This act remained in force till 1824. In 1828, a bill was enacted for the avowed purpose of protection, increasing the duties on cottons, woollens, etc. In July, 1832, the national debt being comparatively paid off, a low-scaled tariff was adopted. But in March, 1833, Mr. Clay's Compromise Bill was enacted, providing a graduated scale for reducing, till 1841, all duties over 20 per cent.

April 1, 1833, the Treasury building was again destroyed by fire, with many of its records and papers.

In December, 1835, the President's message announced that the national debt would be paid off at the close of that year, and a surplus of $19,000,000 would remain in the Treasury. A bill was accordingly passed directing the Secretary of the Treasury to deposit with the States, for safe keeping, all surplus funds over $5,000,000.

In July, 1840, the Treasury was divorced from the banks, and its funds were retained in its own keeping. Receivers of the public moneys were appointed in New York, Boston, Charleston, and St. Louis. In August, 1842, a strongly protective tariff was passed, raising the *ad valorem* duties 30, 50, and more, per cent. In 1846, three important acts were passed; the Independent Treasury, the warehousing, and a free-trade tariff, constructed by Robert J. Walker. The war with Mexico increased the national debt from $16,000,000 to $64,000,000.

In July, 1862, the Internal Revenue Bureau was created. In February, 1863, a national currency bill was passed, making banks National, and not State.

Prior to 1863, our national receipts mainly arose from customs. The sums received from the sale of lands varied greatly, from $21,877,179 in 1836, to $125,048 in 1862. Since 1863, large sums have been realized from internal revenue; but the history of our national finances may be best traced in the following table, exhibiting our exports, imports, expenditures, and debt, for each year since the commencement of Washington's presidency.

WASHINGTON'S ADMINISTRATION.

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Expenditures.	Debt.
1789.	.....	.....	.....	.....
1790.	$20,205,156	$23,000,000	.....	.....
1791.	19,012,041	29,200,000	$7,207,589	$75,463,476
1792.	20,753,096	31,500,000	9,141,569	77,227,924
1793.	26,109,572	31,000,000	7,529,575	80,352,634
1794.	33,026,283	34,600,000	9,309,124	78,427,400
1795.	47,989,472	69,756,268	10,405,069	80,747,587
1796.	67,064,097	81,436,164	8,367,776	83,762,172

JOHN ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

1797.	$56,850,205	$75,379,406	$8,626,012	$82,064,479
1798.	61,527,097	68,551,700	8,618,507	79,228,529
1799.	78,665,522	79,069,148	11,077,043	78,408,669
1800.	70,970,780	91,252,768	11,969,739	82,976,291

JEFFERSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

1801.	$94,115,925	$111,363,511	$12,273,376	$82,038,050
1802.	72,483,160	76,333,333	13,276,084	80,712,632
1803.	55,800,038	64,666,666	11,258,983	77,054,686
1804.	77,699,074	85,000,000	12,624,646	86,427,120
1805.	95,566,021	120,600,000	13,727,124	82,312,150
1806.	101,536,963	129,410,000	15,070,093	75,723,270
1807.	108,343,151	138,500,000	11,292,292	69,218,398
1808.	22,430,960	56,990,000	16,764,584	65,196,317

MADISON'S ADMINISTRATION.

1809.	$52,203,333	$59,400,000	$13,867,226	$57,023,192
1810.	66,657,970	85,406,009	13,319,986	53,178,217
1811.	61,316,883	53,400,000	13,601,808	48,005,587
1812.	38,527,236	77,030,000	22,279,121	45,209,737
1813.	27,855,927	22,005,000	39,190,520	55,962,827
1814.	6,927,441	12,965,000	38,028,230	81,487,846
1815.	52,557,753	113,041,274	39,582,493	99,833,660
1816.	81,920,452	147,103,000	48,244,495	127,334,933

MONROE'S ADMINISTRATION.

1817.	$87,671,560	$99,250,000	$40,877,646	$123,491,965
1818.	93,281,133	121,750,000	35,164,875	103,466,633
1819.	70,141,501	87,125,000	24,004,199	95,529,648
1820.	69,661,669	74,450,000	21,763,024	91,015,566
1821.	64,974,382	62,585,724	19,090,572	89,987,427
1822.	72,160,281	83,241,541	17,676,592	93,546,676
1823.	74,699,030	77,579,267	15,314,171	90,875,877
1824.	75,986,657	89,549,007	31,898,538	90,269,777

JOHN QUINCY ADAMS'S ADMINISTRATION.

1825.	$99,535,886	$96,340,075	$23,585,804	$83,788,432
1826.	77,595,329	84,974,477	24,103,396	81,054,059
1827.	82,324,727	79,484,068	22,656,764	73,987,357
1828.	72,264,686	88,509,824	25,459,479	67,475,043

JACKSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

1829.	$72,358,671	$74,492,527	$25,044,358	$58,421,413
1830.	73,849,508	70,876,920	24,585,281	48,565,406
1831.	81,310,583	103,191,124	30,038,446	39,124,191
1832.	87,176,943	101,029,266	34,356,698	24,322,235
1833.	90,140,443	108,118,311	24,257,298	7,001,032
1834.	104,336,973	126,521,333	24,601,982	4,760,081
1835.	121,693,577	149,895,742	27,573,141	351,289
1836.	128,663,040	189,980,035	30,934,664	291,089

VAN BUREN'S ADMINISTRATION.

1837.	$117,419,376	$140,989,217	$37,265,087	$1,878,223
1838.	108,486,616	113,717,404	39,455,438	4,857,660
1839.	121,088,416	162,092,132	37,614,936	11,983,737
1840.	132,085,986	107,641,519	28,226,553	5,125,077

HARRISON AND TYLER'S ADMINISTRATION.

Year.	Exports.	Imports.	Expenditure.	Debt.
1841.	$121,851,803	$127,946,177	$31,797,530	$5,737,398
1842	104,691,531	100,152,087	32,936,376	15,028,486
1843*	84,346,480	64,753,799	12,118,105	27,208,450
1844.	111,200,046	108,435,035	33,642,010	24,748,188
1845.	114,646,606	117,254,564	30,490,408	17,093,794

POLK'S ADMINISTRATION.

1846.	$113,488,516	$121,691,797	$27,632,282	$16,750,926
1847.	158,648,622	146,545,638	60,520,851	38,926,622
1848.	154,082,131	154,998,928	60,655,143	48,526,879
1849.	145,755,830	147,857,439	56,886,422	64,704,698

TAYLOR AND FILLMORE'S ADMINISTRATION.

1850.	$151,898,790	$178,138,318	$44,604,718	$64,228,228
1851.	218,388,011	216,224,982	48,476,104	62,560,395
1852.	209,658,866	212,945,442	46,712,608	65,130,692
1853.	280,976,157	267,978,647	54,577,061	67,340,626

PIERCE'S ADMINISTRATION.

1854.	$278,241,064	$304,562,381	$75,473,119	$47,242,206
1855.	275,156,846	261,468,520	66,164,775	39,969,781
1856.	326,964,908	314,639,943	72,726,341	30,968,900
1857.	362,960,608	360,890,141	71,274,587	29,060,386

BUCHANAN'S ADMINISTRATION.

1858.	$334,644,421	$282,613,150	$82,062,186	$44,910,777
1859.	356,789,461	338,768,130	83,673,643	58,754,699
1860.	400,122,296	362,162,541	77,055,125	64,769,703
1861.	342,971,277	286,598,135	85,387,313	90,867,828

LINCOLN'S ADMINISTRATION.

1862.	$329,933,985	$275,357,051	$570,841,700	$514,211,371
1863.	322,359,254	252,919,990	805,796,680	1,098,796,181
1864.	301,984,561	329,562,895	1,298,144,656	1,740,690,489
1865.	336,697,123	234,399,810	1,897,674,294	2,682,593,026

JOHNSON'S ADMINISTRATION.

1866.	$550,684,299	$445,512,158	$1,141,072,666	$2,783,425,879
1867.	438,577,312	411,782,309	1,093,079,655	2,692,199,215
1868.	454,301,713	378,409,448	1,069,889,970	2,636,230,964
1869.	413,954,615	437,314,255	584,777,966	2,489,200,484

The debt of the United States on the 1st day of January, 1870, was as follows:

Bearing interest in coin at 5 per cent		$231,599,300
" " 6 "		1,886,349,800
" in lawful money		59,545,000
On which interest has ceased		4,140,930
Demand and legal-tender notes		356,113,098
Fractional currency		39,763,664
Gold certificates		40,170,220
Interest accrued		50,463,490
Total		2,658,134,668
Coin	$109,159,476	
Currency	12,773,963	
Sinking fund	23,545,927	
Bonds purchased	64,908,350	
		209,387,716
Debt, less amount in Treasury		$2,448,746,952

TROPLONG, RAYMOND THEODORE, a French jurist, statesman, and publicist, born at St. Gaudens (Haute-Garonne), October 8, 1795; died in Paris, February 28, 1869. Of his childhood and youth we have no information, but shortly after the second Restoration he was admitted to the bar, and in 1819 entered the magistracy as a substitute in the Civil Tribunal of Alençon. He was soon after appointed King's Attorney, at Sartène, and about a year later deputy Attorney-General at Bastia. Here he married, and became after a time Advocate-General. In 1829 he was appointed to the same office at Nancy. Here he gained a high reputation by his learned and careful investigation of the territorial rights appertaining to the sovereignty of the Dukes of Lorraine. In 1833 M. Troplong was made President of the Court of Nancy; in 1834 he received the decoration of the Legion of Honor, and in 1835 was called to occupy a seat as Councillor in the Court of Cassation. This rapid promotion was due mainly to his very able treatises on legal topics, which had given him a high reputation throughout France. On the 4th of July, 1846, he was made a Peer of France, and two years later, on the death of Baron Seguier, First President of the Court of Paris; he was called to that high position by a decree dated December 22, 1848. His great abilities as a jurist did not escape the notice of Louis Napoleon; and a month after the *coup d'état*, January 25, 1852, he was made Senator. He was soon elected Vice-President, and, in 1854, President of the Senate, and on the 30th December, 1854, the Emperor conferred on him the Grand Cross of the Legion of Honor. In 1852 he succeeded M. Pourtales as First President of the Court of Cassation, and in 1858 was made a member of the Privy Council. As early as 1840 he had been elected (as successor to M. Daunou) a member of the French Academy of Moral and Political Science, in the section of legislation. He was also a member of the commission for the management of the Opera, and President of the Council-General of the Department of the Eure. M. Troplong's greatest work is "The Civil Code Explained," in 29 vols., 8vo (1833-'58), a continuation of "The Commentary on the Civil Code" of Toullier. Several of the treatises in this great work have been published separately, and have passed through numerous editions, particularly the following: "On Privileges and Mortgages," 4 vols., 8vo; "Of Sales," 2 vols.; "Of Prescriptive Rights," 2 vols.; "Of the Marriage Contract," 4 vols.; "Of Donations," 4 vols. Besides this great work, M. Troplong is the author of "The Influence of Christianity on the Civil Law of the Romans," 8vo, 1843; "Of the Power of the State over Education," 1844; "On Property," 1848; "The Armida of Gluck," 8vo, 1859; and numerous contributions to the reviews.

TURKEY, an empire in Europe, Asia, and Africa. Area, 1,917,472 square miles. The monarch of the Ottomans is usually known abroad as the Grand Sultan, and at home as the Padishah, but his true title is Khan, which, as in the case of pachas, beys, agas, and effendis, is appended to the name. The present sovereign is Abd-ul-Aziz-Khan, born February 9, 1830 (according to Turkish chronology, 15th of Chabaun, A. H. 1245). He is the thirty-second of the house of Osman, and the twenty-ninth who since the capture of Con-

* To June 30.

stantinople has held the throne. He succeeded his brother, Abd-ul-Medjid-Khan—the eldest male of the family taking succession, whether in a direct line or not—June 25, 1861. His children are Youssoff Izz-ed-Deen Effendi, born October 9, 1857, colonel in the army; Sultana Salihé, born August 10, 1862; Mahmoud-Djemil-ed-Deen, born November 20, 1862; Mechmed Selim, born October 8, 1866, and Abd-ul-Medjid, born June 27, 1868. His only sister, the Sultana Adile, born May 23, 1826, was married to the late Mehemet Ali Pacha, June 12, 1845; so that the present vassal ruler of Egypt is connected by family ties with his suzerain.

The high ministers of state are—1. Ali Pacha (March, 1868), Grand-Vizier, who has the title of Highness, and presides over the Council of State. 2. Hassan, Sheik-ul-Islam, or Mufti, who is chief of the Ulema, or legal and religious Council, and is the chief interpreter of the law. The Council of State is further made up of the following ministers, who are dependent upon the Grand-Vizier: Foreign Affairs, Ali Pacha; War, Hussein Pacha (1869); Finance, Sadyk Pacha (1869); Marine, Mahmoud Pacha; Commerce, Agriculture, and Public Hygiene, Cabouli Pacha; Police, Houssny Pacha; Justice, Mumtaz Effendi; Public Instruction, Safvet Pacha; Intendant of Mosques, Tefvid Effendi; Interior, Mehemed Ruchdi Pacha; Postmaster-General, Yaver Pacha; Comptroller of Public Debt, Kiani Pacha; Grand Marshal (vacant); Lieutenant-Governor of the Serdar-ekrem, Abd-ul-Kerim; and ministers without portfolio, Riza Pacha, Kybryslu Mehemed Pacha, Kiamil Pacha, and Mustapha Fazyl Pacha.

The Divan, or Council of State, comprises the superior and inferior clerical force, and embraces six ranks of functionaries. Besides the Divan there are special councils, such as Justice, War, Admiralty, etc. Since 1868, there has been a Council of State (Chourai-Devlet), charged with the preparation of laws, the discussion of the budget, etc., and divided into five sections—Administration, Finance, Justice, Instruction, and Commerce. It is composed of fifty members, Christians and Mussulmen, chosen by the Sultan, and the president is a member of the Cabinet.

The Ottoman empire is divided into general governments (*eyalets*), under the administration of governors-general (*valis*). These are again divided into provinces (*livas*) under lieutenant-governors (*kaimonokans*); these into districts (*caeas*), and these into villages and hamlets (*nehozes*). Since 1865 the government has adopted a new system of provincial administration, founded on the principle of decentralization, which has been extended gradually to all parts of the empire. The general governments in the European and African dominions of Turkey, including the semi-independent countries, giving the names best known to Americans, are as follows:

EYALETS.	GOVERNORS-GENERAL.	CAPITAL.
	Turkey in Europe.	
Thrace	Kourchid Pacha	Adrianople.
Touna	Sobri Pacha	Roustchouk.
Roumania	Charles I., Prince	Bucharest.
Servia	Michael Obrenovitch, Prince, Woiwode, with rank of Vizier.	Belgrade.
Bosnia	Osman Pacha	Bosna-serai.
Epirus	Ahmed Rassim Pacha	Janina.
Macedonia	Arif Pacha, Vizier	Salonica.
Crete	Aarif Effendi	Candia.
	Turkey in Asia.	
Archipelago	Kaisseriu Ahmed Pacha, Vizier	Rhodes.
Paphlagonia	Tevfik Pacha	Kastamoreni
Bythinia	Husni Pacha, Field-Marshal	Broussa.
Lydia	Ismael Pacha	Smyrna.
Phrygia, Pamphylia	Veli-ud-Deen Pacha, Vizier	Konia.
Angora	Ahmed Tevfik Pacha	Angora.
Cappadocia	Ali Riza Pacha	Sivas.
Tarabezoren	Mouchlis Pacha	Trebizonde.
Erzeroum	Mehmed Rachid Pacha	Erzeroum.
Koordistan	Mustapha Pacha	Diarbekir.
Charbront	Izzet Pacha	Charbront.
Aleppo	Nechad Pacha	Aleppo.
Syria	Rachid Pacha	Damascus and Beirout.
Lebanon	Franco Effendi	Deir-el Kamr
Babylonia	Takieden Pacha	Bagdad.
Mecca	Scherif Abd-ul-lah Pacha	Mecca.
Habech, Hedjas	Moammer Pacha	Djidda.
Yemen	Ahmed Pacha	Mecca.
	Turkey in Africa.	
Egypt	Ismail Pacha, Grand Vizier, Kedewi	Cairo.
Tripoli	Mahmoud Nedim Pacha	Tripoli.
Tunis	Mehmed Sadik Pacha, Field-Marshal.	

Besides the princes of Roumania and Servia, also the Governor-General of the Lebanon, in Asia (Franco Effendi), is a Christian.

The population amounts to 42,060,510, of which 24,876,000 are Mussulmans, 15,260,000 Christians of the Greek, Armenian, Syrian, and other Oriental rites, 150,000 Israelites, 214,000 Zingaries or Gypsies, and the rest mainly Christians of the Latin rite (Roman Catholics), with a sprinkling of Protestants. The Mussulmans are under the religious control of the Sheik-ul-Islam, and their own religious functionaries, the Mohammedan being the state faith; but, as all other religions are tolerated, the other denominations have their hierarchy. Throughout the empire there are two patriarchs and eleven archbishops and vicars apostolic of the Roman Catholic, and eighteen archbishops of the Greek, Melchite, Syrian, Armenian, and Chaldean rites, with a numerous body of bishops and minor ecclesiastics. For the purpose of official communication with it the Sublime Porte recognizes the following chiefs of the different religious communities: Gregory, Patriarch of the separated Greek Church (resigned in 1869); Boghos, Patriarch of the seceding Armenians (resigned in 1869); O. Varthalites, Civil Chief of the Latins; Clements, Civil Patriarch of the Greeks; Hassoun, Patriarch of the Armenians, and Takir, Grand Rabbi of the Israelites.

The army is divided into six grand corps, each under the command of a field-marshal (*mouchir*). The first of these is the Imperial Guard at Constantinople, commanded by Omer

Pacha. The standing army is composed of, first, the active force (*nizam*), each corps of which is made up as follows: Infantry, 12,000; cavalry, 2,880; artillery, 1,536; pioneers, 1,500; sappers and miners, 500. These last two are taken from the surplus force of the Imperial Guard. The sum total of all these corps brings the active force up to 100,496 men. Second, the reserve (*redif*), containing the same number of men. Third, auxiliary troops from Egypt and other provinces, 100,000 men. Fourth, forces detached in Tripoli, Crete, etc., and in garrisons, 21,200 effective men. Irregular troops, bashi-bazouks, Tartars of the Dobroutcha, etc., 90,000. Total available force, 442,192; which could be swelled in case of a popular war to a half or even three-quarters of a million. Thus, in the present exigency, the Pacha of Egypt, whose contingent included in the above amount is only 20,000, has already placed 50,000 troops and all his fleet at the disposal of the Porte.

The fleet, without counting that of the provinces, consists of 185 vessels, among which are several heavy iron-clads, carrying 2,370 guns. The fleet is manned by 40,000 men, including 4,000 marines, and is in a high state of discipline and effectiveness.

The financial affairs of Turkey, under the present administration, are in a satisfactory state. Hitherto the rule has been an annual deficit of from one to fourteen millions. The result has been a national debt, which, at the commencement of 1867, since which it has been slightly diminished, was as follows: Foreign debt, $167,448,508.80; domestic debt, $167,199,978. Total, $334,648,486.80, or $7.95 *per capita*. The annual expenses of the Government, by the latest budget, were 3,266,931 purses, or $63,247,784.16, being $1.51 *per capita*.

In the beginning of 1869, the difficulties between Turkey and Greece, on account of the insurrection in Crete, had assumed so threatening an appearance, that the great powers hastened to settle it by a conference. This conference met in Paris, for the first time, on January 9th. Turkey had asked for a postponement of nine days, but, in consequence of communications received from the French Government, the Porte consented to waive objections. The conference met under the presidency of the Marquis de la Valette, the members constituting it being the ambassadors and ministers plenipotentiary of England, Prussia, Russia, Austria, Italy, Turkey, and Greece. The points agreed on as the bases of discussion were—1. The Ottoman ultimatum. 2. The limitation of the debates to the special difference between Turkey and Greece. The plenipotentiaries agreed on one point, that, if they could not come to a settlement, the courts they represent would engage to observe the strictest neutrality between Turkey and Greece; so that, should war take place between those powers, Europe would be simply a spectator.

General Ignatieff asked the Porte to recall Hobart Pacha from Syra, but his demand was rejected on the ground that Hobart Pacha was only blockading the Enosis, and not the port of Syra. As the result of their deliberations, all the plenipotentiaries, Turkey included, agreed to a protocol, which was sent to Greece through the president, the Marquis de la Valette. Turkey agreed to withdraw her ultimatum if Greece would accept the conditions proposed. With no single power to support Greece, no other course seemed open to her but to accept the settlement proposed, as she would have had no chance in a war against Turkey. The declaration of the Conference (*see* GREECE) was delivered to the Government at Athens, on January 28th, by Count Walewski, who was also the bearer of an autograph letter from the Emperor Napoleon to King George, recommending a conciliatory policy as the wisest course for Greece to adopt.

Under the pressure of the concerted action of all the great powers in favor of Turkey, the Cretan revolution died away. All the insurgent chiefs submitted, in February, to the Turkish authority, and the island became tranquil. The Greek Patriarch addressed a pastoral to the Christians in Crete, urging them to return to peaceful pursuits. In March, the Porte reopened all the ports of Crete.

A dispute arising between Turkey and Persia about the frontier question, began to look threatening. Midhat Pacha, one of the ablest and most energetic of the Turkish governors, was dispatched to Bagdad with full powers and instructions to settle the difficulty by force of arms, if necessary. Numerous reënforcements of troops and artillery were sent to the frontier.

The approaching opening of the Suez Canal gave rise to animosity between the Sultan and the Viceroy of Egypt, the latter having sent invitations on his own account to the European sovereigns. In June, the Porte sent instructions to its ministers abroad, to protest against those invitations by the Viceroy, saying that such invitations should emanate from the Sultan, as the suzerain of the Viceroy. The Sultan, at the same time, declined, through his Grand-Vizier, to be present at the opening of the Suez Canal. Mustapha Fazil Pacha, the Viceroy's brother and bitter enemy, was appointed to the ministry, and two refugee pachas from Egypt were made members of the Grand Council of the Sultan. The Sultan addressed a letter to the Viceroy. Its tone was decidedly dictatorial, and the Viceroy was very sharply and peremptorily reminded of his powers and functions. The Khédive returned a most conciliatory and satisfactory reply.

On August 31st, the Sultan's reply was sent from Constantinople. It was conciliatory, and reciprocated the sentiments expressed by the Khédive, but, while giving full credit to the latter's assurances of loyalty, it reiterates that

the viceregal privileges, as regards the maintenance of land and sea forces, must be kept within the limits prescribed by the successive firmans granted by the Sultan to Ismail Pacha and his family. Among the stipulations of the Grand-Vizier's letter to the Viceroy, is one that his Highness shall not contract any further loan in Europe without the sanction of the Imperial Government.

The Empress Eugénie arrived, on her way to the Suez Canal, at Constantinople, on October 13th. The imperial yacht Aigle, preceded by the Sultan's yacht, and attended by English, French, Italian, and Russian dispatch-boats, conveying the ambassadors, and Turkish iron-clad squadron, under the command of Ibrahim Pacha, following in the rear, rounded the Seraglio Point into the Bosporus, and proceeded to the Palace of Beglerbey, situated on the Asiatic shore, where the Empress stayed. The Sultan waited there to receive his imperial guest. Salutes were fired from the forts and from the men-of-war, and all ships in the harbor were gayly decorated. On the arrival of the Empress in the Bosporus, the girls from the Catholic schools of Constantinople, who were on board a French steamer, sang a hymn of welcome, and the Empress warmly bowed her acknowledgments. On landing, the Sultan gave his arm to the Empress and escorted her up the avenue to the palace, while royal salutes from the Asiatic and European sides of the Bosporus were fired. The yards of the squadron were manned. The Sultan then returned to the Palace of Dalmagachtiche, and a general holiday was held. After sunset the vessels at the Golden Horn and in the Bosporus, and the minarets of the mosques, were lighted up, and a general illumination took place, and fireworks were displayed from the Sea of Marmora to the Black Sea.

A like imperial reception was given to the Crown-Prince of Prussia, on October 24th. Prince Asmodeus, of Italy, also arrived at Constantinople, as also the Emperor of Austria, in whose honor a grand parade was held.

As soon as the grand festivals of November 17, on the occasion of the opening of the Suez Canal, were fairly over, the Sultan resumed his quarrel with the Viceroy of Egypt by sending him the following firman (the great powers having given up the idea of an intervention in the Egyptian question):

It is superfluous to say how great is my solicitude for the prosperity of the important province of Egypt, and for the increase of the well-being and security of its inhabitants. While I devote serious attention to maintaining intact the interior privileges accorded to the Egyptian administration, my duty requires me at the same time to watch over the strict accomplishment of the obligations undertaken, either toward my crown or toward the people of that country. In consequence, I have accepted the explanations which you have furnished, and the engagements you have taken relative to arms and war-vessels, as well as with regard to the foreign relations of the province by your letter dated the 10th Djemazi-el-evvel, 1286, in answer to one which my Grand-Vizier had sent you by my sovereign order on the 18th Rebuil-Akhir, of the same year.

Only, the question of finances being a vital one for every country, if the amount of the taxes is beyond the means of those called on to pay them, or if the produce of these imposts, instead of being applied to the real necessities of the state, are absorbed by profitless expenditure, the risk is indubitably incurred of losses and incalculable dangers. The result is that the sovereign has the sacred and imprescriptible right to watch over that important object with solicitude; and, in order that no doubt or misunderstanding should any longer exist in this regard, I have decided to give you the following instructions, which shall likewise be brought to the knowledge of all the Egyptians:

Thus, according to the fundamental conditions which serve as the base of the present administration of Egypt, all taxes and duties should be assessed and gathered in my name. I cannot, therefore, consent in any way that the sums proceeding from these imposts should be employed otherwise than in meeting the real wants of the country, nor that its inhabitants should be charged with fresh burdens without legitimate and recognized necessity. My absolute will, therefore, is that your incessant care and zeal may be directed toward these two important objects, as also to the necessity that my Egyptian subjects be treated always with justice and equity. In like manner foreign loans engaging for many years the revenues of the province I cannot allow, unless all the reasons requiring to have recourse to them should have been laid in detail before my Government, and unless my authority should have been obtained beforehand, lest the sums previously raised on the resources of Egypt might be injuriously affected by resorting to fresh obligations.

My will is, therefore, that at no time can a loan be negotiated until after the absolute necessity of it has been well established and my authorization obtained. You will henceforth conform your acts and conduct to the terms of this imperial firman, which is entirely in accordance with respective rights and duties as well as with precedents.

While the language of this imperial message was firm, and admitted of no discussion regarding the army, navy, and the foreign loans, it was worded in a manner which allowed the Viceroy to accept the orders sent him without appearing to be forced to it by extraordinary pressure on the part of the Porte. But the Khédive did not abandon his iron-clad fleet, nor answer the communication of the Sultan. The Porte, therefore, forwarded a violent message to the Viceroy at the end of the year regarding the fleet.

As to its home administration, the Turkish Government has begun to show an energy and activity which have hitherto been very unusual among Turkish functionaries. Strict instructions have been issued to the local authorities to suppress all attempts at revolutionary agitation, and in some districts these instructions have been carried out with extreme severity. At Toultcha, in Bulgaria, the police, having found a small quantity of gunpowder in a shop, arrested the proprietors, two young men twenty years of age, for conspiracy. They were condemned to four years' hard labor, and, though the French consul warmly interceded in their behalf, the sentence was confirmed by the governor. Shortly after one of the young men became ill, and died in

irons on the day he was taken to the hospital.

One of the most important reforms announced by the Turkish Government is the establishment of a civil code, which will be binding on all the subjects of the Sultan, without distinction of creed. A legislative commission is to be appointed for this purpose, under the direction of Ali Pacha. This commission will be instructed to commence its labors by a careful examination of all the precepts of the Koran relating to the civil organization of society, with the object of using them as a basis for the new code. The Koran will then no longer be, as hitherto, the official text-book for courts of justice, but only be recognized as an authority in questions of dogma and religious practice. This reform will doubtless be violently opposed by the clergy and the Turks of the old school, but it has been approved by the Sultan and his ministers, and steps are already being taken for introducing it. Another question which is now under the consideration of the Council of State is a proposed alteration in the mode of collecting the taxes. At present all taxes in the empire are farmed out to speculators, who pay fixed sums to the Government, which in certain provinces amount to barely one-half of the contributions imposed on the inhabitants. The Government will in future receive the taxes through its own officials, as in other European countries.

It has been the custom for the Sultan to go to the Porte at the commencement of each year to hear his ministers report upon the events of the past year and the state of the country. These reports are never published, and the public is consequently unable to judge if the information given to his Majesty is borne out by facts. The Sultan's annual visit to the Porte has, hitherto, possessed no interest. It has been looked upon as a mere formality, and allowed to pass with the mere record of its having taken place. Last year, for the first time in the history of Turkey, the Sultan, after receiving the customary report, made a speech, in which he expressed sentiments and made promises which, for good, sound common-sense and liberality, might compare most favorably with the royal declarations of his European fellow-sovereigns. This speech was much commented upon at the time, and has been quoted and referred to continually ever since as a mark of progress on one hand, and as a species of text-book against oppression and injustice on the other.

The speech, delivered on May 6, 1869, to the first Turkish Parliament, is not less important as a mark of progress in civilization, and, as such, a "sign of the times," and a matter of hearty congratulation to the Government and the country. The speech, though delivered by the Sultan, must, of course, in accordance with usage, be considered as the mere dictum of the Divan; but, even so, its publication in the public journals, and its submission thereby to criticism, are marks of enlightened liberality that few could have foreseen or believed in.

This important and highly-interesting speech was as follows:

A very fortunate circumstance, upon which we cannot congratulate ourselves too highly, has been the public recognition last year of the rights of my Government, and the friendly action of the great powers, my friends and allies. This is the happy result of the respect shown by my Government to the treaties and rights of those powers, as also of our moderation, and our efforts, based upon our own well-being and that of other nations, to preserve peace. And, as I desire in future faithfully to strive for the protection and preservation of our legitimate rights, and also most assiduously to seek to arouse and develop the friendly sentiments so happily established by treaties with friendly powers, our foreign relations will in future be as much in accordance with the rights and honor of every one as with the demands of civilization.

Another benefit of Providence has been the complete repression of the deplorable troubles which for some time, and from various causes, have disturbed Crete. To-day the island and its inhabitants are entirely tranquil, and perfect security prevails. This fortunate result we owe as much to the good and numerous services of the army and the devoted zeal of the officers of every grade, as to the people of Crete who remained faithful. I rejoice here to record my entire satisfaction. I also repeat that I have given the necessary orders that without negligence or partiality the greatest care should be taken to carry out those laws which have been enacted for the purpose of according to the island all possible prosperity, and to promote the well-being and security of the inhabitants of the island, both as regards their persons and property.

As in the case of individuals, the necessities of a state advance equally with the progress of civilization. If one were to say that the necessary expenses of such or such a state twenty, thirty, or even ten, years ago did not represent one-tenth part of the expenses of to-day, it would be no exaggeration. The progress of science and art has produced such numerous discoveries in the arms of war, and all things connected therewith, that a state anxious to preserve its rank, and to place itself in a position to defend its rights, must, according to its position and resources, assure its possession of the means of defence. The present expenses of empires are in fact so much increased that they cannot be compared with those of former times. In one word, civilization and progress mean the advancement of the constituent principles of a state in all its parts. Public credit depends on the richness of the people, that is, on the development of agriculture and commerce, and agriculture and commerce increase by the propagation of science and art.

The facilitation of trade depends upon the number of the railroads and routes, upon the employment of capital and productive materials, and, lastly, upon the existence of a magistracy guaranteeing the full execution of justice. Whoever knows and judges us with justice will see that our Government has already made great advances on this path, nor shall we stand still, but rather that which we have already performed will excite us on to fresh efforts. We do not look back upon the road we have traversed, but our eyes are fixed upon the path before us, until we attain that rank among those civilized nations whose works we see in all things. Our efforts must strive to reach that goal.

Another important step to reform is the employment of Christians in the army. Hitherto all non-Mussulmans in Turkey have purchased their exemption from military service. The result has been that the Mussulman population

was drained from the provinces to fill the ranks of the army, and greatly diminished the number of agriculturists of the interior. The objection of the Christians has been the disrespect shown them by the Mussulmans, and even by the Government, and their treatment as an inferior people. Now, that some of the Sultan's ministers of state and other superior functionaries are Christians, the latter feel that full justice will be done to them, and that they may also serve as defenders of their country, as well as the Mussulmans. Military law, and what is called *esprit de corps* among the new soldiers, will be of great service to the Sultan's Government in a political point of view, inasmuch as it will check any future attempt by the Russian Government to create dissensions among the Sultan's Christian subjects. In no country is there a more loyal and patriotic people than the Greeks and Armenians of Turkey, if let alone, and treated by their own Government with justice and ordinary respect. A new epoch is now opening before them, which, if persisted in, cannot but have the happiest results.

The prejudices which heretofore prevented the Ottoman Government from welcoming foreign capital, industry, and immigration, are also giving way before the new system on which it has entered. This "prejudice," however, has had a basis or cause which must be removed by foreign governments. Formerly certain "capitulations" gave to all foreigners in Turkey almost a perfect *exteritoriality*, which means a position of independence of the laws of the country in which they reside. All concessions made by the Ottoman Government to foreigners placed the latter in a position of antagonism to the government which conceded it, and involved it in continual conflicts with the governments of the countries to which the said foreigners belonged. The result was, that the Government could rarely be induced to allow any enterprises, however useful, on the part of such as were its own subjects. To grant the exploration of a mine to a Frenchman, or a French company, was sure to render the mine a part of France, and, sooner or later, to involve the Porte in a series of suits for losses and damages of an unpleasant character. Diplomacy was brought to bear, with fearful threats upon the government which made the concession, and the result was that very many advantageous enterprises remained unexplored, solely because the Porte feared such complications as soured its relations with foreign powers. Laws and codes have now been made—based mostly upon those of Europe—which will define the rights of foreign explorers of enterprises in Turkey, and, if the obselete and now senseless "ancient capitulations" be revised, a wide field of public and private industry will be opened in Turkey to the people of all other nations.

Owing to the combined efforts of the British, French, and Austrian ministers, there is now a prospect of securing the free navigation of the Dardanelles for the merchant marine of all nations.

The Asiatic provinces of Turkey, as well as the European, would offer a great field for settlements, if necessary protection could be afforded to the immigrants. Since the Christian Lebanon stands under the protection of England and France, it has become a garden, this little tract of land producing in 1868 a silk crop to the value of some twenty million francs.

Roumania.—The most important event with regard to industry was the opening of the railroad from Bucharest to Giurgevo on October 31st. On November 24th, Prince Charles and his spouse solemnly entered the capital. Triumphal arches had been erected; all the houses were adorned with flags, and the streets filled with an enthusiastic people. The mayor performed the civil act of marrying the princely couple, to whom forty simultaneously married Roumanian couples were introduced. The prince pardoned on this occasion seventy-two criminals.

The prince opened the Chamber on November 27th. His speech alluded to the satisfactory relations to other countries, the almost settled frontier question, and the improvement of navigation; promised the regulation of common interests by international treaties, laws for regulating the floating debt, organizing the army, improving instruction, and a speedy completion of the projected railroad lines.

Servia.—Servia has, up to this time, derived hardly any benefit from her position on the banks of her great thoroughfares, the Danube and the Save. One of the chief national resources of Servia is its forests; but, from want of means of transport, little is yielded but firewood and charcoal; the pine-wood used for building at Belgrade is brought by water-carriage from Styria and Bosnia. Such is the waste of this natural wealth, that whole forests of fir are cut down to procure small quantities of pitch, resin, and potash; and custom has assigned a full-grown oak to every peasant for his coffin. A law has been proposed against this last abuse. Coal, of an inferior description, is to be found in many parts, and it is highly probable that a scientific exploration would bring to light coal of a superior quality. The mining resources of the country in copper, iron, and graphite, have also yet to be properly dealt with. Some zinc-mines are being worked at a profit. There are also said to be, but hitherto imperfectly explored, gold washings at Zachar, on the Bulgarian frontier; fire-clay and lithographic stone at Valjevo; and magnetic stone, lead, silver, and copper, in the Copanic ranges of mountains, on the frontier of Northern Albania. The comparative state of agriculture in any part of the Ottoman empire may be pretty accurately determined by the proportion which the cultivation of maize holds to that of corn in general; and in Servia maize is the chief corn-food of the people, pre-

ferred, because it costs little labor and expense, and, therefore, suits the habits of an indolent people. The population, about 1,100,000, increases by only 4,000 a year. This unsatisfactory progress is attributed in part to the public health having become extensively undermined by syphilitic disease, and to epidemics generated by malaria, but still more, to the custom of marrying youths of immature age to women much older, and who have passed their best years, the motive being an unwillingness to dispense earlier with the labor of a daughter in the household and the field. The Servians have much degenerated in forty years, passed under a political guarantee which inspires recklessness; in some districts, the debasement, both moral and physical, is visible in the looks of the people. Their martial and independent spirit still exists to a great extent; but it may be doubted if Servia could now muster the number of fighting-men she did during the war of independence. The proportion of town population was but 86,841 at the census of 1859. It is a nation of herdsmen. Society furnishes few of the elements of a town-life, there being no manufactures, little traffic, and trades in their infancy. One of the chief aims of the Government has been, for some time past, a municipal reform, which, with a view chiefly to military organization, will have a centralizing effect, withdrawing the inhabitants from the forests and mountains, in which, as retreats from tyranny, there was a tendency to gather or disperse in former times. Pigs are the great product of the nation; about 200,000 are exported every year to Hungary, but it is a precarious trade. The breed of oxen and sheep requires much improvement. The amount of litigation about land is enormous; but gradually, through the operation of mortgages and then sales of the land, the class of squatters is giving place to that of day laborers. It is very important to give this people a taste for labor. Such is their inertness, that their houses are, for the most part, built and repaired for them by itinerant masons and carpenters from Macedonia and Albania, about 5,000 of whom pass and repass the frontier every year, levying a heavy self-imposed tax (for their savings are computed at £50,000 a year) on a poor but indolent population. The foreign trade appears to be almost stationary, little more than about £500,000 on each side; the exports higher than the imports. The resources of the people have been taxed by military preparations and armaments, interfering with and discouraging industry. The immigration has consisted chiefly of Turkish and Austrian refugees and outcasts. The principal inducement to European settlers generally would be the cheapness and fertility of the soil; but they would have to provide themselves with labor; they would find markets not easily accessible, and they could only hold in their own right as naturalized Servians.

The session of the Skuptschina (Legislative Assembly) was opened by the members of the regency on June 25th. The presiding member, in his speech from the throne, said: "It would be incumbent upon the Skuptschina to decide whether a new constitution was a necessity for the country. The charter of 1838, being merely a grant imposed by the sovereign, had long since failed to satisfy the wants of the people. In case the Skuptschina should resolve upon introducing a constitutional *régime*, the latter would come into force after being duly sanctioned by the regency. This legislative body discussed a new constitution, which was adopted in August. It proclaims equality of all citizens before the law, the principle of ministerial responsibility, liberty of the press, independence of the judges, and autonomy of the communities. The Prince and the Skuptschina constitute together the legislative power. The deputies are chosen every three years. The Senate continues as a consultative body. The throne is hereditary in the male line of the dynasty Obrenowitsch.

TYNDALL ON HAZE AND DUST. One of the most remarkable, and, perhaps, one of the most prolific discoveries of modern science, was announced and described by Prof. Tyndall in a lecture recently delivered at the Royal Institution, London, briefly noticed in the *Pall Mall Gazette*. The subject of the lecture, which was illustrated by a series of very beautiful experiments or demonstrations, was the very familiar one of "Dust and Disease," and its object was to show the probability of an intimate connection between atmospheric dust and epidemic diseases. Everybody knows that whenever a direct ray of sunshine crosses a shaded room its direction is made manifest by a line of apparent vapor. Looking at this vapor, it is seen to consist of innumerable particles of dust, which float in the atmosphere, and, catching and reflecting the sunshine, are rendered visible.

In the course of some beautiful experiments on the decomposition of vapors by light, Dr. Tyndall found it to be essential that he should get rid of this floating dust. He strained the air through a tube filled with bits of glass wetted with concentrated sulphuric acid, and through another tube filled with bits of marble wetted with caustic potash; he even made it bubble through the liquid acid and potash solution, but still the dust particles remained in it. He tried various other ways of straining out this dust, but none of them succeeded. At length he passed the air on its way to the tube over the flame of a spirit-lamp, and at once every particle of dust disappeard. It was, therefore, organic matter, and the flame had burned it.

Passing the air a little more quickly over the flame, a fine blue cloud appeared in the tube—the smoke of the dust-particles. The organic and combustible nature of these particles was a discovery, for they had hitherto been taken to be inorganic and incombustible.

Air was then passed through a tube which contained a roll of platinum gauze; and it was found that, when the platinum was cold, the dust-particles all passed through with the air, but, when it was made red-hot, the dust-particles were all consumed. In this case, too, when the air was forced quickly through, a fine blue cloud of smoke appeared, just as in the experiment with the spirit-lamp. An attempt was then made to burn the dust-particles by the concentrated rays of a convergent mirror, but it failed; the particles flitted too quickly through the focus of the burning ray to be consumed by it.

The next experiment was to put the flame of a spirit-lamp in the ray of light which was revealing the floating dust. At once the flame was seen to be surrounded by wreaths of darkness, resembling intensely-black smoke. On lowering the flame beneath the beam of light, the same dark masses were seen wreathing upward. "They were, at times," said Dr. Tyndall, "blacker than the blackest smoke that I have seen issuing from the funnel of a steamer, and their resemblance to smoke was so perfect as to lead the most practiced observer to conclude that the apparently pure flame of the alcohol required but a beam of sufficient intensity to reveal its clouds of liberated carbon." But, when a red-hot poker was placed under the beam, the same black wreaths came floating through. A hydrogen flame was next put under it, and the whirling masses of darkness wreathed upward more copiously than ever. The blackness was, therefore, nothing but air from which all dust-particles had been burned out, and which, consequently, contained nothing to catch the light and reflect it to the eye, as the dust-particles do.

Here, however, a difficulty came in. The same effect was produced by a copper ball not hot enough to burn the dust, and by a flask filled with hot water. In this case it was found that the air was rarefied with the warmth, and, as the dust-particles were not heated to the same extent, it dropped them and floated upward without them. Other gases, even common coal-gas, carefully prepared so as to exclude the dust-particles, have the same black appearance when they cross a ray, which the dust-laden air renders visible, and if coal-gas or hydrogen be let into the top part of a glass shade, which has been placed in a sunbeam or a ray of the electric light, the line between the dust-laden air and the gas is rendered visible—where the air is, the shade will seem full of the illuminated particles; where the gas is, it will appear absolutely empty. "The air of London rooms is filled with this organic dust, nor is the country air free from its pollution. It only needs a sufficiently powerful beam to make the air appear as a semi-solid rather than a gas."

Nobody could, in the first instance, without repugnance, place the mouth at the illuminated focus of the electric beam and inhale the dirt revealed there. Yet we are inhaling it every moment, and the wonder is, that so small a portion of it should be injurious to health.

What is the portion of this ever-present and all-pervading dust which is injurious to life? Now, it was long believed that epidemic diseases were propagated by malaria, which consisted of organic matter in a state of motor-decay; that, when such matter was taken into the body through the lungs or the skin, it had the power of spreading in it a similar decay—yeast was a case in point. Why should not a bit of malarious matter operate in the body as a little leaven, leavening the whole lump? But, in 1836, Cagniard de la Tour discovered the yeast-plant, which, when placed in a proper medium, grows and spreads, and produces what we call fermentation. In the next year Schwann, of Berlin, discovered the plant independently. He also proved, that when a decoction of meat is effectually excluded from common air, and supplied solely with air which has been raised to high temperature, it never putrefies. Putrefaction, therefore, he said, came from the air, and could be destroyed by a sufficiently high temperature. Helmholtz and Ure repeated and confirmed his experiments; but the high authority of Gay-Lussac, who ascribed putrefaction to oxygen, drove chemists back on the old notion. That notion was finally exploded by Pasteur, who proved that ferments are organized beings which find in what we call ferments their necessary food.

Side by side with these discoveries grew up the germ-theory of epidemic disease. Kircher expressed the idea, and Linnæus favored it, that epidemic diseases are due to germs which, floating in the atmosphere, enter the body and produce disease by the development of parasitic life. Sir Henry Holland has favored this theory, which derives its strength from the perfect parallelism between the phenomena of contagious disease and those of life. As an acorn planted in the soil gives birth to an oak which produces a whole crop of acorns, each of which has power to reproduce its parent tree, and thus, from a single seed, a whole forest may spring, so a germ of disease, planted in the human body, grows and shakes abroad new germs, which, meeting in other human bodies with their proper food and temperature, finally take possession of whole populations. Thus, Asiatic cholera, beginning in a small way in the delta of the Ganges, spread itself, in seventeen years, over nearly the whole habitable world.

An infinitesimal speck of small-pox virus will develop a crop of pustules, each charged with the original poison. The reappearance of this scourge, as in the case of the Dreadnought, at Greenwich, so ably reported on by Dr. Budd and Mr. Busk, is explained by the theory which ascribes it to the lingering of germs about the infected place. Surgeons have long known the danger of admitting air

to an open abscess, and abscesses are always opened by an instrument which carefully excludes the air from contact with the wound. The instrument should, of course, be scrupulously clean; but it can be made perfectly clean in an atmosphere of dust only by being made as hot as its temper will bear. This is not done, and therefore inflammation often sets in after the first operation; rapid putrefaction accompanies it, and the pus, which at first showed no traces of animal life, is now found to be full of active little organisms called vibrios. Prof. Lister, from whose letter this fact is derived, contends that this astounding development of animal life is due to the entry of germs into the abscess during the first operation, and their subsequent development by favorable circumstances. Hay fever is another case in point.

The celebrated physiologist Helmholtz suffers from the 20th of May till the end of June from a catarrh of the upper air-passages, and he has found that, during this period, and at no other, his nasal secretions are peopled by these vibrios. They nestle in the cavities of the nose, and a sneeze is necessary to dislodge them. These are uncomfortable statements, but, if the germ-theory is found to be true, it will give definiteness to our efforts to stamp out disease: and it is only by some definite efforts under its guidance that its truth or falsehood can be established. Dr. Tyndall drew certain practical conclusions from the survey of these two classes of facts. The dust cannot be blown away by ordinary bellows, since the air they send out is equally full of the particles. But fill the nozzle with cotton-wool, not too tightly pressed, and the air is filtered, and, being then blown across the beam of light, forms a clean band of darkness, like the air from the spirit-lamp, or from the heated platinum wire. This was the filter Schroeder used in his experiments on spontaneous generation; it was also turned to account in the excellent researches of Pasteur. Since 1868, Prof. Tyndall has constantly employed it himself.

The most interesting of all illustrations of this filtering process is furnished by the human breath. Fill the lungs with ordinary air, and breathe through a warm tube—warmed to prevent the condensation of the watery particles—across the beam of light which is revealing the dust-particles in the air. The particles move with the moving air, but the current from the lungs shows, at first, as many particles as the ordinary atmosphere. Gradually, however, the dust-particles clear away from the course of the breath, and, by the time you have completed your expiration, the expired air cuts a sharp black line through the motes in the sunbeam. The air has left its dirt in the lungs, and the last portions of the expired breath are free from floating dust. But empty the lungs as far as possible, and then inhale a deep breath through a handful of cotton-wool, and, on expiring the air the same way, it cuts a black line through the sunbeam at once. Place the tube below the beam and blow upward, and the air rises through the dancing particles like black smoke, just as it did from the heated surfaces on which the dust was burned. The cotton-wool has completely intercepted the floating matter on its way to the lungs, and, as no dust was inhaled, none is exhaled.

Here, then, is the philosophy of an instinctive habit of medical men. In a contagious atmosphere the physician puts his handkerchief to his mouth, and inhales through it; in so doing he keeps back the floating germs. If the poison were a gas, it could not thus be intercepted. Dr. Bence Jones repeated Dr. Tyndall's experiment with a silk handkerchief, with a similar but less-marked result. Cotton-wool is, in fact, the best and surest filter, and a physician who wants to hold back from the lungs of his patient, or from his own lungs, the germs by which contagious disease is said to be propagated, will employ a cotton-wool respirator. "After the revelations of this evening," concluded Dr. Tyndall, "such respirators must, I think, come into general use as a defence against contagion. In the crowded dwellings of the London poor, where the isolation of the sick is difficult, if not impossible, the noxious air around the patient may, by this simple means, be restored to practical purity. Thus filtered, the attendants may breathe the air unharmed. In all probability, the protection of the lungs will be the protection of the entire system. For it is exceedingly probable that the germs which lodge in the air-passages, and which, at their leisure, can work their way across the mucous membrane, are those which sow in the body epidemic diseases. If this be so, then disease can certainly be warded off by filters of cotton-wool. I should be most willing to test their efficacy in my own person; and time will decide whether, in lung-disease, also, the woollen respirator cannot abate irritation, if not arrest decay. By its means, so far as the germs are concerned, the air of the highest Alps may be brought into the chamber of the invalid.

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UNDERGROUND TEMPERATURE. The temperature inside the earth has often been a matter of speculation. Mr. G. J. Symons, the well-known authority on rain and rain-fall, has been investigating the subject. He has carried on his experiments at Hampstead. A well was sunk there many years ago into the chalk to the depth of between 500 ft. and 600 ft. for the water-supply, and the demand exceeding the supply, an Artesian bore was made through

the centre of the well to the depth of a quarter of a mile, in expectation of finding water in abundance in the lower greensand. The Waterworks Company, 1853, reached the depth of 1,302 ft., sunk nearly £8,000 in two years, found no lower greensand, unfortunately, no water, and became ruined. The property passed eventually into the hands of the new River Company, who accorded to Mr. Symons the permission he sought to conduct a series of thermometric experiments on the abandoned site. Mr. Symons erected a hut over the well, and fitted up a little observing-house. At the British Association meeting at Dundee a committee was appointed to investigate the temperature of the earth at great depths. Mr. Symons is a member of that committee, also Sir W. Thompson, who moved for its appointment. Upon the solution hang certain matters of contention between Sir William and Prof. Huxley, as to how far underground temperature may be made to test the age of the world. Mr. Symons's experiments are not yet concluded. The results so far he regards as decisive. He has made gradual observations down to a depth of 1,100 ft., and has ascertained that the temperature there is 20° higher than aboveground: that is to say, the thermometer showed 70°, whereas the mean temperature of London is 50°. If this rate of increase continues, as there seems no reason to doubt would be the case, boiling-point (212°) would be reached about a mile and a half down. At present, however, Mr. Symons is at a standstill; he has literally stuck in the mud. About 200 ft. of blue-black deposit has accumulated at the bottom of the tube, and into this the thermometers cannot penetrate.

UNITARIANS. The *Year-book* of the Unitarian Congregational Churches for 1870 gives lists of 334 societies in the United States (against 315 in the preceding year), and 396 ministers, of whom, however, a large number (157) are not settled. In 1869, five periodicals were published by the denomination; two monthlies (*Old and New*), established in January, 1870, with which the *Christian Examiner* and the *Monthly Journal* were consolidated, and the *Monthly Religious Magazine*, semi-monthly *Sunday-School Gazette*, two weeklies, the *Christian Register*, Boston, and the *Liberal Christian*, New York.

The National Conference of the Unitarian Churches meets biennially. The third conference was held in 1868, and the fourth will meet in 1870.

The number of Unitarian associations was increased in 1869 by the establishment of the Western Illinois Conference of Unitarian and other Christian Churches, which was organized at Sheffield Ill., January 28, 1869; and the Liberal Christian Conference of Michigan, organized at Kalamazoo, November 8, 1869.

The Conference of the Western Unitarian Churches held its sixteenth annual session at Quincy, Ill., commencing on Wednesday, October 20th. Artemas Carter, of Chicago, was chosen president for the coming year. A prominent feature of the session was the almost unanimous determination to unify the action of the denomination.

In Great Britain and Ireland there are, according to the English *Unitarian Almanac*, 395 Unitarian places of worship (against 382 in the previous year), and 311 ministers, of whom 274 are settled. The *Almanac* also mentions the names of 15 Unitarian societies and associations, the most important of which is the British and Foreign Unitarian Association, established in 1825. The number of Unitarian periodicals is seven, of which one is published in the Welsh language.

The Unitarians in Hungary* number 106 congregations, with 50,000 worshippers. The congregations are under the care of a bishop, J. Kriza, who resides at Clausenburg.

The following letter from the Unitarians in Hungary was submitted, and was recommended for publication, along with the proceedings of this meeting:

From the Consistory of the Hungarian Unitarians to the Unitarian Christians of the United States of America, through the American Unitarian Association.

DEAR BRETHREN IN CHRIST: Our bishop, the Rt. Rev. John Kriza, communicated to our Consistory a letter which he had some days ago the pleasure of receiving from the secretary of your Association, and in having read it we found a great delight in being convinced and assured of your cordial sympathy and interest in us and in our common faith.

Your secretary relates us in this letter that, on the one hand, a letter from our friend, the Rev. Dominik Simen, convinced you that German tracts would not well answer the purpose here; and that, on the other hand, as you have found much difficulty in having your works translated and printed in Hungarian, therefore your Association offers to our Consistory the sum of five hundred dollars, in order to cause to be translated and printed a selection from the writings of the most celebrated American Unitarian authors as would best answer our purpose. He tells us at the same time that you were ready to send us the money as soon as you hear from us.

Our Consistory accepts this offer with the greatest pleasure, and takes it as a token of your love in our common cause, the Unitarian Christianity, and of your sympathy and interest in us.

We confess that now, when the minds of men in our own country are more and more directed to religious matters, so that people of different denominations, from every quarter, make inquiries about our religious writings and publications, nay, in fact, freely declare their love toward Unitarianism, and we have good prospects that in a short time Unitarian congregations will be formed in Hungary itself—now, under such aspects, your kind offer seems to our Consistory to be the best Christmas-present; for this will enable us to excite at this time a greater interest toward Unitarianism, and to make an important turning in the views of our countrymen by the publication of the writings of such eminent American Unitarians as Dr. Channing, whose single sermons, already published, have convinced many individuals of the truthfulness of Unitarian Christianity.

We, dear brethren, will, as soon as the money you so kindly offered in the aid of our common cause arrives, commence the publication of the writings of

* For fuller statistics, *see* AMERICAN ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA for 1868.

your most celebrated Unitarians, the more because we have some of them already in translation. It will give us great pleasure to send in time, to your Association, copies of our publication. We will even not neglect to send you a statement of in what measure and to what purpose your offer was applied.

At last we are glad to express that, as, up to this time, we have gained a great spiritual enjoyment from the books you so kindly sent to us, we shall afterward, too, be very glad to have the pleasure of receiving some of your tracts from time to time.

Accept, dear brethren, our best thanks for your very kind offers, in the name of Unitarianism. And, asking our Heavenly Father's blessing upon all your apostolic labors, we remain,

Your brethren in Christ,
ALEXIUS NAGY DE KAL,
Supremus Curator, Consistorii a parte seculari præses.
JOANNES KRIZA,
Superintendens Ecclesiarum Unitariarum in Hungaria.
MOSES PAP, Generalis Notarius.
CLAUSENBURG, *the 23d of December*, 1869.

In India, the Unitarians have missions at Calcutta, Salem, Secunderabad, and Madras, with schools at the three first-named places.

In Australia there are Unitarian associations at Adelaide, Melbourne, and Sydney.

UNITED BRETHREN. The Fifteenth Quadrennial General Conference of the United Brethren in Christ met at Lebanon, Pa., on the 20th of May. A proposition to abrogate the rule against secret societies was the subject of a debate of considerable length. The following rule was adopted on the subject by a vote of 71 to 26. It does not differ materially from the old rule:

We believe that secret societies are evil in their nature and tendency (a secret society is one whose initiatory ceremony is a secret); and any member or preacher of our Church, who shall be found connected in any way with such a society, shall be admonished to sever said connection. If the offender be a lay member, he shall be so admonished by the preacher in charge; if a preacher or exhorter, by the presiding elder; if a presiding elder, by the bishop; if a bishop, by the presiding elder of the district in which such bishop may reside. If such offending person fails to comply with this admonition within six months after it is given, his name shall be erased from the record, and he be no longer considered a member of our Church. Provided, further, that, should the accused deny said connection, the case shall be tried according to sections nineteen and twenty of Discipline, respectively.

The following was the expression of the Conference on the subject of lay representation:

Resolved, That while we do not consider lay representation in general and annual conferences as wrong in principle or practice, and inasmuch as there is no general desire expressed in favor of lay representation, we do not deem it expedient at present to take action in regard to it.

The law prohibiting the introduction of choirs and instruments of music into the churches was so modified as to be a rule of advice.

A rule was adopted which prohibits bishops from remaining more than four consecutive years in the same district. An effort was made to abolish the district system of the Episcopacy by a rule allowing the bishops to make a division of their work annually over the whole field, as in the Methodist Episcopal Church, but it failed. Superintendents of Sunday-schools were required to be selected from members of the church, and to be made members of the Quarterly Conferences, except when suitable persons cannot be obtained from among the members. Steps were taken looking to the foundation of a Biblical Institute for the education of candidates for the ministry. The growth of the Church, in all its interests, had been very rapid since the preceding General Conference.

The Church of the United Brethren sustains 177 home missions, 95 frontier missions, and one foreign mission. There were paid, during the four years ending May, 1869, $188,538.40 for home missions; $81,300.52 for frontier missions; and $6,183.45 for foreign missions. The receipts of the mission fund for 1868 were $14,079.92. One hundred and seventy-seven missionaries were employed in the home work, ninety-three in the frontier work, and three on the foreign work. The foreign mission, which is at Shengay, Africa, has made but little progress, on account of the sickness of the laborers. The chief missionary, the Rev. O. Hadley, returned to the United States and died. The *Missionary Visitor* has a circulation of 14,000 copies.

UNITED STATES. The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States, which provided that the right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by any State, was introduced and passed by Congress during the session which closed on March 4, 1869 (*see* CONGRESS, UNITED STATES). It was then submitted to the States, and ratified by a large number previous to the end of the year; there were not, however, the three-fourths required by the Constitution.

The Administration of Andrew Johnson closed on the 4th of March, and the ex-President went to Tennessee. There he became a candidate before the Legislature of the State for a seat in the United States Senate, but failed of an election by two votes. The members of his Cabinet, Wm. H. Seward, Secretary of State, Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy, John M. Schofield, Secretary of War, Hugh McCulloch, Secretary of the Treasury, Orville H. Browning, Secretary of the Interior, William M. Evarts, Attorney-General, and Alexander W. Randall, Postmaster-General, resigned their offices at the same time.

After the canvass of the votes of the States for President by Congress, Senator Morton, of Indiana, and Representatives Pruyn, of New York, and Wilson, of Iowa, were appointed a committee, to present to General Grant the certificate of his election as President of the United States. In discharge of this duty, Senator Morton addressed the President-elect, at his office as General of the Army, announcing that with his companions they were the committee appointed by Congress to present him with his commission as President of the United

States for four years, commencing on the 4th of March next, and in a few remarks assured the General that the great majority of his countrymen hailed his election with delight, while even those who did not support him at the polls entertained for him the highest confidence and respect. "The friends of liberty throughout the world," continued Morton, "rejoice at your election, and all believe that you will bring to the performance of your duty unalloyed patriotism, inflexible integrity, great powers of intellect, and all the high qualities that enabled you to achieve such distinguished success in another sphere of duty. They cherish full faith in your ability and virtues, entertain the highest hopes of your success, and that during your Administration the work of reconstruction will be completed, the wounds of civil war healed, and that our country will take a new departure in progress and prosperity."

General Grant replied to Senator Morton as follows: "I can promise the committee that it will be my endeavor to call around me as assistants such men only as I think will carry out the principles which you have said the country desires to be successful—economy, retrenchment, faithful collection of the revenue, and payment of the public debt. If I should fail in my first choice, I shall not at any time hesitate to make a second, or even a third trial, with the concurrence of the Senate, who have the confirming power. I should just as soon remove one of my own appointees as the appointee of my predecessor. It would make no difference.

"There is one matter that I might properly speak of here, and that is the selection of a Cabinet. I have always felt that it would be rather indelicate to announce or even consult with the gentlemen whom I thought of inviting to positions in my Cabinet before the official declaration of the result of the election was made, although I presumed there was no doubt about what that declaration would be. But, after consideration, I have come to the conclusion that there is not a man in the country who could be invited to a place in the Cabinet without the friends of some other gentleman making the effort to secure the position; not that there would be any objection to the party named, but that there would be others whom they had set their hearts upon having in the place. I can say that much from the great number of requests which come to me, in writing and otherwise, for this particular person, or that one, from different sets and delegations. If announced in advance, efforts would be made to change my determination; and, therefore, I have come to the conclusion not to announce whom I am going to invite to seats in the Cabinet until I send in their names to the Senate for confirmation. If I say any thing to them about it, it will certainly not be more than two or three days previous to sending in their names. I think it well to make a public declaration of this to the committee, so that my intentions may be known."

Mr. Pruyn, of the House Committee, then addressed General Grant as follows:

In the great principles which you have marked out for the conduct of your Administration you will have the political support of those with whom I am associated, ready to act with you.

The members of the staff of General Grant were present, about twenty gentlemen altogether, including the committee and staff officers.

The committee subsequently waited upon Mr. Colfax, who, in response to the notification by the committee of his election as Vice-President of the United States, said:

Gentlemen: Please convey to the two Houses of Congress my acceptance of the office to which I have been elected by the people of the United States, and assure them that I shall endeavor to prove worthy of this mark of confidence by fidelity to principle and duty.

The inauguration, as usual, took place on March 4th. (For the Inaugural Address, *see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS.) On the next day the President sent to the Senate the following names of persons whom he had selected as heads of the departments: E. B. Washburne, of Illinois, Secretary of State; A. T. Stewart, of New York, Secretary of the Treasury; J. D. Cox, of Ohio, Secretary of the Interior; Adolph E. Borie, of Pennsylvania, Secretary of the Navy; John M. Schofield, of Illinois, Secretary of War; J. A. J. Creswell, of Maryland, Postmaster-General; E. Rockwood Hoar, of Massachusetts, Attorney-General. These nominations were immediately confirmed by the Senate. Subsequently objections were advanced in the public press against the legality of the appointment of A. T. Stewart as Secretary of the Treasury. An act of Congress of 1789 provided that no person should hold the office of Secretary of the Treasury who was engaged in carrying on the business of trade or commerce. Mr. Stewart was largely engaged in trade in the city of New York, and it thus became necessary for him to retire from business, or to decline the appointment. While the subject was under consideration, the President sent to the Senate the following message:

WASHINGTON, D. C., *March* 6, 1869.

To the Senate of the United States:

Since the nomination and confirmation of Alexander T. Stewart to the office of Secretary of the Treasury, I find that by the eighth section of the act of Congress, approved September 2, 1789, it is provided as follows, to wit:

SEC. 8. *And be it further enacted*, That no person appointed to any office instituted by this act shall, *directly or indirectly, be concerned or interested in carrying on the business of trade or commerce*, or be owner, in whole or in part, of any sea-vessel, or purchase by himself, or another in trust for him, any public lands or other public property, or be concerned in the purchase or disposal of any public securities of any State or of the United States, or take or apply to his own use any emolument or gain for negotiating or transacting any business in the said department, other than what shall be allowed by law; and, if any person shall offend against any of the prohibitions of

this act, he shall be deemed guilty of a high misdemeanor, and forfeit to the United States the penalty of three thousand dollars, and shall, upon conviction, be removed from office, and forever thereafter incapable of holding any office under the United States: *Provided*, That if any other person than a public prosecutor shall give information of any such offence, upon which a prosecution and conviction shall be had, one-half of said penalty of three thousand dollars, when recovered, shall be for the use of the person giving such information.

In view of these provisions, and the fact that Mr. Stewart has been unanimously confirmed by the Senate, I would ask that he be exempted, by joint resolution of the two Houses of Congress, from the operations of the same. U. S. GRANT.

After the message had been read in the Senate, Mr. Sherman, of Ohio, at once rose and presented a bill, in effect repealing the section quoted. Mr. Sumner, of Massachusetts, objected to its present consideration, remarking that it was a matter which demanded the most profound consideration. It was then laid over. As no further action was taken, on the request of the President, Mr. Stewart on the 9th addressed the following note to the President:

WASHINGTON, *March* 9, 1869.

To the President.

SIR: Appreciating the high honor conferred by your nomination, and the unanimous confirmation, by the Senate, of myself to the office of Secretary of the Treasury, I regret that circumstances beyond our control compel me to decline. Could the difficulties presented by the provisions of the act of 1789, which, in organizing the Department of the Treasury, prohibit the Secretary from being "directly or indirectly concerned or interested in carrying on the business of trade or commerce," be overcome by any reasonable sacrifice personal to myself, I would willingly make it. I would promptly transfer, to the hands of gentlemen in whom the public have felt confidence, every interest in the gains and profits that could possibly accrue to myself in the business of my house during my official term, to be applied to such public charities as their judgment should dictate—and have proposed and sought, by the execution of appropriate instruments, to accomplish that end; but serious differences of opinion have been expressed as to whether that course would satisfy the requirements of the law.

Although I will not hesitate to make this appropriation, provided it would enable me to accept the office, and thus unite my efforts with your own, and those of other members of your Cabinet, in restoring economy, honesty, and strict frugality in the administration of the Government, and lift, as rapidly as practicable, for the people, the great burdens of taxation, debt, and extravagance, resting upon them; yet, the business relations of my firm, in its connections with others largely interested in their continuance, are such that they cannot be severed summarily; nor can my interest in it be wholly and absolutely disposed of without producing fresh embarrassment and loss to those with whom I have been so long connected.

I cannot consent to enter upon the administration of laws by any act or course that may be construed into a disregard or violation of law; and while, therefore, I regret that the plan proposed is deemed inadequate to relieve me from legal, and, as it seems to me, technical disabilities, I yield to the better judgment of others, rather than seem to be willing to accept the position in disrespect of law.

In finally renewing the declination which was tendered at the outset of these objections, I repeat to you, Mr. President, my thanks for the honor done me in offering this high position, and assure you that you will have my earnest efforts to sustain your Administration in carrying out the wise and salutary measures indicated by you on entering upon your office. Sincerely your friend,

ALEXANDER T. STEWART.

The declination of the office tendered in this letter was accepted by the President. Subsequently the President sent to the Senate a request to withdraw his message of the 6th. (See CONGRESS, U. S.) The vacancy thus occasioned was filled by the nomination of George S. Boutwell, of Massachusetts. At the same time Mr. Washburne retired from the office of Secretary of State, having been appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to France. The vacancy thus made was filled by the appointment of Hamilton Fish, of New York. About the same time General Schofield retired from the office of Secretary of War, and was succeeded by John A. Rawlins, of Illinois. Mr. Rawlins died on September 6, and was succeeded as Secretary of War by William W. Belknap, of Iowa. Mr. Borie retired from the office of Secretary of the Navy, and was succeeded by George M. Robeson, of New Jersey.

The subject of reconstructing the Southern States, in such a manner that the political control of them should be only in the hands of persons designated as loyal by the authorities at Washington, was the most prominent at the time of the inauguration. Virginia, Mississippi, and Texas, were still held under the command of the military officer of the district, supported by his troops. The President, as early as April 7th, sent a message to Congress, then in session (*see* page 198), urging that body to restore to their proper relations with the Federal Government the States still excluded, and suggesting that a law should be passed authorizing a vote of the people on the new constitutions which had been drafted. In compliance with this suggestion, Congress passed an act, which was approved on April 10th, providing that the President might, at such time as he deemed best for the public interest, submit the constitution of either Virginia, Mississippi, or Texas, to the registered voters of such States for their ratification or rejection. He was further authorized to submit, at the same time, to a separate vote of the people, such provisions of the constitutions as he might deem best. It was further specified that, before these States were admitted to representation in Congress, their several Legislatures, when legally organized, should ratify the fifteenth article, which had been proposed as an amendment to the Federal Constitution. A still further stipulation was made, that the proceedings in either of the three States should not be deemed final, or operate as a complete restoration thereof, until their action respectively should be approved by Congress. The President accordingly issued his proclamations designating the day for a vote on the constitution and for State officers in each of the three States respectively. The elections were held, the constitutions ratified,

State and Federal officers elected, and the fifteenth article, above mentioned, ratified in Virginia. The work advanced no further during the year. (For details the reader is referred to VIRGINIA, MISSISSIPPI, and TEXAS, respectively.)

The fifteenth article of amendment to the Federal Constitution, the ratification of which was made a condition precedent to the restoration of these States to the Union, was brought forward by Congress at its session during the first months of the year. It was adopted as a joint resolution on February 25th (*see* page 171). A large portion of the time of this session was consumed in the discussion of the subject, and the arguments and objections will be found fully stated under the title CONGRESS, in the preceding pages of this volume. The object of this amendment was to secure the right and the privilege of suffrage in every State of the Union to each person who had been heretofore excluded on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude. This was intended to give a free ballot to all persons of the African race. The regulation of suffrage in a State had hitherto been under the control of its Legislature. This amendment so far limits that control as to forbid that it should be withheld from any one on account of race, color, etc. This amendment was ratified in nearly all the States in which the Republican party held the ascendency, and whose Legislatures assembled before the close of the year. The number, however, did not reach twenty-eight, which was required by the Constitution, until it was completed by Mississippi and Texas, early in the ensuing year.

Some other amendments to the Federal Constitution were unofficially brought before the public during the year. A sixteenth amendment was offered in the House of Representatives, on March 16th, by Mr. Julian, of Indiana, in the following words:

The right of suffrage in the United States shall be based on citizenship, and shall be regulated by Congress, and all citizens of the United States, whether native or naturalized, shall enjoy this right equally, without any distinction or discrimination whatever founded on sex.

The design of this amendment was to secure to females in all the States the right of suffrage. During the year an incessant discussion of the subject was maintained by a number of men and women who devoted their efforts to accomplish this object. Through their exertions conventions were held in many of the States, and also a National Convention, the proceedings of which are mentioned hereafter.

Another amendment, proposed by religious bodies, was so to change the preamble of the Constitution as to contain a recognition of a Supreme Being, and to read as follows:

We, the people of the United States, acknowledging Almighty God as the source of all authority and power in civil government, the Lord Jesus Christ as the ruler among nations, and His will, as revealed in the Holy Scriptures, as of supreme authority, in order to constitute a Christian government, form a more perfect union, establish justice, etc.

On May 19th the President issued a proclamation, directing that there should be no reduction in the wages paid by the Government by the day on account of a reduction in the hours of labor by an act of Congress. This act was passed in June, 1868, and fixed the time, constituting a day's work of laborers in the employment of the United States, at eight hours. A question was raised by the Secretary of the Navy, as to the operation of the act on the wages to be paid. The Attorney-General expressed the opinion that the act had nothing to do with compensations to be paid to workmen in navy-yards. The rate of compensation was left to be determined under the rule prescribed in the statute of July 16, 1862. This provides that "the hours of labor and the rate of wages of employés in navy-yards shall conform, as nearly as consistent with the public interests, with those of private establishments in the immediate vicinity."

An important case came up for decision before the Supreme Court, which involved the question of "the status of the State of Texas." The State appeared before the Supreme Court as the complainant in a bill of equity relative to certain bonds formerly issued to the State by the United States. An objection taken by the opposite party was, that the recent hostile proceedings in the State had disabled her from prosecuting suits in the national courts. The opinion of the court was delivered by Chief-Justice Chase, and a dissenting opinion by Mr. Justice Grier. The Chief Justice said:

It is needless to discuss at length the question whether the right of a State to withdraw from the Union, for any cause regarded by herself as sufficient, is consistent with the Constitution of the United States.

The Union of the States never was a purely artificial and arbitrary relation. It began among the colonies, and grew out of common origin, mutual sympathies, kindred principles, similar interests, and geographical relations. It was confirmed and strengthened by the necessities of war, and received definite form, and character, and sanction, from the Articles of Confederation. By these the Union was solemnly declared to "be perpetual." And, when these articles were found to be inadequate to the exigencies of the country, the Constitution was ordained "to form a more perfect Union." It is difficult to convey the idea of indissoluble unity more clearly than by these words. What can be indissoluble, if a perpetual Union made more perfect is not?

But the perpetuity and indissolubility of the Union by no means imply the loss of distinct and individual existence, or of the right of self-government, by the States. Under the Articles of Confederation each State retained its sovereignty, freedom, and independence, and every power, jurisdiction, and right, not expressly delegated to the United States. Under the Constitution, though the powers of the States were much restricted, still all powers not delegated to the United States, nor prohibited to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people. And we have already had occasion to remark at this term, that "the people of each State compose a State, having its own government, and endowed with all the functions essential to separate and independent existence;" and that "without the States in union there

could be no such political body as the United States."* Not only, therefore, can there be no loss of separate and independent autonomy to the States, through their union under the Constitution, but it may be not unreasonably said that the preservation of the States and the maintenance of their governments are as much within the design and care of the Constitution as the preservation of the Union and the maintenance of the national Government. The Constitution, in all its provisions, looks to an indestructible Union, composed of indestructible States.

When, therefore, Texas became one of the United States, she entered into an indissoluble relation. All the obligations of perpetual union, and all the guarantees of republican government in the Union, attached at once to the State. The act which consummated her admission into the Union was something more than a compact—it was the incorporation of a new member into the political body, and it was final. The union between Texas and the other States was as complete, as perpetual, and as indissoluble, as the union between the original States. There was no place for reconsideration or revocation, except through revolution or through consent of the States.

Considered, therefore, as transactions under the Constitution, the ordinance of secession adopted by the convention and ratified by a majority of the citizens of Texas, and all the acts of her Legislature intended to give effect to that ordinance, were absolutely null. They were utterly without operation in law. The obligations of the State as a member of the Union, and of every citizen of the State as a citizen of the United States, remained perfect and unimpaired. It certainly follows that the State did not cease to be a State nor her citizens to be citizens of the Union. If this were otherwise, the State must have become foreign and her citizens foreigners; the war must have ceased to be a war for the suppression of rebellion, and must have become a war for conquest and subjugation.

Our conclusion, therefore, is, that Texas continued to be a State, and a State of the Union, notwithstanding the transactions to which we have referred. And this conclusion, in our judgment, is not in conflict with any act or declaration of any department of the national Government, but entirely in accordance with the whole series of such acts and declarations since the first outbreak of the rebellion.

But, in order to the exercise by a State of the right to sue in this court, there needs to be a State government competent to represent the State in its relations with the national Government, so far, at least, as the institution and prosecution of a suit are concerned.

And it is by no means a logical conclusion, from the premises which we have endeavored to establish, that the governmental relations of Texas to the Union remained unaltered. Obligations often remain unimpaired, while relations are greatly changed. The obligations of allegiance to the State and of obedience to her laws, subject to the Constitution of the United States, are binding upon all citizens, whether faithful or unfaithful to them; but the relations which subsist while these obligations are performed are essentially different from those which arise when they are disregarded and set at naught. And the same must necessarily be true of the obligations and relations of States and citizens to the Union. No one has been bold enough to contend that, while Texas was controlled by a government hostile to the United States, and, in affiliation with a hostile confederation, waging war upon the United States, Senators chosen by her Legislature, or Representatives elected by her citizens, were entitled to seats in Congress; or that any suit instituted in her name could be entertained in this court. All admit that, during this condition of civil war, the rights of the State as a member, and of her people as citizens of the Union, were suspended. The government and the citizens of the State, refusing to recognize their constitutional obligations, assumed the character of enemies and incurred the consequences of rebellion.

These new relations imposed new duties upon the United States. The first was that of suppressing the rebellion. The next was that of reëstablishing the broken relations of the State with the Union. The first of these duties having been performed, the next necessarily engaged the attention of the national Government.

The authority for the performance of the first had been found in the power to suppress insurrection and carry on war; for the performance of the second, authority was derived from the obligation of the United States to guarantee to every State in the Union a republican form of government. The latter, indeed, in the case of a rebellion, which involves the government of a State, and, for the time, excludes the national authority from its limits, seems to be a necessary complement to the former.

Mr. Justice Grier, in the dissenting opinion, said:

Is Texas one of these United States? Or was she such at the time this bill was filed, or since?

This is to be decided as a *political fact*, not as a *legal fiction*. This court is bound to know and notice the public history of the nation.

If I regard the truth of history for the last eight years, I cannot discover the State of Texas as one of these United States. I do not think it necessary to notice any of the very astute arguments which have been advanced by the learned counsel in this case, to find the definition of a State, when we have the subject treated in a clear and common-sense manner, and without any astute judicial abstractions, by Chief-Justice Marshall, in the case of Hepburn & Dundass *vs.* Elzey, 2 Cranch, 452. As the case is short and clear, I hope to be excused for a full report of the case as stated and decided by the court. "The question," says Marshall, C. J., "is whether the plaintiffs, as residents of the District of Columbia, can maintain an action in the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Virginia. This depends on the act of Congress describing the jurisdiction of that court. The act gives jurisdiction to the Circuit Courts in cases between a citizen of the State in which the suit is brought and a citizen of another State. To support the jurisdiction in this case, it must appear that Columbia is a State. On the part of the plaintiff it has been urged that Columbia is a distinct political society, and is, therefore, a 'State' according to the definition of writers on general law. This is true; but, as the act of Congress obviously uses the word 'State' in reference to that term as used in the Constitution, it becomes necessary to inquire whether Columbia is a State in the sense of that instrument. The result of the examination is a conviction that the members of the American Confederacy *only* are the States contemplated in the Constitution. The House of Representatives is to be composed of members chosen by the people of the several States, and each State shall have at least one Representative. 'The Senate of the United States shall be composed of two Senators from each State.' Each State shall appoint for the election of the Executive a number of electors equal to its whole number of Senators and Representatives. These clauses show that the word 'State' is used in the Constitution as designating a member of the Union, and excludes from the term the signification attached to it by writers on the laws of nations."

Now, we have here a clear and well-defined test by which we may arrive at a conclusion with regard to the questions of fact now to be decided.

Is Texas a State, now represented by members chosen by the people of that State and received on the floor of Congress? Has she two Senators to represent her as a State in the Senate of the United States? Has her voice been heard in the late election of President? Is she not now held and governed

* County of Lane *vs.* The State of Oregon.

as a conquered province by military force? The act of Congress of March 28, 1867, declares Texas to be a "rebel State," and provides for its government until a legal and republican State government could be legally established. It constituted Louisiana and Texas the Fifth Military District, and made it subject, not to the civil authority, but to the "military authorities of the United States."

It is true that no organized rebellion now exists there, and the courts of the United States now exercise jurisdiction over the people of that province. But this is no test of the State's being in the Union: Dakota is no State, and yet the courts of the United States administer justice there as they do in Texas. The Indian tribes, who are governed by military force, cannot claim to be States of the Union. Wherein does the condition of Texas differ from theirs?

Now, by assuming or admitting *as a fact* the present *status* of Texas as a State not in the Union *politically*, I beg leave to protest against any charge of inconsistency as to judicial opinions heretofore expressed as a member of this court or silently assented to. I do not consider myself bound to express any opinion judicially as to the constitutional right of Texas to exercise the rights and privileges of a State of this Union, or the power of Congress to govern her as a conquered province, to subject her to military domination, and keep her in pupilage. I can only submit to *the fact* as decided by the political position of the Government: and I am not disposed to join in any essay of judicial subtlety to prove Texas to be a State of the Union, when Congress have decided that she is not. It is a question of fact, I repeat, and of fact only. *Politically*, Texas is not *a State in this Union*. Whether rightfully out of it or not is a question not before the court, and I am not called on to confute a fact with syllogisms.

An important decision to the Southern States was rendered by the same court during the year, on the subject of the paper-money issued by the Confederate States. The suit was brought for the recovery of a mortgage-note with vendor's lien given for the purchase of lands in Alabama in 1864. The defence was, that the contract was made within the insurgent States, during a rebellion, and for Confederate treasury notes, unlawfully issued by a usurping government, and that no such contract can be enforced in the courts of the United States.

The court examined these questions at length, and decided:

That the Confederate government was a *de facto* government of the second degree. The first degree represents such governments as that of England under the Commonwealth, and France under the Republic, which are denied by other governments to exist *de jure*, but are dealt with as existing facts.

The Confederate government was never so recognized by the United States Government. It was held to be a temporary military dominion over territory in which the lawful authority was entirely suspended. On this ground, the rights of belligerency were conceded to its military character. The lawful supremacy of the United States being excluded by military combinations, the substituted supremacy, while it existed, must be conceded to be that of a government *de facto* of this secondary class. Civil obedience to its authority, while it lasted, "was not only a necessity, but a duty." It must be left to the lawful Government, when reëstablished, to decide how far this obedience to the powers that be, in positive acts of hostility to the Government of the United States, can be excused by circumstances.

In other respects, the court ruled that the people in the insurgent States, under the Confederate government, were, in legal contemplation, substantially in the same condition as inhabitants of districts of country occupied and controlled by an invading belligerent.

They "must be regarded as under the authority of the insurgent belligerent power actually established as the government of the country; and contracts made with them must be interpreted and inferred with reference to the condition of things created by the acts of the governing power."

As to the amount which the plaintiff could recover, the conclusion was, that he could only receive the value of the Confederate notes at the date of the transaction, in lawful money of the United States.

The question whether the obligations of the United States, known as certificates of indebtedness, were liable to be taxed by State legislation, was also decided by the same court. The Chief Justice, on delivering the opinion of the court, said:

The principle of exemption is, that the States cannot control the national Government within the sphere of its constitutional power, for there it is supreme, and cannot tax its obligations for the payment of money issued for purposes within that range of powers, because such taxation necessarily implies the assertion of the right to exercise such control. The certificates of indebtedness in the case before us are completely within the protection of this principle.

The question whether United States notes come under another rule, in respect to taxation, than that which applies to certificates of indebtedness, was also considered by the court. The Chief Justice said:

We think it clearly within the discretion of Congress to determine whether, in view of all the circumstances attending the issue of the notes, their usefulness as a means of carrying on the Government would be enhanced by exemption from taxation, and within the constitutional power of Congress, having resolved the question of usefulness affirmatively, to provide by law for such exemption. There remains, then, only this question: Has Congress exercised the power of exemption? A careful examination of the acts under which they were issued has left no doubt in our minds upon that point.

Another important national question that came before the courts was, whether the clause, making United States notes a legal tender, had reference to State taxes?

The Chief Justice, on delivering the opinion of the court, concludes thus:

In whatever light, therefore, we consider this question, whether in the light of the conflict between the legislation of Congress and the taxing-power of the States, to which the interpretation insisted on in behalf of the plaintiff in error would give occasion, or in the light of the language of the acts themselves, or in the light of the decisions to which we have referred, we find ourselves brought to the same conclusion, that the clause making United States notes a legal tender for debts has no reference to taxes imposed by State authority, but relates only to debts,

in the ordinary sense of the word, arising out of simple contracts, or contracts by specialty, which include judgments and recognizances. Whether the word "debts," as used in the act, includes obligations expressly made payable, or adjudged to be paid in coin, has been argued in another case.

In the case here referred to by the Chief Justice, he said: "It seems to us clear, beyond controversy, that the act must receive the reasonable construction not only warranted, but required, by the comparison of its provisions with the provisions of other acts, and with each other; and that, upon such reasonable construction, it must be held to sustain the proposition that express contracts to pay coined dollars can only be satisfied by the payment of coined dollars. They are not *debts* which may be satisfied by the tender of United States notes."

An important decision on the operation of the fourteenth amendment to the Federal Constitution was rendered on a case which came up in Virginia. (*See* VIRGINIA.)

On a visit to the South during the month of May, the Chief Justice, Mr. Chase, was very flatteringly received. While at Charleston, an invitation was extended to him to attend the memorial decoration of the graves of Federal soldiers in Magnolia Cemetery. Pressing engagements prevented his attendance, but he addressed the following letter to the committee on the occasion:

CHARLESTON, S. C., *May* 29, 1869.

DEAR SIR: Your note, inviting me to attend the ceremony of decorating at Magnolia Cemetery the graves of the brave men who fell in defence of the Union during the recent civil war, only reached me this morning. I am very sorry that I cannot be with you on the interesting occasion, but it is now too late to make the necessary arrangements.

The nation cannot too tenderly cherish the memory of her dead heroes, or too watchfully guard the well-being of those who survive. And may we not indulge the hope that ere long we, who adhered to the national cause, will be prompt also to join in commemorating the heroism of our countrymen who fell on the other side, and those who now specially mourn their loss, consenting to the arbitrament of arms, and resuming all their old love for their country and our country, one and indivisible, will join with us in like commemoration of the fallen brave of the army of the Union?

The dead are not dead. They have only gone before, and now see eye to eye. Why may not we all borrow from their sacred graves oblivion of past differences, and henceforth unite in noble and generous endeavor to assure the honor and welfare of our whole country, of all her States, and of all her citizens? Very respectfully yours,

S. P. CHASE.

Captain B. H. MANNING.

Still later in the year the following letter appeared:

NARRAGANSETT, R. I., *August* 14, 1869.

MY DEAR MR. BRIGGS: Your note of the 29th, after a rather long journey, reached me here yesterday. I should be very glad to see you and talk with you on any subject but politics. Dr. Bailey used to say that of Bunyan's Pilgrims he represented Christian and I Hopeful. I am still hopeful. When I was younger, and thought that if largely trusted by the people I could do good service to the country, I should have been glad to have been trusted. Now I am older, and not at all satisfied that, if in a higher place, I could do any better than those now exercising executive functions do. I am more than content to let aspiration alone. My hopes are in others.

It amuses me to hear of Chase movements here and there. I don't believe there are any such. As far as locality is given to them in Maryland, I know there are none, for I spent two or three days in Frederick this week, and should have heard of them if any existed. I don't believe a bit in them elsewhere. If I can only perform with reasonable satisfaction to my own conscience, and to the opinions of those best qualified to judge, the duties of my present position, I shall fill the largest measure of my present ambition. I want nothing whatever of a political character, and desire that my name may be disassociated hereafter in men's minds with all political action. If this is too much to expect, let me hope, at least, that no friend of mine will lend any countenance to such absurd nonsense as that to which I have referred.

Sincerely your friend, S. P. CHASE.

JAMES A. BRIGGS, Esq.

A large number of conventions, aspiring to possess somewhat of a national character, assembled during the year. The earliest of these convened at Washington, on January 13th, and was known as the "Colored National Convention." Its object was to take into consideration the condition of the colored people in the United States. The convention was organized by the election of Frederick Douglass as president, and a series of resolutions was adopted, and addresses issued to the colored people. A National Executive Committee was appointed of one member from each State and Territory. A motion to admit President Roberts, of Liberia, as an honorary member of the convention, was voted down. Some of the resolutions adopted were as follows:

Resolved, That it is with special satisfaction as colored men, and with a general satisfaction as Americans, that we notice the favorable reception of the proposition to alter the Constitution on the subject of franchise, not only by both branches of Congress, by a large proportion of the press of the land, but by the people thereof; and that we believe that in U. S. Grant and Schuyler Colfax, who, we are confident, represent the progressive spirit so happily ripe in the land, we have two honest personages who will exercise their utmost influence, so far as they may consistently, to place all American citizens, without regard to their complexion, on an equal political basis.

Resolved, That the original abolitionists—those who were not ashamed or afraid to declare uncompromisingly, when they endangered their lives to do so, for the immediate abolition of slavery, and that the colored man should enjoy all the political, educational, and religious rights that any other class of citizens might claim—have a large and abiding share of our gratitude for their heroic, self-sacrificing advocacy and defence of the right, out of which has grown the present advanced public sentiment.

Resolved, That whatever shortcomings may be laid to the Republican party, it is the party through which the rights legally secured to the colored American in his country were secured; that it has our gratitude and shall receive our support; that no other party need hope to alienate us therefrom unless by outstripping it in consistency and in an honest advocacy of genuine democratic principles.

Resolved, That a Central Executive Committee, composed of seven persons, with its headquarters at Washington, be appointed to urge the necessity of lending their immediate influence to secure homes for the homeless of the South, and that said committee be empowered to add to its number and act with

any organization that shall desire the furtherance of the end contemplated; which committee be furthermore empowered to urge before Congress the expressed wishes of this convention.

Whereas, We believe that the pulpit is a mighty power in controlling minds on the question of reform: therefore,

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this committee that it is the duty of every minister of the Gospel to urge from the pulpit the reform now going forward in favor of universal liberty and equal rights to all men.

Resolved, That, while we must cheerfully acknowledge our gratitude to all who have labored and voted for the removal of the unjust disabilities against our people in regard to voting, we are under special obligations to the radical press and people of the distinguished State of Iowa, and also of Minnesota, for their able advocacy of impartial suffrage, and their late great victory at the polls.

Resolved, That we congratulate the nation on the success of the reconstruction policy of Congress in the restoration of so many of the States lately in rebellion to their normal relation with the Federal Union, despite the determination and desperate opposition of Southern rebels and their Northern sympathizers, and we earnestly appeal to Congress to complete the work so auspiciously inaugurated by establishing governments in those States yet unreconstructed, at the very earliest time possible, in consonance with the wishes of the loyal citizens of said States, and in the hands of men loyal to the Government of the United States, who will administer the laws on the broad principles of justice and equality to all.

Resolved, That the liberties of the citizens of this country can never be safe or uniform while the States are acknowledged to be the only power to regulate the suffrage.

Whereas, By the laws of the District of Columbia all persons, without regard to caste or color, are required to aid in bearing the burdens of the Government, all should be admitted to a full enjoyment of its blessings; and whereas, under the existing laws of the said District, our people are excluded from the jury-box: therefore, be it

Resolved, That a committee of five be appointed by the Chair to memorialize Congress in this matter, with a view of securing the rights of our race in this respect and in every other.

Resolved, That it is proper and opportune that we should now reaffirm the sentiments of our fathers with reference to African colonization, as expressed by them in 1816, and give such other testimony against it as is justified by its history to the present hour.

Resolved, That while we desire, indeed would aid in the success of our cause, to the extent of our opportunities, any enterprise having for its object the improvement of mankind in any part of the world, we nevertheless here enter our stern protest against the action of any class of men who would compromise our popular status by asserting that our duty to Africa is more binding upon us than upon other citizens of our country.

Another convention, designated as the "Irish National Republican Convention," composed of 221 delegates, assembled in Chicago, on July 4th. Its object was to effect an organization among Irishmen belonging to the Republican party. The views of the convention were expressed in the following resolutions:

Resolved, That it is the duty of the Irish people in this republic, and of all men over the world, to give their support to those who on principle contend for the right of all to perfect liberty, without regard to race, color, creed, or sex.

Resolved, That loyalty to the American Republic is a fixed and unalterable determination to stand by the only free government on earth, and to preserve and defend it against the attacks and machinations of all its enemies is the first political duty which the Irish citizens of this country are called upon to discharge.

Resolved, That to spread the principles of freedom is a duty we owe to ourselves and to the oppressed people of the earth, and one which, by all means consistent with international obligations, we are bound to discharge.

Resolved, That we ask for the oppressed people of our native land, for Cuba, and the down-trodden of all enslaved lands, the sympathy and support of the people and Government of the United States.

Resolved, That we protest against the presence of the armed despotism of Europe on this continent, and pledge our hearty coöperation to any plan adopted for their removal.

Resolved, That free trade, falsely so called, is a cunning and selfish device of the enslavers of mankind, and saps the very foundation of American prosperity and independence; and that we, in the interests of the entire American people, claim full and adequate legislative protection to American industry, and for those only who maintain the principle of protection, and who will make honest efforts to embody it in a protective tariff, should the votes of Irishmen in America be given.

Resolved, That the tendency which induces so many to neglect the cultivation of the soil and congregate in great cities, we mark as an evil, and one which consigns many of the Irish people of this country to life-long misery; we therefore declare our determination to take measures to afford facilities to our fellow-countrymen to settle down in the free and fertile lands of this great and glorious country.

Resolved, That we rejoice in the triumphant success of the Republican cause at the late presidential election, and pledge to President Grant our cordial and earnest support in preserving and defending the great principles of human liberty at home and abroad.

Resolved, That the existing neutrality laws being instrumental only in aiding the monarchies of the earth in sustaining their oppressive system of government, and having on various occasions placed the American Government in the anomalous position of using their power for the support of said government, and receiving only in return active and open hostility from the British Government, we hereby pledge ourselves to labor for their entire repeal.

The first resolution was passed by a vote of 49 to 41, the words "or sex" being the chief objection to it. There was also a division on the seventh. A resolution was adopted, after considerable debate, requesting Congress to pass a law making foreigners to be citizens after one year's residence in the country. A resolution was also passed in favor of the formation of immigration societies; also one against any distinction as to race or color in the membership of trades'-union associations.

The proceedings of this convention failed to attract any special public attention.

A National Labor Convention, or Congress, assembled in Philadelphia, on August 16th, consisting of delegates from the various labor unions organized throughout the country. The following resolutions, expressing the views of the congress, were adopted:

Resolved, That laborers in all departments of useful industry are suffering from a system of monetary laws which were enacted during the late war as measures, it was assumed, "necessary to the life of the nation," and which is now sought to be perpetuated in the interest of bondholders and bankers, as a means to

subvert the government of our fathers, and establish on its ruins an empire, in which all political power shall be centralized to restrain and oppress the rights of labor, and subordinate its votaries to the merciless demands of aggregated capital and supercilious authority.

Resolved, That the national banking system, being inimical to the spirit of liberty, and subversive of the principles of justice, and without warrant in the Constitution of the United States, and wrongfully increasing the burdens of the wealth-producing classes millions of dollars annually, justice, the aspirations of honest industry, and the spirit of imperilled liberty, demand its immediate repeal, and the substitution of legal-tender notes as the exclusive currency of the nation.

Resolved, That the "National Labor Union" is opposed to the continuance and creation of banks by acts of incorporation by either State or national authority, with the privilege of making, issuing, or putting in circulation any notes, bills, or other paper of any other bank, to circulate as money, except the "legal-tender or Treasury notes" therein contemplated.

Resolved, That the present rate of interest is in excess and disproportionate to the increase of national wealth, and, being the governing power in the distribution of the products of capital and labor, is oppressive to the producing classes.

Resolved, That the revenue laws of the United States should be altered, so that, instead of subordinating labor to capital, they may afford just protection to labor and the industrial interests of the whole country.

Resolved, That the legal-tender money should be made a legal tender in the payment of all debts, public and private, and convertible, at the option of the holder, into Government bonds, bearing interest at the rate of three per cent. per annum, with privilege to the holder to reconvert the bonds into money, or the money into bonds, at pleasure.

Resolved, That the claim of the bondholders, that the bonds which were bought with greenbacks, and the principal of which is by law payable in currency, should nevertheless be paid in gold, is unjust and extortionate.

Resolved, That the exemption from tax of bonds and securities is a violation of the just principle of revenue laws.

Resolved, That land monopolies are at variance with the doctrine that "all freemen, when they form a social compact, are equal in rights," and, if persisted in, must ultimately result in the subversion of free institutions, as also the social and political well-being of the laboring masses. To prevent this calamity, the public lands adapted to agriculture should be given, in reasonable quantities, to none but American citizens and such as have declared their intention to become citizens. Individual owners of extensive tracts of land should be encouraged to dispose of the same in small parcels, at reasonable prices, to actual settlers, that they may thus become identified with the soil as responsible, intelligent citizens.

Resolved, That it is a duty which should be exercised with pleasure to guard with vigilant care the delicate and sacred rights of the daughters of toil who are engaged in various industrial pursuits, and solicit their hearty coöperation in our efforts to vindicate the rights of the laboring classes, while we pledge them in return our individual and undivided support.

Resolved, That religion, morality, and knowledge, being necessary to success, schools and other means of education should be encouraged, such as the formation of labor unions, mechanics' institutes, lyceums, reading-rooms, and whatever additional agencies may hereafter be deemed conducive to the cause of morality and intelligence.

Resolved, That as labor is the foundation and cause of national prosperity, it is both the duty and interest of Government to foster and protect it. Its importance, therefore, demands the creation of an executive department of the Government at Washington, to be denominated the Department of Labor, which shall aid in protecting it above all other interests.

Resolved, That the protection of life, liberty, and property, are the three cardinal principles of government, and the first two more sacred than the latter; therefore money necessary for prosecuting wars should, as it is required, be assessed and collected from the wealth of the country, and not be entailed as a burden on posterity.

Resolved, That the National Labor Congress earnestly recommends the adoption of such measures among all classes of workmen, in all sections of the country, as will secure the adoption of the eight-hour system, and calls upon the respective State Legislatures to follow the example of the national Congress in recognizing eight hours as a legal day's work.

Resolved, That voluntary associations of working men and women are entitled, at the hands of legislation, State and national, to the same chartered rights and privileges granted to associated capital, and we demand their practical recognition and enforcement.

Resolved, That political equality being one of the cardinal principles of this organization, we therefore urge full restoration of civil and political rights to every American citizen, except such as have been convicted of felony.

On September 1st the National Temperance Convention assembled in Chicago. It consisted of about five hundred members, and had been called for the purpose of organizing a national political party, having the prohibition of liquor-selling for its distinct object. Much opposition was manifested to the design of embodying the movement in a distinct political party organization, but it was generally conceded that this was the only course open to the advocates of prohibition, both on the score of principle and policy. The views of the convention were expressed in the following resolutions:

Whereas, Protection and allegiance are reciprocal duties, and every citizen who yields obedience to the just demands of his Government is entitled to the full, free and perfect protection of that Government in the enjoyment of personal security, personal liberty, and private property; and,

Whereas, The traffic in intoxicating drinks greatly impairs the personal security and personal liberty of a large mass of citizens, and renders private property insecure; and

Whereas, The existing parties are hopelessly unwilling to adopt an adequate policy on this question, therefore, we, in National Convention assembled, as citizens of this free republic, sharing in the duties and responsibilities of its government, in discharge of a solemn duty we owe to our country and our race, unite in the following declaration of principles:

1. That while we acknowledge the pure patriotism and profound statesmanship of those patriots who laid the foundation of the Government, securing at once the rights of the States, severally, and their inseparable union by the Federal Constitution, we would not merely garnish the sepulchres of our republican forefathers; but we do hereby renew our solemn pledges of fealty to the imperishable principles of civil and religious liberty embodied in the Declaration of American Independence, and our Federal Constitution.

2. That the traffic in intoxicating beverages is a dishonor to Christian civilization, inimical to the best interests of society, a political wrong of unequalled enormity, subversive of the ordinary objects of government, not capable of being regulated or restained by any system of license whatever, but imperatively

demanding for its suppression effective legal prohibition, both by the State and national Legislature.

3. That in view of this, that inasmuch as the existing political parties either oppose or ignore this great and paramount question, and absolutely refuse to do any thing toward the suppression of the rum-traffic, which is robbing the nation of its brightest intellects, destroying internal prosperity, and rapidly undermining its very foundations, we are driven by an imperative sense of duty to sever our connection with these political parties, and organize ourselves into a National Temperance party, having for its primary object the entire suppression of the traffic in intoxicating drinks.

4. That while we adopt the name of the National Temperance party, as expressive of our primary object, and while we denounce all repudiation of the public debt, and pledge fidelity to the principles of the Declaration of Independence and the Federal Constitution, we deem it inexpedient to give prominence to other political issues.

5. That a Central Executive Committee, of one from each State and Territory and the District of Columbia, be appointed by the Chair, whose duty it shall be to take such action as, in their judgment, will best promote the interests of the party.

The action of this convention was not generally heeded by temperance advocates in the several States.

A National Capital Convention assembled at St. Louis, on October 21st. Its object was by political agitation to effect a removal of the national capital from Washington to some city in the valley of the Mississippi. The following were among the resolutions adopted:

Whereas, The present site of the national capital was selected as the most central point, when the people of this republic, only a few millions in number, inhabited only a narrow strip of country along the Atlantic coast; and

Whereas, The population of this republic has increased thirteen-fold since then, and spread over a vast continent, of which the States in existence when the seat of government was located form only the eastern edge; and

Whereas, The present location of the national capital is notoriously inconvenient in times of peace, and, as the darkest pages of our national history demonstrate, in times of war or domestic turbulence is so dangerously exposed as to require vast armaments and untold millions of money for its special defence; and

Whereas, All the reasons which caused the location of the seat of government where it now is, have, by the enormous development of the country, and a corresponding change in the wants of the people, become utterly obsolete: therefore,

Resolved, That the people have endured the present illy-located capital for three-quarters of a century, patiently waiting for the Western territory of the Union to be peopled and organized into States, and until the centre of population, area, and wealth, could be determined, when a permanent place of residence for the government could be selected. That time has now come. All sectional issues are settled; all dangerous domestic variances disposed of; a new era has been entered upon, and a new departure taken.

Resolved, That, in the language of James Madison, in the Congress of 1789, "an equal attention to the rights of the community is the basis of republics. If we consider the effects of legislative power on the aggregate community we must feel equal inducement to look to the centre in order to find the proper seat of government." This equal attention has not been and cannot be given to the interests and rights of the people so long as the capital is located in an inconvenient portion of the Union.

Resolved, That the natural, convenient, and inevitable place for the capital of the republic is in the heart of this valley, where the centre of population, wealth, and power, is irresistibly gravitating; where the Government, surrounded by numerous millions of brave and Union-loving citizens, would be forever safe against foreign foes or sectional seditions, and where it would need neither armaments nor standing armies for its protection.

Resolved, That, while advocating the removal of the seat of government to the Mississippi Valley, we do not mean to serve the interests of any particular locality, but that we urge Congress to appoint a commission for the purpose of selecting a convenient site for the national capital in this great valley of the Mississippi, pledging ourselves to be satisfied with and to abide by the decision to be arrived at by the national Legislature.

Resolved, That in urging the removal of the national capital from its present inconvenient, out-of-the-way, and exposed location in the far East, we are in earnest, and that we shall not cease in our efforts until that end is accomplished, firmly believing that the absolute necessity for the removal will become more and more apparent every day, and the majority of the American people will not long permit their interests and convenience to be disregarded.

Resolved, That, the removal of the national capital being only a question of time, we emphatically oppose and condemn all expenditures of money for enlargement of Government buildings and the erection of new ones at the present seat of the national Government, as a useless and wanton waste of the property of the people.

A National Woman Suffrage Convention assembled at Cleveland, Ohio, on November 24th. One hundred and eighty-three delegates were present from sixteen States. The object of the convention was to form a national organization as a consummation of the work which had been undertaken during the year to form an association in each State. A constitution was prepared and adopted, and Rev. Henry Ward Beecher was chosen the president of the new organization.

A convention to consider the subject of the importation of Chinese labor was held at Memphis, Tennessee, on July 13th, at which a large amount of information on the subject was presented.

A National Colored Labor Convention assembled in Washington on December 10th. During the session a delegation was sent to the President of the United States, headed by James H. Harris, of North Carolina.

After each member had been introduced, Mr. Harris said:

Mr. President: In obedience to a resolution passed at the National Labor Convention that has been in session in this city for the last five days, we are here to tender the thanks of the colored people of the United States for your recognition of their right to positions of honor and trust in the several departments of the Government; the colored mechanics are especially indebted for the recognition of their right to work in the navy-yards and other departments where skilled labor is employed. I am instructed to pledge the support of the colored men of the East, West, North, and South, to your Administration, because they believe that in the position you have taken you are carrying out the fundamental principles of the Republican party.

The President replied:

I think your movement in organizing your labor is in the right direction. I am willing to do any thing in my power to protect and advance the condition of

the working-men of the country. Your organization will force all to recognize your rights to labor and self-respect. I hope the day will speedily come when there will be no party in the land that will make color a test of citizenship. I wish you, gentlemen, success.

Rev. Stella Martin, speaking for the delegation, said:

Mr. President: One great subject of interest during our deliberations was the securing of land for the laborers of the South, so that they may become permanent settlers and independent citizens. There are eight millions of acres of land that may be used by Congress to secure these results, and we desire to secure your influence to prevent any renewal of the lapsed land grants to railways and other corporations, to the detriment of actual settlers.

The President replied that he could only aid the matter by suggestion and recommendation, and that he would give the matter his attention.

Since the close of the late war, the project of connecting the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans by a ship-canal across the Isthmus of Darien has been favorably considered by the United States Government, and active measures have been taken in behalf of that great work. Within the last few years various routes have been explored and recommended as practicable by surveying parties sent by the United States and foreign Governments. The most prominent of these, with their distances, are as follows:

Route.	Miles.
Isthmus of Tehuantepec	198
Nicaragua, from San Juan del Norte to Brito	194
Chagres to Panama (Colombia)	51
Chepo to San Blas	30
San Miguel to Port Escoces (Caledonia Bay)	39
Atrato Valley, by Napipi and Cupica	172

It is now generally conceded that the Isthmus of Darien presents less formidable difficulties to the achievement of such a work than any other region which has been explored. In an exhaustive report upon this subject, submitted to the Government in July, 1866, Admiral Davis says: "It is to the Isthmus of Darien that we are first to look for the solution of the great problem of an interoceanic canal. We know enough of the interior topography to adopt the view of Dr. Cullen, that if we leave the Indian trail, which always passes over the highest ground, and explore the country beyond the ordinary line of travel, we shall probably find a valley transversely dividing the Cordilleras, or at least a lower ridge than any yet surveyed. Our most trustworthy engineers in these regions, Trautwine, Michler, Prevost, McDougall, and others, tell us that it is impossible, from the very limited inspection of the country taken on the Indian line of travel, to form any conception of the nature of the ground, even in the immediate vicinity."

In order to gain control of the isthmus for the purpose of constructing the canal, overtures were made by the American Government in the latter part of 1868 to the United States of Colombia, which led to the negotiation of a treaty between the two Governments. By this treaty, which was concluded on the 14th of January, 1869, the United States is empowered to survey a route and construct a canal at any point across the isthmus, except that it shall not be constructed across the route of the Panama Railroad without the consent of the company. The United States shall have sole control of the canal, shall pay all expenses and damages, and may keep a military force not exceeding 500 men on the canal after its completion. The Government of Colombia stipulates not to undertake or permit the construction of any other oceanic canal or railway across the isthmus without the consent of the United States, and appropriates all the territory, including land, ocean, and tributary waters, besides ten miles of waste and unimproved lands on each side of the canal throughout its entire length. Each Government, however, is to be entitled to alternate water-fronts not exceeding 8,300 yards. After the canal shall have been in operation for twelve years, Colombia shall receive ten per cent. of the net proceeds annually, after the capital expended shall be reimbursed to the United States, such payment to be made semi-annually in New York. Colombia shall retain political control over the canal and adjacent territory, but the United States shall have free passage for troops, munitions, and vessels, except when engaged in war, when the use of the canal shall be denied to all nations. The grant is to continue for 100 years from the time the canal goes into operation, when it shall revert to Colombia.

The Senate of the United States did not act upon this treaty at the session of 1869, but awaited the action of the Government of Colombia. The treaty having been submitted to the Senate of that country, was rejected on the 1st of March by a large majority. This result has been attributed to the condition of political parties in Colombia, and it is believed that a large majority of the new Congress, subsequently elected, will favor the treaty. On the 15th of October a resolution was passed by the Legislature of Panama requesting the national Senate to reconsider their rejection, and accept the treaty. September, 1870, is the limit of time prescribed in the treaty in which a ratification may be made, and it is expected that within that period this important treaty will be duly ratified by both Governments. In the mean time the Colombian Government has given permission to the United States to explore the isthmus, with a view of determining upon the most practicable route. An exploring expedition, comprising a competent force of scientific men and engineers, and fully supplied with all necessaries requisite for the undertaking, has been fitted out by the Government, and ordered to survey "the most direct route across the Isthmus of Darien for the proposed ship-canal provided for by the treaty between the United States and the Colombian Government." The expedition having proceeded to its destination, the work is now progressing under the general superintendence of Rear-

Admiral Davis, who, by his extended knowledge of the isthmus, and the different routes heretofore surveyed, is specially qualified for the duties assigned him.

The commerce that will pass through the Darien Ship-canal has been estimated to embrace the trade between the United States and the Dutch East Indies, British Australia, and New Zealand, British East Indies, French East Indies, half of Mexico, half of New Granada, Central America, Chili, Peru, Ecuador, Sandwich Islands, China, other ports in Asia and of the Pacific, as well as between the Eastern and Western coasts of the United States. The value of the exports and imports between the United States and the foreign ports above mentioned, in 1857, was $193,168,937, including ships aggregating 1,857,485 tons, and the saving in money on this amount that would result from the use of the canal has been estimated at $35,995,930. It is also claimed that the trade of England and France will pass over the new route, amounting in the aggregate to about $260,000,000 annually, on which the saving in money will amount to about $12,000,000. The total value of the commerce that will be affected by the use of the canal is estimated at $467,831,180, and the savings at $49,530,208. The number of miles saved in distances by the route across the Isthmus of Darien is shown in the following table:

From New York to	Distance via Cape of Good Hope.	Distance via Cape Horn.	Distance via Isthmus of Panama.	Saving in distance over the route by the Cape of Good Hope.	Saving in distance over the route by Cape Horn.
Calcutta	17,500	23,000	13,400	4,100	9,600
Canton	19,500	21,500	10,600	8,900	10,900
Shanghae	20,000	22,000	10,400	9,600	11,600
Valparaiso	.....	12,900	4,800	.....	8,100
Callao	.....	13,500	3,500	.....	10,000
Guayaquil	.....	14,300	2,800	.....	11,500
Panama	.....	16,000	2,000	.....	14,000
San Blas	.....	17,800	3,800	.....	14,000
Mazatlan	.....	18,000	4,000	.....	14,000
San Diego	.....	18,500	4,500	.....	14,000
San Francisco	.....	19,000	5,000	.....	14,000
Wellington, N. Z.	13,740	11,100	8,480	5,260	2,620
Melbourne, Aust'la.	13,240	12,720	9,390	3,340	2,830

For the financial condition of the United States *see* the article FINANCES, etc. The foreign relations of the country are presented under the title DIPLOMATIC CORRESPONDENCE, and in the President's Message for December, 1869, for which *see* PUBLIC DOCUMENTS. For the military and naval affairs of the country, *see* ARMY and NAVY respectively; and for the progress of the restoration of the States, and the general condition of internal affairs, *see* CONGRESS and the States respectively.

UNIVERSALISTS. The General Convention of Universalists in the United States of America was incorporated in 1866. It is empowered to hold property to the extent of $500,000, "to be devoted exclusively to the diffusion of Christian knowledge, by means of missionaries, publications, and other agencies."

The meeting of the convention for 1869 was held at Buffalo, N. Y., on the 21st of September. Two new State Conventions, those of Kansas and Missouri, were recognized and admitted by their delegates. The Board of Trustees reported that, in accordance with a resolution of the previous convention, they had appointed a committee of seven from the members of the Executive Board of the Northwestern Convention, to supervise the work of the convention in the West. The new committee are entitled "The Northwestern Board of the General Convention."

The financial receipts, including cash on hand, at the beginning of the year, were $8,620.47; expenditures, $6,301.12. With this sum two churches (at Washington and at Wilmington) were partially sustained, and fourteen theological students aided. Arrangements were made for celebrating the centenary of the first preaching of Universalism in the United States, which would occur in 1870. Among the features of the plan were: that all church debts should be paid; that new churches should be erected; that liberal aid should be given to education, missions, Sunday-schools, and publications; that $200,000 should be raised, to be known as the Murray Centennial Fund, to be controlled by the trustees, and used in the education of theological students, and other appropriate purposes; that commemoration services be held in all Universalist churches on the first Sunday of 1870; that general Sunday-school reunions be held on the second Sunday; that there be special gatherings in the cities of New York and Philadelphia; and that reports be made at the Centennial Convention, which should be held next September at Gloucester, Mass., in the Murray Universalist Church, the first of the denomination established in the country.

The Northwestern Conference of Universalist Churches is declared, by resolution of both bodies, to be auxiliary to the General Convention, and makes annual reports of its doings to the trustees of the latter body. It has labored in missionary work, has furnished nine students to the theological institution at Canton, N. Y., and completed the raising of $100,000 for the endowment of Lombard University, at Galesburg, Ill. It has taken steps to establish a theological department of this institution. It has received bequests of large amounts in trust, for the establishment of theological schools. It has not yet completed its reconstruction as an element of the General Convention.

No statistics have been compiled of the number of members in the Universalist churches. The statistics in other respects, so far as they have been reported, are as follows: conventions, 17; associations, 81; societies, 844; ministers, 520.

Thirteen periodicals are reported in the various States. Several of the State Conventions have also missionary societies, Sunday-school

unions, etc., connected with them. In New York there is a State Relief Fund of $30,000.

The literary institutions of the Universalists are steadily improving. The principal one is Tufts College, at Medford, Mass. The total value of its property is $805,000. The present number of students is 63. The Divinity-school at this institution was opened in July, 1869.

Lombard University, Galesburg, Ill., has property valued at $165,000, and an endowment fund of $100,000.

The St. Lawrence University, at Canton, N. Y., has classical, theological, and law departments.

Smithson College will be located at Logansport, Ind. The buildings will be commenced in 1870.

There are also seven academies and institutes in Maine, Vermont, Massachusetts, New York, and Wisconsin, with full boards of instruction.

The total number of students in all the schools was 1,450. The number of collegiate students, including 28 young women, and 21 in scientific and partial courses, was 21. The number of divinity students was 33.

Universalists in the British Provinces: Nova Scotia, two societies, one minister; New Brunswick, two societies, one minister; Canada West, one association, three societies, two ministers; Canada East, one minister.

V

VENEZUELA, a republic in South America. Area, about 368,000 square miles; population, in 1858, about 1,565,000. The revenue, wholly derived from customs, amounted, during the year from July 1, 1866, to June 30, 1867, to 4,390,054 pesos. The internal debt amounted on June 30, 1868, to $18,297,811; the external debt to $53,612,801. The most important article of export is coffee, of which, Porto Cabello, in the year 1867–'68, exported 18,300,000 pounds.

In the beginning of 1869, the provisional Administration issued a decree, setting aside fifty per cent. of the revenue of the country for the payment of all debts, and of this fifteen is to be applied to the payment of international claims, such as American, French, British, Spanish, Italian, Dutch, and probably German, as a minister from the North-German Confederation was expected to arrive shortly. The gross revenue of the country being estimated at $4,000,000 (Venezuelan currency), would therefore leave the sum of $300,000 for this purpose.

The Venezuelan Congress provisionally intrusted, in February, the executive powers to Generals José Ruperto Monagas and Guillermo Villegas, until an election for President of the republic should take place. The factions of the ambitious leaders seemed bent, however, upon plunging Venezuela again into the troubles of revolution. While ex-President Falcon remained at Curaçoa, his adherents in Venezuela actively conspired for his restoration to power. In June, the ministers resigned, being dissatisfied with the timid and vacillating policy of the acting-President, Monagas.

Congress enacted only one important measure. On May 11th it decreed that the navigation of the Orinoco, and the Lakes of Valencia and Maracaibo, shall be thrown open from that date to merchant steam-vessels owned by foreigners, and sailing under foreign flags. During ten years, all machinery, fixtures, and necessary combustibles for the said vessels, are to be exempt from duty.

The Government of the United States, becoming tired of the machinations constantly practised by Venezuela to thwart the pressing demands on her by the American ministers, finally succeeded in making a treaty to organize a mixed commission for the decision of all the claims pending between the two Governments, and the amount to be awarded, made payable to the United States Government by Venezuela, in ten annual instalments, with interest at five per cent.

In June, another civil war commenced. Pulgar, Governor of the State of Zulia, made vigorous preparations for an armed conflict with the General Government. He added several rifled guns of heavy calibre to the armament of the Fort of San Carlos, commanding the channel to the Lake of Maracaibo; erected a number of batteries on the island of Baji Seco, at the entrance of the lake; and fortified strongly every point at which an enemy might attempt to force a passage. Domingo and Gregorito Monagas were in his favor; the adherents of Falcon were generally also on his side. The country again was in a wretched condition. On October 2d, General Monagas left with 4,000 men, four steamers, and several sailing-vessels, to operate against General Pulgar, at Maracaibo, but he was defeated by the latter near Coro. On October 21st, however, President Monagas entered, after a bloody action for seven hours, Maracaibo, and on the 26th of October General Pulgar and many of his officers were carried as prisoners to Fort San Carlos. A large number of troops were sent in December to operate against the guerrillas in the State of Valencia. President Monagas appointed a new ministry, and was making, according to the last accounts, efforts to unite the different political parties.

VERMONT. The system of government of the State of Vermont contains a provision for

an alteration of the State constitution of an unusual nature. A Council of Censors is elected, who are required to meet and consider the subjects proposed for the amendments, to draft the articles, and to fix the time for the convention to be held. On the last Wednesday of March, such a Council of Censors was elected. This body subsequently met and organized, and called a convention to assemble on June 8, 1870. Certain amendments to the constitution were prepared by them and published, as follows:

ARTICLE I. Corporations shall not be created, nor their powers increased or diminished, by special laws, except for municipal purposes.

ART. II. *Sec.* 1. The General Assembly shall meet on the first Wednesday of October, biennially; the first election shall be on the first Tuesday of September, A. D. 1870; the first session of the General Assembly on the first Wednesday of October, A. D. 1870. *Sec.* 2. The Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Treasurer of the State, Senators, Town Representatives, Assistant Judges of the County Court, Sheriffs, High-Bailiffs, State's Attorney, Judges of Probate, and Justices of the Peace, shall be elected biennially on the first Tuesday of September, in the manner prescribed by the constitution of the State. *Sec.* 3. The term of office of the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, and Treasurer, of the State, respectively, shall commence when they shall be chosen and qualified, and shall continue for the term of two years, or until their successors shall be chosen and qualified, or to the adjournment of the session of the Legislature, at which, by the constitution and laws, their successors are required to be chosen, and not after such adjournment. *Sec.* 4. The term of office of Senators and town representatives shall be two years, commencing on the first Wednesday of October following their election. *Sec.* 5. The term of office of the Assistant Judges of the County Court, Sheriffs, High-Bailiffs, State's Attorneys, Judges of Probate, and Justices of the Peace, shall be two years, and shall commence on the first day of December next after their election.

ART. III. Whenever the office of Senator or town representative shall become vacant from any cause, the Legislature may provide by law for filling such vacancy.

ART. V. *Sec.* 1. The Judges of the Supreme Court shall be appointed by the Governor, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate. *Sec.* 2. The term of office of the Judges of the Supreme Court shall be six years, provided that, under the first appointment made in pursuance of this section, one-third of the judges first appointed shall hold their office for the period of four years; and one-third thereof last in the order of appointment shall hold their offices for a period of two years. *Sec.* 3. The Judges of the Supreme Court shall, at stated times, receive a reasonable compensation for their services, which shall not be diminished during the terms of their offices.

ART. —. (Proposed for adoption if Article II. is adopted, and Article IV. is rejected.) The Judges of the Supreme Court shall be elected biennially, and their term of office shall be two years.

ART. V. Hereafter, women shall be entitled to vote, and with no other restrictions than the law shall impose on men.

ART. VI. *Sec.* 1. At the session of the General Assembly of this State, A. D. 1880, and at the session thereof every tenth year thereafter, the Senate may, by a vote of two-thirds of its members, make proposals of amendment to the constitution of the State, which proposals of amendment, if concurred in by a majority of the members of the House of Representatives, shall be entered on the journals of the two Houses, and referred to the General Assembly then next to be chosen, and be published in the principal newspapers of the State; and, if a majority of the members of the Senate and of the House of Representatives of the next following General Assembly shall respectively concur in the same proposals of amendment, or any of them, it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to submit the proposals of amendment so concurred in to a direct vote of the freemen of the State; and such of said proposals of amendment as shall receive a majority of the votes of the freemen voting therein shall become a part of the constitution of the State. *Sec.* 2. The General Assembly shall direct the manner of voting by the people upon the proposed amendments, and enact all such laws as shall be necessary to procure a free and fair vote upon each amendment proposed, and to carry into effect all the provisions of the preceding section. *Sec.* 3. The House of Representatives shall have all the powers now possessed by the Council of Censors to order impeachments, which shall in all cases be by vote of two-thirds of its members. *Sec.* 4. The forty-third section of the second part of the constitution of this State is hereby abrogated.

The Democrats of the State held a convention on June 17th, to nominate State officers. Homer W. Heaton was selected as the candidate for Governor, and Morrell Noyes for Lieutenant-Governor. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That the practical working of the General Government, as administered by the opposition to the Democratic party, renew our zeal and love for the principles of our party.

Resolved, That we are still in favor of a strict adherence to the Constitution of the United States, as the safeguard of the States.

Resolved, That the Democracy now, as ever, make no distinction between citizens, whether of native or foreign birth; and that we sympathize now, as ever, with men of all nationalities striving for self-government.

Resolved, That we are opposed to the present unequal system of taxation of the General Government, and to the corrupt and wasteful expenditure of the proceeds of such taxation.

Resolved, That we prefer a system of government, in accordance with the principles of the Democratic party, rather than the present system of radical rule.

The Republican Convention assembled on June 16th, and nominated P. T. Washburn for Governor, and George W. Hendee for Lieutenant-Governor. The following platform was adopted:

Resolved, That the Republican-Union party of Vermont hereby affirms its adherence to the cardinal principles of the party, and especially the exclusion of traitors from the positions of public trust, the right of impartial suffrage, and the integrity of the public credit.

Resolved, That we have confidence that the Administration will wisely and firmly protect the interests and dignity of the nation in respect to our just claims against Great Britain, and that, in our judgment, we can afford to wait until her Majesty's Government finds it for her interest to make settlement.

Resolved, That we wholly approve the principles and policy of the Administration of President Grant, and we particularly commend that point of his inaugural address wherein he declares, "I would protect the law-abiding citizen, whether of native or foreign birth, wheresoever his rights are jeopardized, or the flag of our country floats, and would protect the rights of all nations, demanding equal respect for our own.

Resolved, That we cordially commend the State ticket this day nominated, and pledge to its support such a majority as shall show that Vermont takes no step backward in her Republican course.

The election was held on September 7th, and resulted in the entire success of the Republican ticket. The total vote was 43,289, of which P. T. Washburn received 31,834, and H. W. Heaton 11,455. Washburn's majority was 20,379. The Legislature elect consisted in the Senate of all Republicans, 30 in number; in the House there were 211 Republicans, and 24 Democrats.

The regular session of this body commenced on October 14th. The Governor, in his message to that body, stated the total funded debt of the State to be $1,075,000, which included $27,000 of bonds due in 1876, and $8,000 that had been purchased by the Treasurer.

The liabilities of the State amounted to $1,096,108. To be deducted from this is the amount of the sinking-fund, $75,000, with bonds above-mentioned held by the Treasurer.

The Governor further remarked that the amount required to be paid during the year for expenses of the State, allotment claims, State pay due to soldiers, and other matters, besides payment of interest on bonds and loans, had largely exceeded the estimated amount, on which the tax levied in 1868 was based. It was obvious that, for the purpose of meeting the necessary and current expenses, with provision for redeeming 1871 bonds, a larger tax must be imposed than was levied in 1868.

The great number of small school-districts in the State is a drawback to education, for, in some districts containing but few families, as compared with a large district with many families, it is obvious that one of two results must follow: if good teachers are employed, the expense of each pupil must be above the average of the larger district; and if the expense for each scholar is kept within the average, only poor teachers can be employed. The Board of Education recommended, as a remedy, that all school-districts be abolished, and the support and supervision of the schools be committed directly to towns. The expenditure in each year for supporting schools in the State is about $500,000. The State has a right to require, for its own protection against anarchy and misrule, which are the handmaids of ignorance and idleness, that the children shall be educated, and yet a very large number of both native and foreign-born do not attend any school, and the present law is insufficient to compel them.

The law of the State prescribing the legal rate of interest for money loaned, and positively prohibiting the taking, directly or indirectly, of a greater rate, is daily and openly violated by banks and individuals, and its violation disregarded. It is thus a direct element of moral and practical mischief. The Governor recommended that the law should be essentially modified, or provision made for its enforcement by ordinary officers of the law, and this without reference to any supposed interest of either borrower or lender, but only for the promotion of a sound morality and respect for law.

The people of this State must ever remain, essentially, an agricultural community; although the progress made in the development of its mineral resources—marble, slate, and iron, found in large quantities—has modified the character of the State in this respect. The result is, that large numbers of the young men, trained to depend for their livelihood upon the fruits of patient toil upon the farm, attracted by the rich soil, easy cultivation, and large returns of the alluvial regions of Western States, leave yearly, thus preventing any considerable increase in the population, and enriching the States to which they remove. Every considerable stream in the State affords water-power which has not yet been put to use, and large amounts of lumber, iron, and other materials are yearly sent away to other States, and returned in their manufactured form, to be consumed, thus paying the profits upon the manufacture to other communities, which should be enjoyed at home. As means by which the resources of the State may be put to use within its limits, the Governor recommended a modification of the interest laws to a certain extent, or absolute exemption from taxation, for a limited time, of capital invested in new manufacturing or mechanical establishments, instead of leaving it as at present to the uncertain action of towns.

In alluding to the fifteenth amendment of the Constitution of the United States, the Governor remarked that the adoption of it will, for the first time in the history of the nation, give reality to the truth enunciated in the Declaration of Independence, and incorporated into this Constitution, that "all men are created equal," and will preserve inviolate the faith pledged to the national freedmen. The sense of the people of Vermont upon this subject has been too often expressed, through the ballot-box and by their representatives, to leave its adoption for a moment in doubt.

In the Agricultural College it has been found necessary to increase the space hitherto allotted for scientific works. The attendance during the past sessions has been largely increased.

The academic department has been conducted with satisfactory results. In addition to the usual course of instructions, lectures on physiology and geology have been given by some of the most prominent professors of the State. A gymnasium has lately been introduced, which has been found to confer essential benefit upon the pupils, not alone in health, but in morality.

By the report of the Auditor of the State it appears that a settlement has been effected with the United States for outstanding war-claims; $108,056.31 having been received.

However, $108,821.17, of claims presented, are still unpaid, but it is not anticipated that more than $34,000 of this claim will be allowed by the Government.

The Commissioners of the Insane report the institution in a favorable condition. There were 137 State beneficiaries to August 1st. Admitted during the past twelve months, 46; discharged cured, 11; discharged uncured, 8; died, 18. Total number (at report), 89.

There are 81 convicts in the State Prison, an excess of five over the preceding year; and it is gratifying to learn that of the former number only three are women.

VIRGINIA. No provision was made, in the year 1868, for submitting the constitution of Virginia to a vote of her people, although that instrument was completed in April of that year. The provisions of the constitution regarding the elective franchise were quite restrictive, and would exclude from the exercise of that privilege a large portion of the most intelligent and best-educated citizens of that State on account of their participation in the late civil war on behalf of the Southern Confederacy. A movement began in the latter part of 1868, among the more moderate Republicans and all the conservative men of the State, for a modification of these clauses, or their entire omission from the new organic law. This question was destined to create a new division of political parties throughout the campaign of the year. Not only was the subject discussed by the newspapers and public men in the early part of the year, but a delegation of prominent citizens visited Washington to urge upon Congress the expediency of submitting the constitution to a vote of the people, with important changes in its provisions. A bill providing for the submission of the constitution to a popular vote had originated in the House of Representatives, and was, at that time, occupying the attention of the Senate Judiciary Committee. The delegation from Virginia addressed a letter to that committee, setting forth the views generally entertained in the State, and the feelings which prevailed among all liberal citizens, and asking, as a fit embodiment of those views and feelings, that an amendment to the pending bill be adopted, providing that the constitution should never be so changed as to deprive any citizen of the right to vote, and that the disqualifying sections should be stricken out. The discussion of this subject, both in Virginia and at Washington, continued until the recommendation of President Grant in his message of the 7th of April, and the consequent action of Congress, put the substantial object aimed at in the way of accomplishment. The President, in his message, recommended that provision be made for holding an election under the direction of the military commander, at which the question of the adoption of the constitution should be submitted to the citizens, and "that a separate vote be taken upon such parts as may be thought expedient, and at the same time and under the same authority there be an election for the officers provided under such constitution, and that the constitution, or such parts thereof as shall have been adopted by the people, be submitted to Congress on the first Monday of December next for its consideration, so that, if the same is then approved, the necessary steps will have been taken for the restoration of the State of Virginia to its proper relations to the Union. * * I am led to make this representation," he said, "from the confident hope and belief that the people of that State are now ready to coöperate with the national Government in bringing it again into such relations to the Union as it ought as soon as possible to establish and maintain, and to give to all its people those equal rights under the law which were asserted in the Declaration of Independence, in the words of one of the most illustrious of its sons." A bill to carry into effect these recommendations was immediately introduced into the House of Representatives, and rapidly passed through that body and the Senate, and received the approval of the President on the 10th of April. It provides that the President may, at such time as he may deem best, "submit the constitution which was framed by the convention which met in Richmond, Va., on Tuesday, the 3d day of December, 1867, to the registered voters of said State, registered at the date of said submission, for ratification or rejection, and may also submit to a separate vote such provisions of said constitution as he may deem best, such vote to be taken either upon each of said provisions alone, or in connection with the other portions of the constitution, as the President may direct."

After authorizing the election of officers at the same time, and making similar provisions with regard to the States of Texas and Mississippi, the act closes by requiring the Legislature to ratify the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments of the Federal Constitution as a condition precedent to the readmission of the State to the Union, and declaring that these proceedings shall not be final, or operate as a complete restoration of the State until approved by Congress. In pursuance of the provisions of this act, the President issued his proclamation on the 14th of May, designating the 6th of July as the time for the election and submitting the following clauses to a separate vote:

ARTICLE III. *Section* 1, *Clause* 4. Every person who has been a Senator or Representative in Congress, or elector of President or Vice-President, or who held any office, civil or military, under the United States, or under any State, who, having previously taken an oath as a member of Congress, or as an officer of the United States, or as a member of any State Legislature, or as an executive or judicial officer of any State, shall have engaged in insurrection or rebellion against the same, or given aid or comfort to the enemies thereof. This clause shall include the following officers: Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, Secretary of State, Auditor of Public Accounts, Second Auditor, Register of the Land-office, State Treasurer, Attorney-General, sheriffs, sergeant of a city or town, commis-

sioner of the revenue, county surveyors, constables, overseers of the poor, Commissioners of the Board of Public Works, judges of the Supreme Court, judges of the Circuit Courts, judge of the court of hustings, justices of the county courts, mayor, recorder, alderman, councilmen of a city or town, coroners, escheators, inspectors of tobacco, flour, etc., clerks of the supreme, district, circuit, and county courts and of the court of hustings, and attorneys for the Commonwealth: *Provided*, That the Legislature may, by a vote of three-fifths of both Houses, remove the disabilities incurred by this clause from any person included therein, by a separate vote in each case.

ART. III. *Sec.* 7. In addition to the foregoing oath of office, the Governor, Lieutenant-Governor, members of the General Assembly, Secretary of State, Auditor of Public Accounts, State Treasurer, Attorney-General, and all persons elected to any convention to frame a constitution for this State, or to amend or revise this constitution in any manner, and mayor and council of any city or town, shall, before they enter on the duties of their respective offices, take and subscribe the following oath or affirmation: *Provided*, The disabilities therein contained may be individually removed by a three-fifths vote of the General Assembly:

"I, ——, do solemnly swear (or affirm), that I have never voluntarily borne arms against the United States since I have been a citizen thereof; that I have voluntarily given no aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement to persons engaged in armed hostility thereto; that I have never sought nor accepted, nor attempted to exercise the functions of any office whatever, under any authority, or pretended authority, in hostility to the United States; that I have not yielded a voluntary support to any pretended government, authority, power, or constitution within the United States hostile or inimical thereto. And I do further swear (or affirm), that, to the best of my knowledge and ability, I will support and defend the Constitution of the United States against all enemies, foreign and domestic; that I will bear true faith and allegiance to the same; that I take this obligation freely, without any mental reservation or purpose of evasion, and that I will well and faithfully discharge the duties of the office on which I am about to enter: So help me God."

The above oath shall be taken by all city and county officers before entering upon their duties, and by all other State officers not included in the above provision.

In the mean time the State remained under the military jurisdiction of the United States. On the 6th of February Congress passed a joint resolution, providing that "the persons now holding civil offices in the provisional governments of Virginia and Texas, who cannot take and subscribe to the test-oath prescribed by the act entitled 'An act to prescribe an oath of office, and for other purposes,' approved July 2, 1862, shall, by the passage of this resolution, be removed therefrom; and it shall be the duty of the district commanders to fill the vacancies so created by the appointment of persons who can take said oath." Persons, whose disabilities had been removed, were exempted from the operation of the resolution, and it was not to take effect in any case until thirty days after its passage. General Stoneman issued an order on the 15th of March, promulgating this resolution, and making the removals from office which it required. On the 21st of March the same officer made a report to the Adjutant-General of the Army at Washington, in which he stated that there were 5,446 offices in the State, 532 of which had been filled by General Schofield and 1,972 by himself: of the incumbents, 329 were able to take the oath, and there were still 2,613 vacancies to be filled. In speaking of the difficulty of obtaining competent men to fill the offices of the State, who were at the same time able to take the test-oath, the commanding general said: "In accounting for the very small number of persons in the State who can take the test-oath of office, it must be taken into consideration that Virginia was one great battle-field during the war; that there was small chance for escape from the rigors of the conscript laws; that nearly every man was directly under the eye and control of the Confederate government, and that some time or other nearly every one gave 'aid, countenance, counsel, or encouragement, to persons engaged in armed hostility to the Government of the United States; and besides, once having engaged in the war, probably no portion of the Southern people, old and young, male and female, were more earnest in its prosecution. The conclusion will force itself upon every intelligent mind, that, if, with all the efforts that have been made and the latitude that has been allowed, the offices in the State have not been filled by competent persons, they certainly cannot be filled when the restrictions of any one party are to be observed and complied with, as will be the case upon the adoption of the proposed constitution, under which it is desired by some that the people of Virginia shall be forced to live, and to the requirements of which they are expected to consent."

On the 27th of March, Provisional-Governor H. H. Wells was removed from office by an order of the military commander, declaring that "all the powers conferred upon the chief executive officer of the State of Virginia by its constitution and laws, and heretofore exercised by the Provisional Governor thereof under the reconstruction laws of Congress, are hereby devolved upon the commanding officer of the First Military District, and will, until further orders, by him be assumed and performed."

Already, on the 5th of March, a general order had issued from the headquarters of the Army at Washington, removing Brevet-Major General George Stoneman from the command of the First Military District, and assigning Brevet Major-General E. R. S. Canby, the commander of the Fifth District, to the position. On the 31st of March another order issued, assigning General Alexander S. Webb to the command of the First District until the arrival of Canby, thus relieving General Stoneman from the position which he had held for nine months, to the general satisfaction of the people of the State. General Webb assumed the command on the 2d of April, and his first act was to restore Mr. Wells to the position of Provisional Governor. On the 3d of April an order was issued appointing military officers to

fill vacancies in various civil offices, owing to the impossibility of finding citizens who were qualified for the positions under the laws of the United States.

General Canby assumed the command of the First Military District on the 20th of April. On the 22d he issued an order, declaring that all officers of the provisional government would be required to take the test-oath, which was followed on the 7th of May by an order, directing that "all persons elected or appointed to civil office, who have subscribed the oath of office of July 2, 1862, and filed the same with the county clerks, or with other civil officers, as required by law, will cause duly-certified copies of said oath to be made and filed at these headquarters, that their ability to qualify under the joint resolution of Congress, passed February 6, 1869, may be definitely ascertained." A failure to comply with this order, in any case, was to be regarded as an indication that the office was vacated.

By an order of April 30th, the military divisions of the State were reorganized and a new assignment of military commissioners was made. The districts were twenty-seven in number, and the commissioners were at the same time appointed superintendents of registration and election. On the 21st of May the election order was issued. It named the day of election, gave the clauses of the constitution which were to be separately voted upon, and set forth in detail the duties of registrars and judges of elections. Directions were given for the registration of all qualified electors, the revision of the lists, and the final casting of the ballots. To prevent the registration of any person not entitled to vote, two white and two colored persons, registered voters of the district or ward, were to be selected by the Board of Registrars, to challenge the right of any person to be registered, who, in the opinion of the person challenging, is disqualified as a voter by reason of any of the causes set forth in said acts of Congress. Upon said challenge being made, the board shall examine the person presenting himself for registration, with reference to each cause of disqualification alleged, and evidence shall be taken, if offered, to sustain or disprove the challenge."

Provision was also made for challenging at the polls, "to prevent repeating or fraudulent personations of duly-registered voters." Regulations were made for the preservation of order in all respects similar to those prescribed at other elections for the consummation of reconstruction in the Southern States. (*See* MISSISSIPPI, and CYCLOPÆDIA of 1868, ALABAMA, etc.)

The Boards of Registration were composed of persons selected by the military commissioners, and special instructions to the registrars were issued by the commander of the district. These instructions designated the classes of persons who were disqualified from voting by the terms of the reconstruction acts. Among the persons specified as "disfranchised" were the following:

8. All persons who voluntarily joined the rebel army, and all persons in that army, whether volunteers or conscripts, who committed *voluntarily* any hostile act, thereby engaged in insurrection and rebellion. Any person, however, who was forced into the rebel army, but avoided, as far as possible, doing hostile acts, and escaped from that army as soon as possible, cannot be said to have engaged in the rebellion.

9. All who exercised the functions of any office under the Confederate government, or the government of any of the Confederate States, which functions were of a nature to aid in prosecuting the war, or maintaining the hostile character of those governments, engaged in the rebellion, or gave aid and comfort to the enemy.

10. Voting, in convention, for the ordinance of secession, or, at the election, for its ratification, like any other act of engaging in rebellion or adhering to the enemy, *if done voluntarily*, works disfranchisement of the person who had previously held one of the specified offices; but, if the act be committed involuntarily, through fear or force, it does not work disfranchisement. Any act is assumed to have been voluntary unless the contrary is shown by satisfactory evidence. In reference to this and other questions, the oath of the person applying for registration is to be given such weight as, in the opinion of the board, it is entitled to.

11. Those who *voluntarily* furnished supplies of food, clothing, arms, ammunition, horses or mules, or any other material of war, or labor, or service of any kind, to the Confederate military or naval forces, or money, by loan or otherwise, to the Confederate government, or aided in any way the raising, organization, or equipment of troops, gave aid and comfort to the enemy, and participated in the rebellion and civil war against the United States.

12. To give individual soldiers food or clothing enough to relieve present suffering, or to minister to the sick or wounded, are simple acts of charity or humanity, and do not constitute giving "aid or comfort to the enemy." A parent may give his son who belongs to the hostile army food and clothing for his own use; but if he give him a gun, horse, or other thing, to be used for hostile purposes, he thereby gives aid and comfort to the enemy.

Meantime the political parties were engaged in an active canvass of the State. They were known as the Radical and Conservative parties, and consisted mainly of two discordant sections of the Republican organization, which had divided on the question of incorporating into the constitution the proscriptive features already mentionad. About 120 Republican delegates assembled in convention at Petersburg on the 9th of March, and, after a somewhat turbulent session of two days, nominated H. H. Wells for Governor, J. D. Harris (colored) for Lieutenant-Governor, Thomas R. Bowden Attorney-General, and A. M. Crane for Congressman at large. The State Central Committee was reorganized, and resolutions were adopted to the following effect.

1. Favoring the early restoration of Virginia under the new constitution without changes or amendment, and an early election, without which there is danger of final disaster.

2. That the election of General Grant has awakened confidence in, and given a new guarantee for, the principles of the Republican party, and made sublime the truth that all men are free and equal, and entitled to all the privileges of citizens.

3. Holding with gratitude Grant's Inaugural, and thanking him for declaring that until there is universal suffrage there cannot be peace.

4. Expresses the hope that hereafter no State can deny the right to citizens to vote and be voted for.

5. Thanking the President for restoring Sheridan and Reynolds to the commands from which they had been removed for the faithful discharge of their duties, and also pledging the President the support of Virginia.

6. Asserting equality of rights for all citizens; urging a provision for the education of the people in the public schools, open to all; a more equal system of taxation; a reasonable provision to preserve a home exempt from levy and sale; the payment of the honest debts of the State; to secure an impartial jury trial by opening the jury-box to all male citizens, without regard to race or color.

7. Asserting the right of the real Republican party of reconstruction to determine the manner, as well as the constitution and laws, under which the State shall be restored.

8. Asserting that no republican form of government can long exist or be wisely administered where a considerable portion of the people are disfranchised, and that the Republican party of the State is not in favor of the creation of permanent disabilities, but pledge its effort and influence to secure the removal of the disabilities of those who accept in good faith the results of the war, and coöperate in earnest efforts for the restoration of the State under the reconstruction laws; but such removal should be claimed on superior claims for amnesty, which are not possessed by the great body of disfranchised persons.

9. Asserting that the Republican party is the real party of reconstruction, and that there can be no permanent restoration of the State except through its instrumentality.

A number of influential delegates, who were dissatisfied with the action of the convention, met on the day following its adjournment, and prepared an address to the people, in which they declared that the nominations already made were of "such a character as to render it utterly impossible to make the party successful in the State and thereby secure the best interest of the country," and recommended that another convention be held on the 15th of April, "with a view to the very best interests of the Republican party and our Commonwealth, and to the more permanent establishment of this political organization in the State of Virginia, upon the broad principle of true *republicanism*, and with a further view to the reconstruction of our State, and its restoration to the Federal Union, upon the terms prescribed by the reconstruction acts of Congress; and in the solemn belief that the existing dissensions which have resulted from the action of the Petersburg Convention will militate fatally against all these objects, impair the efficiency of the existing Administration of the national Government, and finally culminate in the disintegration of our Republican party in the State of Virginia."

At about the same time another address was issued, signed by prominent citizens who had always acted with the Republican party, but who took no part in the proceedings of the Petersburg Convention. The address was as follows:

The undersigned, citizens of Virginia, and earnest friends of the restoration of our State to the Union, under the reconstruction acts of Congress, believe that the time has fully come when a determined and zealous effort should be made to rescue the Republican party of Virginia from the management and control of designing and selfish politicians.

We are satisfied that the convention which assembled at Petersburg on the 9th inst. did not reflect the feelings and wishes of the Republicans of the State, and that the means used to secure the nomination of the persons who are placed upon the State ticket were such as cannot secure the sanction or approval of those who desire to promote the welfare of our people. We feel that there has never been a period in our history when the counsel and direction of wise, experienced, and patriotic men, whose unselfish regard for the public weal commends them to the confidence and support of the people, were more eminently needed. The men who are put forward for the highest honors of our restored Commonwealth are not sufficiently identified with our people to secure that confidence, and we fear that defeat awaits the party, because many of the best of our citizens who are now identified with it anticipate the worst consequences to our material interests in the event of their election, and are disposed to resent and resist the dictation of the arrogant and presumptuous clique of political adventurers by whom the late convention was controlled.

We believe that a large majority of the intelligent and reflecting people of Virginia who have a permanent interest in the prosperity of the State are becoming convinced that wisdom and sound policy alike demand that they shall accept and carry out, in good faith, the measures proposed by Congress for the reconstruction of the Southern States, and are earnestly desirous of adopting the great principles enunciated by the Republican party of the country. We believe that they will cheerfully support true and well-known Republicans for State officers; and to afford them an opportunity to do this we respectfully recommend—

For Governor: G. C. Walker, of Norfolk city.

For Lieutenant-Governor: John F. Lewis, of Rockingham County.

For Attorney-General: J. C. Taylor, of Montgomery County.

On the 28th of April the Conservative party, which was organized in 1868, held its convention at Richmond. About sixty-five delegates were present, composed of the State Central Committee and the county superintendents. The candidates nominated on the State ticket in May, 1868, withdrew their names, but no new nominations were made. The Committee on Business made two reports, one of which was signed by nine members, and the other by three. After considerable debate, the majority report was adopted. It was as follows:

Resolved—1. That this meeting accepts the said resignations of said candidates, and hereby expresses its high appreciation of their devotion to the best interests of the State, and of their zeal and ability in the discharge of those duties which their candidacy imposed on them.

2. That, notwithstanding the accepted resignation of our nominees, the Conservative voters of the State are urged to organize for the purpose of defeating such obnoxious provisions of the constitution framed by the late convention in Richmond as may be separately submitted; and to that end, as well as to secure the election of proper persons to the Legislature, the organizations already in existence are exhorted to increased activity, and in those localities where no organizations have been formed, the people are earnestly requested to meet together and adopt measures for

the purpose of preventing the incorporation of such iniquities in the organic law of the State.

3. That this convention, while expressing its hostility to the leading and general features of the said constitution, and while urging the necessity of organization for the purpose of defeating such provisions as may be submitted separately, declines to make any recommendation to the Conservative voters of the State, as to their suffrages upon the constitution expurgated of said provisions, or as to the candidates that may be before the people, feeling well assured that their good sense and patriotism will lead them to such results as will best subserve the true and substantial interests of the Commonwealth.

The minority report opposed the constitution and the plan of reconstruction altogether, declaring:

3. That the clauses of the Underwood constitution proposed to be submitted to a separate vote are immaterial and insignificant compared to the leading features of that instrument: universal negro suffrage, negro eligibility to office. That the same number of votes that will strike out the clauses to be submitted to a separate vote, will, if polled to that effect, defeat the whole constitution.

4. That the military rule of one of our own race, responsible to his superiors, is far preferable to the domination of an irresponsible multitude of ignorant negroes; and that, impelled by these considerations, we call upon all white men, whether native or adopted citizens, to vote down the constitution, and thereby save themselves and their posterity from negro suffrage, negro office-holding, and its legitimate consequence—negro social equality.

An address to the people was subsequently published by the Conservative State Central Committee, in which they urged the defeat of the articles of the constitution which were to be separately submitted, and favored the election of Walker and his associates on the general State ticket suggested by the anti-Wells Republicans. A Colored Convention was held at Richmond on the 28th of May, which indorsed the platform and nominations of the radical party adopted at Petersburg on the 10th of March.

The election took place on the 6th of July, but the official promulgation of the result was not made until the 9th of September. The whole number of names registered was 269,884. The vote on the constitution was as follows: Total vote cast on the question of ratification, 215,422; for the constitution, 206,238; against the constitution, 9,189; majority in favor, 197,044; total vote on the disfranchising clause, 208,765; in favor of the same, 84,404; against it, 124,361; majority against it, 39,957; total vote on the test-oath clause, 207,220; in favor of the same, 83,114; against it, 124,106; majority against it, 40,992. Gilbert C. Walker was elected Governor by a majority of 18,817 out of a total vote of 220,753, he having received 119,535 votes, and H. H. Wells 101,204. The other Conservative candidates for State offices were chosen by large majorities. The Legislature, which was elected at the same time, consisted of 43 Senators and 138 Representatives. In the Senate there were 30 Conservatives and 13 Radicals, 6 of the latter being negroes. In the Lower House there were 95 Conservatives, 8 of them negroes, and 42 Radicals, of whom 18 were negroes, while one seat was contested.

The act of April 10th, providing for the election, declared that the Legislature chosen at that election should assemble at the capitol of the State on the fourth Tuesday after the official promulgation of the ratification of the constitution, which day fell on the 5th of October. Before that body came together, the question was brought up as to whether its members would be required to take the "test-oath." General Canby had written a letter as early as the 26th of June, in reply to inquiries on that point, in which he took the position that they would have to take that oath, "unless the constitution should first be approved by Congress, or the oath be otherwise dispensed with by law." He also undertook to show that "this decision is in conformity with the action heretofore taken upon the same subject in another district, and was based upon a careful consideration of all the laws bearing upon the question now presented." The question was, however, brought before the Attorney-General of the United States, and he decided, on the 28th of August, that the members of the Legislature might meet and transact any business necessary to facilitate the restoration of the State to the Union, without taking the test-oath, but could not go into any "general legislation." The question then arose, whether the election of Senators was included in business "necessary to facilitate the restoration of the State;" and this, too, was submitted to the Attorney-General, who expressed himself "of opinion that the election of Senators, like voting upon the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments to the Constitution of the United States, is a part of the action contemplated by Congress as preliminary to a restoration of the State to its full relation to the Government of the United States, as one of the States of the Union."

Before the meeting of the Legislature, Provisional-Governor H. H. Wells resigned, and the Governor-elect was installed in his place on the 21st of September. The Legislature, which assembled at Richmond on the 5th of October, was the first deliberative assembly which had occupied the halls of the capitol for three years, and the first regularly-constituted Legislature which had sat in the Commonwealth for ten years. It effected a permanent organization, and proceeded to the business of the session, but not until an attempt had been made by some extreme members to have the test-oath exacted, followed by a protest against the loyalty and legality of the body. On the third day of the session, a message was received from the Governor, submitting the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, and recommending the election of United States Senators, and the appointment of standing committees, for the "consideration of finance, education, internal improvements, and the judiciary." This latter suggestion was made "in

view of the fact that the new constitution inaugurates many radical changes in the State government, and necessitates prompt and thorough legislation upon almost every subject within the scope "of the powers of the Legislature." "In conclusion," the Governor says, "permit me to congratulate you upon the progress already made toward the restoration of the State to civil government. Its good effects are already visible everywhere within the State. Confidence is being restored; commerce is reviving; mining and manufacturing enterprises are being organized; capital is seeking investment in our public improvements, and in our rich agricultural and mineral lands; and, above and more gratifying than all, joy and hope are taking the place of gloom and despondency. Peace and prosperity are once more dawning upon our desolated land. Conscious of the rectitude of our own acts, motives, and intentions, and relying upon the continued favor of the Almighty Disposer of human events, let us all manfully grapple with the living present, and confidently hope for a glorious future for the Commonwealth."

The two amendments to the Federal Constitution were ratified on the 8th of October. The fourteenth amendment received 36 votes in its favor in the Senate, and 4 votes were cast against it. In the House of Delegates it was ratified by a vote of 126 to 6. The fifteenth amendment passed the House unanimously, and received 40 votes in the Senate to 2 cast against it. The election of United States Senators occupied several days, and finally resulted in the choice of John F. Lewis, the Lieutenant-Governor, and John W. Johnston, who had formerly been a judge in the State, and had participated in the cause of the Southern confederacy, but whose political disabilities had been removed by Congress. The Legislature was in session nearly three weeks.

The leaders of the Radical Republican party, being dissatisfied with the result of the late election, called a convention, to meet at Richmond on the 24th of November. Delegates, selected in the different counties of the State, accordingly gathered in an old theatre at the capital on the day appointed, and organized as a convention; but it soon became evident that their counsels would be far from harmonious. There appeared to be two factions, one of which favored the plan of calling upon Congress to repudiate and reject the whole action of the State thus far in the work of reconstruction, while the other displayed a much more moderate spirit. A committee was appointed to frame an address to Congress, and two reports on the subject were the result, one, signed by a majority of the committee, and the other by a minority. The majority report, which was adopted by the convention, declared that "the election held in this State on the 6th of July last resulted in a Confederate triumph, which we unhesitatingly assert was achieved by artifice, intimidation, and fraud." "We believe," it continues, "that the secret of our defeat can be found in the unfortunate submission to a separate vote of the test-oath and disfranchising clauses of the State constitution, in direct conflict with the action of our Constitutional Convention, and in opposition to the deliberate and unanimous opinion of the rank and file of the Republican party of Virginia." What was asked of Congress was: "That your honorable body guarantee a republican form of government to Virginia, either by ordering a new election, and by submitting the whole constitution to a vote of the people, or by requiring the test-oath of the members of the Legislature, and awarding the seats of those who cannot take it to those eligible opponents who received the next highest vote, where the circumstances show that the electors must have known that they were casting their votes for ineligible candidates. In the event of a new election, we would ask for a military force sufficient to protect us in our political and civil rights."

They further claimed that every thing done by the Legislature at its late session was illegal and void, and that there was but one course for Congress to adopt. "This," they say, "is perhaps our last contest. On your decision, loyalty in Virginia lives or dies. If you decide against us, no one will dare to avow his Republicanism, the pernicious example set here will extend to other Southern States, the colored people will again be at the mercy of their former masters, the national debt will be repudiated, and the rebel Democratic yoke may probably be placed on the necks of the American people in 1872.

The minority report admitted that "a constitution thoroughly republican in form was ratified by a large majority of the qualified voters of Virginia, at the election held on July 6, 1869," but, in view of the "unwilling support given that instrument by many who voted for it," it asked attention to "probable dangers of readmission without security for the future." The minority, nevertheless, recognized "as a fact of perhaps graver import, that prolonged exclusion will certainly entail loss and suffering to party and individuals," and declare that they desire rather "to remove than place obstacles in the way of early readmission of the State to her full Federal relations." They further say:

> Pause in internal improvement, public and private; condition of the people as to anti-war indebtedness; postponement of the operation of homestead and school provisions of the constitution, imperfect civil machinery for prompt administration of justice, and rapid emigration from the State of handy laborers—all warn that we must do whatever lies in our power to meet the needs of the people fully and speedily.
>
> In view of the election of the State and county officers, to be held shortly after the readmission of the State, we affirm as our platform of principles—in national politics, the Union, the Constitution and the enforcement of the laws; in State poli

tics, faithful compliance with the letter and spirit of the constitution of Virginia, as adopted July 6, 1869.

Relying upon the justice of our cause, and reposing implicit confidence in the wisdom of Congress, be it, therefore,

Resolved, That we do hereby respectfully ask that the State of Virginia be admitted to representation in the Congress of the United States, such admission to be in strict accordance with the requirements of the reconstruction acts.

This report was rejected, and the delegates who favored it withdrew from the convention and held a separate meeting, at which a committee of sixteen was appointed to call a Republican Convention, at such time as it might seem proper, for the reorganization of the party.

The question of readmitting Virginia to her place in the Union was brought up in Congress at the beginning of the session in December. An address, prepared by a committee of nine appointed by the Legislature to urge the claims of the State to immediate readmission, was submitted to the Reconstruction Committee. This address recounted the action of the State in compliance with the acts of Congress, and claimed that every thing required by the law had been done. The committee, therefore, respectfully asked that "Virginia's Senators and Representatives be promptly admitted to their seats, and that she be restored to her place in the family of States." A bill was soon introduced, providing for the admission of the State without further condition, and after considerable debate it passed both Houses and received the approval of the President on the 26th of January, 1870. On the following day General Canby issued a military order turning the government of the State over to the civil authorities. After stating the action which had been taken by Congress, the order proceeds in the following terms:

Second.—The following instructions are given for the information and guidance of all officers or other persons invested with, or exercising authority under and by virtue of the law of March 2, 1867, to provide for the more efficient government of the rebel States and the several laws supplementary thereto or amendatory thereof:

1. All military commissioners will at once cease to exercise any and all authority under the above-cited laws, except so far as may be necessary to close up the unfinished business of their offices; they will at once transmit to these headquarters all books and records that relate to their duties as military commissioners.

2. All citizens who may be held by military authority for trial, either in custody or upon bail, for acts in violation of the above-cited laws, will be released from custody or discharged of their bail bonds, and the military prosecution dismissed.

3. All citizens, held by military authority for trial for crimes or offences cognizable under the laws of the provisional government of the State of Virginia, will be turned over to the custody of the proper civil authorities of the county or corporation in which the crime or offence was committed, and all bonds, recognizances, or other security taken for the appearance of persons charged with crimes or offences, or for the appearance of witnesses, will be turned over in like manner to the proper civil authorities.

4. The Judge Advocate of the district will furnish the Attorney-General, for such action as may be necessary and proper, a history of each of the cases now undergoing investigation, together with the depositions or other evidence in relation thereto. In like manner, for the like purpose, all affidavits, evidence, or other information in relation to persons accused of crime, who have escaped from confinement or have evaded arrest, will be transferred to the Attorney-General.

5. All prisoners (citizens), who, when the afore-cited law of March 2, 1867, becomes inoperative by reason of the conditions and limitations of the reconstruction laws, may be in confinement or custody by virtue of the final judgment and sentence of a military commission or other military tribunal, will be continued in said custody until entitled to discharge on expiration of sentence, or the case is otherwise disposed of by proper authority. Upon a writ of *habeas corpus* or any other process issuing from a court of the United States in the case of any prisoner so held, the writ will be promptly responded to, and the officer in making his return to the writ will set forth all the material facts of the case. If the writ be issued from a State court, the officer having the custody of any such prisoner will make a respectful return to the writ, setting forth the fact that the prisoner is held by virtue of the final judgment and sentence of a court of competent jurisdiction, held under the authority of the laws of the United States, and that the jurisdiction is exclusively in the courts of the United States. The division between United States and State jurisdictions is not always distinctly marked, but officers will be guided in their action by the principles laid down in the Supreme Court of the United States in the case of Ableman *vs.* Booth (21 Howard, p. 506).

6. At all forts, arsenals, light-houses, custom-houses, cemeteries, and other public establishments, whether held by original cession or by recent occupation under the laws of the United States, the jurisdiction will be held to be exclusively in the United States until otherwise directed by law or other proper authority.

7. The canvass-returns, poll-lists, and ballots for the several elections held in the State under the authority of the laws of the United States will, as soon as practicable, be arranged and inventoried according to the several election districts, and turned over to the Secretary of the Commonwealth for deposit and safe-keeping.

8. An authenticated copy of the final registration of voters, arranged by counties and cities having a separate municipal organization, will be deposited in the office of the Secretary of the Commonwealth.

9. Authenticated copies of all general or special orders, regulations or decisions, by the district commanders, changing or modifying the provisional laws of the State, or affecting any rights of persons or property, will be prepared; one set for the office of the Governor of the State, and the other for the office of the Secretary of the Commonwealth.

10. The term of office of all officers of the provisional government of the State of Virginia, whether holding by original election or appointment under the laws of the State, or by appointment or detail under the laws of the United States, will expire when their successors, elected or appointed under the new constitution, shall have been duly qualified.

11. The clerks of the several district courts of appeal will retain the possession and be responsible for the safe-keeping of the records of said courts until the Legislature of the State shall provide for the disposition to be made of them.

Third.—The provisions of the schedule of the constitution are republished for more general information and convenience of reference:

That no inconvenience may arise from the changes in the constitution of this State, and in order to carry the same into complete operation, it is hereby declared that:

SECTION 1. The common law and the statute law now in force, not repugnant to this constitution, shall remain

in force until they expire by their own limitation, or are altered or repealed by the Legislature.

SEC. 2. All writs, actions, causes of action, prosecutions and rights of individuals and of bodies corporate and of the State, and all charters of incorporation, shall continue; and all indictments which shall have been found, or which may hereafter be found, for any crime or offence committed before the adoption of this constitution, may be proceeded upon as if no change had taken place. The several courts, except as herein otherwise provided, shall continue with the like powers and jurisdiction, both in law and in equity, as if this constitution had not been adopted, and until the organization of the judicial department of this constitution.

SEC. 3. That all fines, penalties, forfeitures, and escheats, accruing to the State of Virginia under the present constitution and laws, shall accrue to the use of the State under this constitution.

SEC. 4. That all recognizances, bonds, obligations, and all other instruments entered into or executed before the adoption of this constitution, to the people of the State of Virginia, to any State, county, or township, or any public officer or public body, or which may be entered into or executed, under existing laws, "to the people of the State of Virginia," to any such officer or public body before the complete organization of the departments of government under this constitution, shall remain binding and valid; and rights and liabilities upon the same shall continue, and may be prosecuted as provided by law. And all crimes and misdemeanors and penal actions shall be tried, punished, and prosecuted, as though no change had taken place, until otherwise provided by law.

By command of Brevet Major-General CANBY.
LOUIS V. CASIARC, A. D. C., Acting Assist.-Adj't-General.

Mr. Walker, who had been acting in the capacity of Provisional Governor since September, was formally installed in the position of Governor of the Commonwealth, and took the oath of office as such. His first act was to issue the following proclamation, which may be regarded as an official announcement of the final consummation of reconstruction in Virginia:

Whereas, A duly-authenticated copy of an act of Congress, entitled "An act to admit the State of Virginia to representation in the Congress of the United States," approved by the President of the United States on the 26th day of January, 1870, has been received by me from the Secretary of State of the United States, by which action of Congress the constitution adopted by the people of Virginia on the 6th day of July, 1869, and the action of the Legislature of Virginia thereunder, have been approved and ratified by Congress, and the State of Virginia restored in her political relations to the Federal Union:

And, whereas, There is no day appointed by the said act of Congress for the convening of the General Assembly:

Therefore, I, Gilbert C. Walker, Governor of the Commonwealth of Virginia, do hereby make known the facts stated above; and do further make known that the General Assembly of Virginia will convene at the capitol, in the city of Richmond, on Tuesday, the eighth day of February, 1870, at twelve M., for the discharge of its functions under said constitution.

In testimony whereof I have hereunto set my hand and caused the seal of the Commonwealth to be affixed, at Richmond, this twenty-seventh day of January, 1870. GILBERT C. WALKER.

By the Governor:
GARRICK MALLORY, Sec'y of the Commonwealth.

The cost of reconstruction during the year ending September 30, 1869, was $146,902.86, and it was thought at that time that $65,000 more would be required to complete the work. The general financial condition of the State is represented to be "as good as could be expected," but no official statement of its accounts has been made.

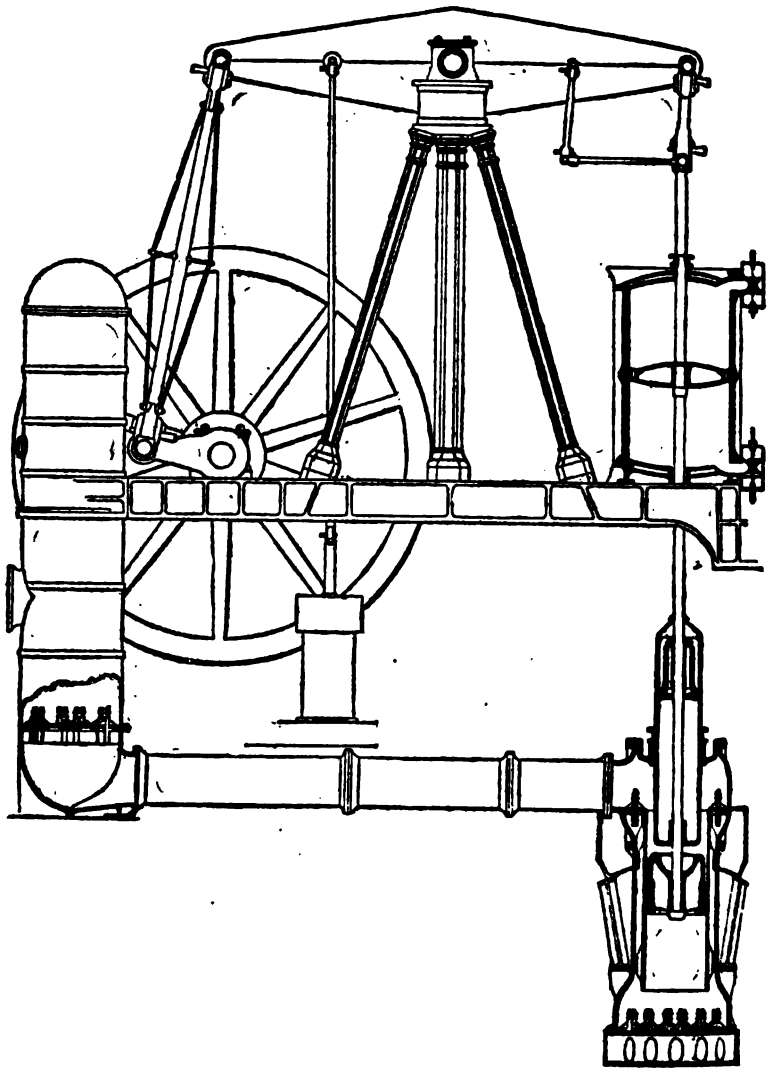
A judicial decision was pronounced in the Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Virginia by the Chief Justice on the 10th of May, which involved the proper construction of the fourteenth amendment of the Federal Constitution. It appears that Cæsar Griffin, a colored man, had been tried and convicted in a State court in Rockbridge County, and sentenced to two years' imprisonment by Hugh W. Sheffey, the Circuit Judge of that county. While the prisoner was in the custody of the sheriff, a writ of *habeas corpus* was sued out of the United States Court for his discharge, on the ground that the judge was disqualified, at the time his decision was rendered, to hold any office under the United States, or any State, on account of his having taken an oath to support the Constitution of the United States, and subsequently become a member of the Legislature of Virginia during the civil war, and as such voted for measures to sustain the so-called Confederate States in the contest against the Union. It was claimed that the disqualification of persons belonging to this category to hold office, by the terms of the fourteenth amendment, rendered the act of Judge Sheffey null and void. The District Judge, John C. Underwood, took this view of the case, and ordered the discharge of the prisoner, but the matter was carried to the Circuit Court, and this decision reversed by the Chief Justice. The grounds for the reversal were set forth at considerable length in the opinion rendered on the occasion, but the general conclusion arrived at is briefly expressed in the following paragraph:

"It results from this examination that persons in office by lawful appointment or election before the promulgation of the fourteenth amendment are not removed therefrom by the direct and immediate effect of the prohibition to hold office contained in the third section; but that legislation by Congress is necessary to give effect to the prohibition by providing for such removal. And it results further that the exercise of their several functions by these officers, until removed, in pursuance of such legislation, is not unlawful."

W

WALKER, ROBERT JAMES, an American statesman and publicist, born at Northumberland, Pa., July 19, 1801; died in Washington, D. C., November 11, 1869. He was educated at the University of Pennsylvania, graduating in 1819; studied law in Philadelphia, and, on his admission to the bar in 1821, settled at Pittsburg, Pa. Here he commenced the practice of his profession, taking from the first an active interest in politics, and bringing forward the name of General Jackson for the presidency before it had been elsewhere mentioned. He removed to Natchez, Miss., in 1826, where he speedily acquired an extensive practice, and was nominated Judge of the Supreme Court of Mississippi in 1828 (which honor he declined), and where, in 1835, he defeated the Hon. George Poindexter as candidate for the United States Senate. Soon after entering upon his duties in that body (in January, 1836), he made a spirited reply to Mr. Clay on the question of public lands, by which he acquired great popularity throughout the West. When the acquisition of Texas and California became a serious consideration, a secret agent was sent to the former country to inquire into its resources, and the party movement was inaugurated which led to their conquest. In this matter Mr. Walker was the personal adviser of the President. He supported the principal measures of President Van Buren's Administration, especially on the bank question, and it was mainly through his influence that President Tyler vetoed the bank bill, which had been prepared by Mr. Clay. He remained in the Senate until March 10, 1845. Friend as he had been to Mr. Van Buren, when the President announced his opposition to the annexation of Texas, Mr. Walker took grounds against him, and secured the nomination of James K. Polk, by the Baltimore Convention in 1844, and was by him appointed Secretary of the Treasury, an office which he resigned March 5, 1849. Mr. Walker was a strong advocate of free trade, and his report on the subject was reprinted by order of the British House of Commons. He urged the strongest measures during the Mexican War, proving the ability of the Government to sustain its finances without the aid of banks. In June, 1853, he was appointed commissioner to China, but resigned because a steamer could not be furnished him, according to promise. At the close of Mr. Polk's administration Mr. Walker returned to his practice, but was appointed by Buchanan Governor of Kansas in April, 1857, during the great excitement. He became unpopular by refusing to admit an election return from Oxford, in Johnson County, where the names on the register were said to have been copied from a Cincinnati Directory. The Lecompton constitution was shortly afterward promulgated, against his remonstrance, and he immediately resigned (December, 1857), because, in his own language, he "would not aid in forcing slavery on Kansas by fraud and forgery." In the three years which followed, Mr. Walker approximated gradually in his views to those of the Republican party, and in 1860 advocated with zeal the election of Mr. Lincoln. At the beginning of the war (in April, 1861) he made a very able speech in New York City in defence of the course of the Union party. In March, 1863, he was appointed by Secretary Chase financial agent of the United States Government in Europe, and returned in November, 1864, having effected the sale of $250,000,000 of 5-20 United States bonds, and defeated the second Confederate loan of $75,000,000. After his return he was in Government employ for one or two years, making investigations in financial matters, and contributing articles to influential periodicals on revenue, tariff, and other financial topics; and, at the instance of Mr. Seward, moving public opinion in favor of his annexation projects. Later he devoted considerable attention to literature, editing, in connection with his law-partner, Mr. F. P. Stanton, a monthly magazine of considerable literary merit, but which did not prove a financial success. He finally settled at Washington and engaged in the prosecution of claims and specific measures of legislation. In the latter capacity he was influential in procuring the ratification of the Alaska Treaty, and was unjustly accused of dispensing bribes to procure congressional action. He had been for years an able and effective advocate of the Pacific Railroad. Mr. Walker possessed an able and comprehensive intellect, and his written essays and documents were very influential in accomplishing the objects he sought; but his personal appearance was not commanding, and his voice and manner were unattractive.

WATER-WORKS. Just before the close of the year there was completed for the Nassau water-works, Brooklyn, a pumping-engine of the largest capacity of any in this country. It is a beam rotative engine, with steam-cylinder 85 inches diameter, 10 feet stroke, with an adjustable cut-off and double poppet-valves; the fly-wheel, 26 feet diameter. The pump is of the Thames-Ditton variety, placed directly beneath the cylinder, and worked by a continuation of the main piston-rod through the bottom of the cylinder. The bore of the pump-cylinder is 51½ inches, diameter of plunger 38 inches. The general arrangement will be understood from the following diagram (*see* page 718). The engine was made by Messrs. Hubbard & Whittaker,



of Brooklyn, and tested by Messrs. Copeland & Worthen, engineers. The maximum capacity was 833,000 United States gallons per hour, and the duty for forty-eight consecutive hours of 720,000 lbs. ft. per lb. of coal, and delivering at the same time into the reservoir 35,500,000 gallons (of water). The static lift was about 163 feet.

WATTS, THOMAS, M. R. S. L., an English linguist, bibliographer, and author, born in London in 1811; died at his residence in the British Museum, London, September 9, 1869. He received an excellent early education, and at twenty years of age was familiar with the Russian, Hungarian, and other Slavonic languages, as well as with the Scandinavian tongues; and, on visiting the British Museum to prosecute his linguistic researches, was surprised to find that there were no Russian or Hungarian, and but few Scandinavian, works in that great library. He wrote, not long after, some articles in the *Mechanics' Magazine*, making suggestions for the remedying of this deficiency. In 1838 he was appointed assistant-keeper of printed books in the Museum, and under his careful labors and thorough knowledge the library soon became as remarkable for the completeness of its collection of Slavonic and Scandinavian literature as it had been before for their absence. In 1857 he was made superintendent of the new reading-room, and in 1866, at the retirement of Mr. Panizzi, keeper of the department of printed books. He contributed numerous very able philological

articles to the *Quarterly Review*, *Gentleman's Magazine*, *Athenæum*, and other periodicals, a very able "Essay on the Welsh Language and Literature" to the *Penny Magazine*, and biographical memoirs of over one hundred foreign authors, chiefly of the Scandinavian and Russian nations, to the *English Cyclopædia*. His "Essay on the Hungarian Language" led to his being elected a member of the Hungarian Academy; and he was also a member of several of the learned societies of Continental Europe. His death was the result of an accident, which occurred about three weeks previous, while he was travelling in Shropshire.

WELCKER, KARL THEODOR, a German publicist, professor, and political leader, born in Oberofleiden, Upper-Hesse, March 29, 1790; died at Heidelberg, Baden, April 10, 1869. He was educated at the Universities of Geissen and Heidelberg, studying law at the latter, and, while yet a student, wrote and published a treatise entitled "The ultimate Ground of Law, Government, and Penalty." He also formed a student league. In 1814 he was appointed professor extraordinary at Geissen, but soon joined the army as a volunteer. Subsequently he was called to a professorship at Kiel, where he also assisted in editing a liberal journal. A year or two later he obtained a professorship at Heidelberg, where he remained till 1819, when he accepted a position at Bonn, where his brother, F. G. Welcker, the philologist (see WELCKER, ANNUAL CYCLOPÆDIA, 1868) was already professor of philology. The liberal views of the two brothers, and the intolerance of the government, led to their being accused and tried for sedition, but both were acquitted. In 1823 he was appointed professor of law in the University of Freiburg. He was an ardent advocate of freedom of the press, and in 1830 sent to the German Diet a petition for it, which excited much feeling throughout Germany. In 1831 he had been chosen a delegate to the Upper Chamber or Senate of Baden; in that body he brought in several motions for greater freedom of the press, and was associated with some others in founding *Der Freisinnige* (a journal of free thought), and for articles in this, of a liberal character, he was arrested and imprisoned, but eventually acquitted. After his release he was suspended from his professorship, but at once, in connection with Rotteck, undertook the editing of the *Stadts Lexikon* (a Cyclopædia of Political Science), which was published at Altona, in 12 vols., in 1834, and a second edition in 1846–'48. In 1840 he was reinstated in his professorship, but in October, 1841, was again suspended, after a journey into Northern Germany, where he was received with great triumph by the liberals. He then went to Heidelberg, where he was again tried for sedition, but was acquitted. In 1848 he was elected a member of the German Parliament in Frankfort, and was appointed ambassador of Baden to the same city. In 1849 he withdrew from the Parliament. In 1850 he was elected again to the Lower Chamber of the Baden Legislature. After the failure of the revolution he returned to Heidelberg, and retired into private life, whence nothing was afterward able to draw him. Though earnestly and decidedly liberal in his views, Welcker was so cautious in his expression of them, that every effort of the reactionary party to injure or punish him recoiled on their own heads. He lived to see the triumph of many of the principles he had advocated, and the partial union of the Fatherland he had so earnestly sought.

WEST VIRGINIA. Many of the citizens of this State are still subject to the political disabilities imposed by the amendment to the State constitution ratified by the people in the month of May, 1866, which disfranchises those who gave voluntary aid to the Confederates. The registration law which is intended to secure the enforcement of this constitutional provision occasioned during the past year much discussion and some bitter feeling. There was no general opposition to the execution of the law, but in a few localities a very excited state of feeling was displayed, and in Nicholas County the Board of Registration was prevented by a mob from performing its duties. In nine of the fifty-three counties of the State complaints were made against the Boards of Registration for rejecting the applications of certain persons who were entitled to vote, and for registering the names of others who were disqualified. As soon as this official misconduct came to the knowledge of the Executive, prompt measures were taken for correcting the abuses. There is a wide difference of opinion among the citizens of the State as to the expediency of removing the political disabilities. This diversity of opinion, however, has reference only to the mode and time of restoring all to the privileges of citizenship, as but few think that these disabilities were intended to be perpetual. The Democratic party, and some few Republicans, favor an immediate restoration of all those now disfranchised to full political privileges; while a great majority of the Republicans are of the opinion that the time has not yet arrived when these restrictions can be entirely removed without detriment to the welfare of the State.

In regard, however, to the acts imposing the test-oaths, known as the "attorney's oath," and the "teacher's oath," there seems to be a general conviction in the minds of the people that the further continuance of these laws upon the statute-book is inexpedient, and their repeal has been recommended to the Legislature by the Executive.

The financial affairs of the State are in a satisfactory condition. The receipts from all sources into the treasury for the fiscal year 1869 were $611,411.29 and the disbursements $553,654.26; leaving a balance of $66,167.10 in the treasury on the 1st of October, 1869.

The military claims of the State against the General Government for expenditures incurred in supplying military forces during the war have been finally settled, and the balance of $127,679.28 due the State has been paid into the treasury.

West Virginia has not yet contracted any State debt, but is liable for a portion of the State debt of Virginia under a provision of the constitution that "an equitable proportion of the public debt of the Commonwealth of Virginia, prior to the 1st day of January, 1861, shall be assumed by this State; and the Legislature shall ascertain the same as soon as may be practicable, and provide for the liquidation thereof by a sinking-fund sufficient to pay the accruing interest and redeem the principal within thirty-four years." The amount of this debt is still undetermined, its adjustment having been postponed on account of the pendency in the Supreme Court of the United States of a suit brought by Virginia against West Virginia to recover jurisdiction over the counties of Berkeley and Jefferson.

The free schools of the State attained a greater prosperity last year than at any former time since the organization of the State. Their condition in 1869, as compared with that of 1868, is shown in the following statement:

	1868.	1869.
Number of schools in the State	1,769	2,164
" teachers employed	1,810	2,283
" persons between the ages of 6 and 21	152,621	154,864
" children attending school	54,724	78,342
Amount expended for building purposes	$244,389	264,995
Current expenditures	276,465	295,950
Permanent school fund	209,800	231,200
Value of school property	717,846	956,116

The number of school-houses in the State is 1,708, of which 366 were erected during the year 1869.

The number of pupils attending the State Normal School, at Marshall College, at its last session was 96; the attendance upon this school will be largely increased when the new building, now in process of construction, is completed. The branch of the State Normal School, at Fairmont, held its first session during the past year, when about 100 pupils were in attendance. Both of these schools, as well as others in the State, have received donations from the Peabody Educational Fund. The West Virginia University is said to be exerting a wide influence for good throughout the State. The attendance is larger than at any previous time, and comprises pupils from nine different States and Territories. The accommodations of this institution will be greatly increased by the completion of the University Hall, the construction of which is now rapidly progressing.

On account of the recent organization of the State, charitable and reformatory institutions adequate to the needs of the community have not as yet been established. For want of accommodations at home, many proper subjects for public maintenance are sent to the Asylum for the Deaf, Dumb, and Blind, at Staunton, Virginia. Great need is felt for a reformatory school for juvenile offenders against the law, who are, at present, sent to the county jails or the penitentiary, and are thus subjected to the bad influence resulting from contact with hardened criminals. The attention of the Legislature has recently been called to the necessity of providing institutions for these classes, and for the destitute families of soldiers who fell in the late war. Owing to a want of funds, but little progress has been made during the past year in the work upon the main building of the Hospital for the Insane, although there is an urgent necessity for additional accommodations in this institution. The number excluded, for want of proper provision for their maintenance, is estimated to be not less than 150 persons. The number of inmates of the hospital at the close of the year was 202, showing an increase of 22 over the number at the close of the previous year. The average number for 1869 was 149; for 1868, 132. The cost of supporting the Hospital for the year was $29,239.59, which is estimated to be an average cost of $2.54 per week for each patient. Since the hospital was opened, in 1864, 530 have applied for admission, of whom 303 have been admitted and 227 refused admission. The number of convicts in the penitentiary at the beginning of the year 1869 was 78; during the year 52 were received, 27 discharged, 7 pardoned, and 20 escaped, of whom 11 were recaptured. The number confined at the close of the year was 87. The law enacted at the last session of the Legislature, allowing convicts credit for "good time," is reported to be producing favorable results, and further reforms in prison discipline are under consideration. Work upon the penitentiary building has progressed satisfactorily during the year. In the south wing three tiers of cells have been built; 56 cells in the lower tier have been completed, and the convicts placed in them.

The Legislature which assembled in the early part of January continued in session until the 4th of March; the measures passed were mostly of a local nature. The fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States was ratified by a vote in the Senate of 10 to 6, and 22 to 19 in the House. By an act of the Legislature, to take effect on the 30th of April, 1870, the town of Charleston, in the county of Kanawha, was selected as the permanent seat of government. The construction of the State-house at Charleston has been carried rapidly forward, and it will be completed about May, 1870. The building will be constructed of stone, at a total cost (including land) of $52,750, and will be 138 feet long, 56 feet wide, and 140 feet high. The first floor will be devoted to offices and committee-rooms; the hall of the Senate and of the House of Delegates will be on the second story, and the third story will be occupied by the Supreme Court and the Federal Court.

There was no general State election held during the year, except for members of the Legislature. The political complexion of this body for 1870 is 18 Republicans and 4 Democrats in the Senate, and 32 Republicans and 24 Democrats in the House.

The manufacturing and mining interests of West Virginia are reported to be in a more flourishing condition than at any previous time since the organization of the State. During the year there has been a rapid increase in many localities in the production of salt, coal, and lumber. The amount of salt produced in the Great Kanawha Valley the past year exceeded the amount in 1864 by about half a million of bushels, the shipments for 1869 amounting to about 160,000 bushels per month. The amount of coal obtained in the same region during the year was about 4,000,000 bushels, showing an increase of 300 per cent. since 1864. The amount of gas-coal transported from points in the State west of the mountains, on the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, was 269,000 tons in 1869, which exhibits an increase of more than 100,000 tons over the shipments of the previous year. In the coal-region on the Ohio River, in Mason County, the number of coal-mines before the organization of the State was three, producing an aggregate of 60,000 bushels per annum. In 1869 the number of mines had increased to 16, which produced during the year 500,000 bushels of coal. The production of salt in this locality has increased nearly 500 per cent. since the organization of the State, the number of bushels manufactured in 1869 being 350,000.

The Executive recommends that a geological survey of the State be made for the purpose of obtaining and disseminating information in regard to the character of the soil, coal-fields, iron-ore, and other minerals abounding in the State.

WHISTLER, GEORGE WILLIAM, died at Brighton, England, December 24. He was a son of the late Major George W. Whistler, and was born at New London, Ct., in 1822. Under his father, he commenced the profession of civil engineer in 1840. He was connected with various railroads in this country, both in the laying out and construction, and had charge of the Erie and New York and New Haven Railroad as assistant superintendent and superintendent. In the fall of 1856 he went to Russia, to take charge of the running of the St. Petersburg and Moscow Railroad under the Winans contract, a road of which his father had been the chief engineer. At the completion of this contract, he retired for a while to Frankfort and Brighton; but, on the resumption of the contract by the Winans Brothers, returned to St. Petersburg, where he continued till the spring of 1869, when he retired entirely from active duties, to recover his health by quiet and literary pursuits. As an engineer Mr. Whistler was well known, especially for his knowledge of railway machinery, and his executive ability in the management of railways. His death was sudden and unexpected, although his health had for many years been delicate, and he had been ordered by his physician to Germany for a more genial climate.

WICKLIFFE, CHARLES A., a Kentuckian, political leader, and Cabinet officer, born in Bardstown, Ky., June 8, 1788; died in Howard County, Maryland, October 31, 1869. He received such education as was possible at that time in the newly-settled country, in the Bardstown grammar-school, studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1809. He soon achieved a high reputation as a lawyer. During the War of 1812, he became an aid to General Winlock, and, after serving in the Legislature, appeared in the battle of the Thames on the staff of General Caldwell, after which he was reëlected to the Legislature, where he remained until chosen to Congress in 1823, to which body he was reëlected for four terms in succession. As chairman of the Committee on Public Lands, he was perhaps best known as a legislative worker. After quitting Congress in 1833, he became once more a legislator, in which capacity he was made Speaker in 1834, and in 1836 he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Kentucky. On the death, in 1839, of Governor Clark, he succeeded to the actual governorship, and in 1841 his influence and leadership were recognized by President Tyler, in appointing him to the office of Postmaster-General, which he held till March, 1845. President Polk, in 1845, sent him on a delicate and private mission to Texas in the interest of annexation. In 1849 he was a member of a Constitutional Convention of Kentucky; in 1861, once more a Congressman, having previously (January and February, 1861) held a place in the Peace Convention, and served to the end of the Thirty-seventh Congress (March 4, 1863); in 1866 he was a delegate to the Chicago Convention. Governor Wickliffe was a brother-in-law of David L. Yulee, of Florida, one of the seceding Senators, and his family was among the most powerful in the South through its social and political connections. Governor Wickliffe (as he was often called) was one of the stateliest and most aristocratic of Kentuckians in his manner and bearing; and this stateliness, together with his large landed possessions, and his hardly concealed contempt for the poorer classes, led to his receiving the sobriquet of "The Duke," by which he was generally known throughout the Southwest. He had a very extensive estate, and leaves an ample fortune to his family. For some years past he has been almost blind, and had recently gone to the residence of his son-in-law near Baltimore for the purpose of submitting to an operation upon his eyes.

WIRE TRAMWAYS. There is a mode of transit which has been practised in India and Australia by means of a rope stretched from point to point, but which as yet has been only what may be called a local arrangement used principally for bridging rivers or ravines. The

system known as the wire tramway is an attempt to convey goods over natural obstacles at so moderate an expense as to render it possible to profitably work collieries, mines, quarries, etc., situated in wild or mountainous places. The invention is already in actual practical operation, a line of three miles being successfully worked in Leicestershire at this time. It runs from some granite quarries—the property of Messrs. Ellis & Everard—at Markfield to Bardon, a station on a branch of the Midland Railway. The line is conveying stone from the quarries to a powerful crushing-machine at Bardon, to be broken for road-metal. The line has been constructed to carry 100 tons a day, but has never as yet been worked to its full powers. It is actuated by a double-cylinder portable engine of sixteen-horse power, but which, like the tramway, is not nearly fully worked. To suspend a weight from a rope supported by a post at either end would seem simple enough; to move the rope with such load would likewise appear easy to accomplish; but to cause the load to pass the post is another matter, but yet one that a little reflection will show can be managed without difficulty. The rope passes twice over the ground in one of the modes of arrangement, being, in fact, an endless belt passing at one end of the line round a Fowler's clip-drum, and at the other round a large pulley, or wheel, with a deep groove in the rim. The rope between the termini is supported on posts of any reasonable height, resting at these points on small wheels grooved in the rims, to prevent the rope slipping from them. On motion being communicated to the clip-drum, the rope moves also at the same speed as the periphery of the drum, of course. Any weight hung on the rope will move with it, and supposing the weight to be able to clear the posts it will move from end to end of the line, and, were it not for the drums at the ends, would move continuously; indeed, by proper arrangement and formation of the hooks, they would pass round these, and then the load would move continuously if required. The posts which support the rope are placed midway between the up and the down line of rope, and have at their upper extremities cross-bars, at whose ends the grooved wheels are placed at such distance from the upright as to bring them in a line with the rope; these wheels act as friction-rollers, and rotate as the rope moves.

The rolling-stock consists of a number of boxes, each of which is provided with two iron hooks, lined, where they rest on the rope, with wood; the shape of these hooks is the method whereby the boxes pass the posts. At the place where they hang on the rope they are simply hooks; a little below the rope, however, they spring back with a curve, similar to that of the bar which suspends the flat pan or plate used for weighing butter, etc., by cheesemongers. This curve leads the hook, or hanger, clear of the wheel supporting the rope, and, when quite below, it bends in horizontally, and supports the box which thus hangs below the wheel, its centre of gravity coinciding with the centre of the rope. When the rope moves the box moves, and the depth of the groove in the supporting wheel being but little in excess of the diameter of the rope, and the wood liners of the hooks being suitably curved, they pass gently up on the edge of the wheel and down the other side to the rope again, without perceptible jerk of any kind. So long as the supports and rope are of sufficient strength to sustain the load and the hauling power adequate, any given load may be transported from place to place without difficulty. The boxes will hang true, irrespective of the shape of the hangers connecting them with the rope, so long as the centre of gravity is kept in a proper line. The plan for curves is a series of wheels set with their axes at an angle both with the horizon and also with each other, so that they would, if produced, meet in one common point, whose distance from the wheels would be proportionate to the rapidity of the curve. The number of wheels varies with the amount of alteration of the direction of the rope that is found necessary. The arrangement at the unloading end of the Bardon line is simply a light angle-iron, curved round the same centre as that of the clip-drum, save that it is farther away from the latter, in the opposite direction to the line of rope. This angle runs parallel with the rope for two or three feet, and at the incoming side curves gently up higher for a short distance, and then inclines all round to its other extremity, which is a little below the rope-level. The hangers of the boxes are each fitted with a little grooved trunnion, and as each box comes to the angle-iron, these trunnions pass on to it, and the impetus of the box causes it to run the trunnions up the angle-iron, thereby lifting the hooks from the rope, and it then has the falling incline, down which it runs to an attendant, who upsets the box over a railway truck standing beneath, and when empty allows it to pursue its course along the angle-iron till it rolls gently on to the rope, to pursue its way back to the quarry at Markfield, where a somewhat similar arrangement is provided, the boxes being there shunted by hand to be loaded.

The general dimensions of the details of the Bardon line are as follow: The posts are from 10 ft. to 12 ft. high; the carrying-wheels are 15 inches diameter on the bottom of the groove; the posts are about 150 ft. apart, with one exception, where it was found necessary to place them 600 ft. apart; the two supports here are about 12 ft. in height. The clip-drum is 4 ft. 6 inches diameter; the distance between the up and the down line being also 4 ft. 6 inches. The rope is a wire one, 1¼ inches in circumference. The speed of the boxes is about four miles an hour, though this may be considerably exceeded. The boxes carry about 1 cwt. of stone, when loaded.

WISCONSIN. The public affairs of Wisconsin during the past year have been managed with such efficiency as to secure general prosperity to the people. The reports of the various educational, reformatory, and charitable institutions show a successful and enlightened management of the interests of the State in these departments. The common schools have been liberally sustained, and there has been a marked improvement in the educational work during the year just closed; the standard of instruction has been raised, and a wider range of studies pursued. Although there has been a gradual advance in the wages paid to teachers, the total amount expended for public educational purposes does not exceed eight dollars for each pupil registered.

The number of public schools in the State, and the proportion of the children attending them, are as follows:

Number of school-districts in the State	4,735
Number of children over four and under twenty years of age	398,747
Number attending public school during the past year	264,033
Number of public school-houses	4,742
Value of school-houses and sites	$3,482,125 71

Although the public-school facilities afford ample accommodations for the whole school population of the State, yet a very large proportion of those between the ages of four and twenty do not avail themselves of the advantages afforded for education.

To prevent this large number from growing up in ignorance, the Executive has recommended the enactment of "such a law as will compel each child in the State of proper age, under ordinary circumstances, to attend school a given number of months in each year, for a reasonable number of years."

The productive School Fund at the end of the fiscal year amounted to $2,387,414.37, which shows an increase of $31,927.54 in the fund during the year. The total receipts of the school fund for the fiscal year were $178,896.75; while the disbursements apportioned by the Superintendent of Public Instruction amounted to $177,118.49.

The Normal Schools, at Whitewater and Platteville, are in successful operation, and good results have followed from raising the standard of qualification for teachers. To accommodate the increasing number of applicants for this grade of instruction, a new school-building is in process of erection at Oshkosh, and will be ready for the reception of pupils during the coming fall; and the erection of another will be commenced as soon as the condition of the Normal School Fund will warrant the outlay.

This fund arises from the proceeds of the sale of lands set apart for the support of Normal schools by the laws of the State; there are now 792,342 acres of this land held by the State. The amount of the productive Normal School Fund on the 30th of September, 1869, was $638,941.99, which represents an increase during the year of $13,647.88. The receipts of the Normal School Fund income for the fiscal year were $52,212.50.

The prosperity of the State University during the past year has given great satisfaction to its friends and the general public. The whole number of students in attendance during the year was 495, while many other applicants were rejected for want of adequate accommodations in the university. The increasing number of the students of this institution has proved the necessity of enlarging its facilities; in view of which, the Executive in his message to the Legislature recommended an appropriation of $50,000, to be expended in the erection of a college-building for the use of females. The prosperous financial condition of this institution is shown in the following statement:

Total productive University Fund	$202,698 14
Total productive Agricultural College Fund	86,526 40
Receipts of the University Fund income	30,013 03
Disbursements of University Fund income	28,066 83
Disbursements of Experimental Farm Fund	7,053 72
Number of acres of University lands remaining unsold	11,733
Number of acres of Agricultural College land remaining unsold	152,387

The Institute for the education of the Deaf and Dumb, at Delavan, and that for the education of the Blind, at Janesville, are in a prosperous condition, and afford excellent advantages for the unfortunate subjects for whose benefit they are intended. During the past year 112 students received instruction at the former institution, at a total cost to the State, for current expenses, of $29,319.14. The number receiving instruction at the Institute for the Blind was 95, and the total cost of supporting the school for the year was $21,437.98. Improvements are now in progress, which, when completed, will afford ample accommodations for all who may wish to enter this school for the next fifteen or twenty years. The Soldiers' Orphans' Home, in Madison, has been in a flourishing condition during the past year, having given support and instruction to 278 children, at a total cost of $32,645.22; but its accommodations are not sufficient for more than one-third of those in the State needing the advantages of such an institution, to which fact the attention of the Legislature has been called, as showing the urgent necessity for the establishment of another home.

The State Hospital for the Insane is under the most efficient management, and will compare favorably with any similar institution in the United States. The present number of inmates is 364, of whom 209 were admitted during the year. The current expenses of the Hospital for 1869 were $71,320.08. During the year, 51 inmates were discharged who had entirely recovered, and 14 whose condition had been much improved; the deaths amounted to less than three per cent. of the whole number of patients.

Although this institution has been filled to its utmost capacity, there are still about 500 insane persons in the State without proper care and treatment. To meet the wants of

these, the Legislature has been urged to provide for the erection, at an early day, of another hospital. Great benefits have resulted to the State from the present institution; since it was opened July 14, 1860, 1,155 patients have been admitted and cared for, of whom 482 were born in the United States; 575 were of foreign birth, and the nationality of the remainder is unknown. The assigned causes of the insanity of those treated during this period are shown in the following table:

CAUSES.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Intemperance	40	1	41
Religious excitement	33	26	59
Unknown	231	197	428
Self-abuse	16	3	21
Domestic troubles	10	25	35
Disappointed affection	24	19	43
Spiritualism	04	8	12
Suppressed menses	...	14	14
Puerperal	...	44	44
Exposure to cold	5	1	6
Over-study	20	5	25
Hereditary	22	22	44
Jealousy	1	14	15
Overwork	30	13	43
Loss of property	33	4	37
Ill-health	43	72	115
Nostalgia	1	1	1
Mortified pride	...	2	2
Epilepsy	33	8	41
Excessive sexual indulgence	1	...	1
Injury (traumatic)	17	8	25
Ill-treatment	...	4	4
Disappointed ambition	2	2	4
Grief	6	25	31
Spinal disease	...	1	1
Turn of life	...	6	6
Business perplexities	5	...	5
Cerebral congestion	1	...	1
Apoplexy	1	...	1
Paralysis	1	...	1
Fright	5	11	16
Exposure	8	3	11
Use of quack medicine	...	1	1
Army prison fare	2	...	2
Fear of poverty	1	...	1
Slander	...	3	3
Sunstroke	5	1	6
Prolapsus uteri	...	1	1
Organic disease of brain	...	1	1
Uterine disease	...	4	4
Death of husband	...	1	1
Hysteria	...	1	1
Total	603	552	1,155

The report on the condition of the State Prison, at Waupun, represents the "most perfect system and order existing in every department" of that institution. The current expenses of the prison for the past year were $43,722.68. Deducting from this amount the earnings of the 190 convicts, the total expense of the institution to the State was $22,093.64.

Owing to the great diversity of the management of the different State institutions, it has been recommended that some system be adopted which shall place all of them under the management of one board, consisting of five persons, assisted by a local board for each institution, to consist of three persons resident in its vicinity. The State charities are now subject to the management of 42 persons, besides the superintendents of the different institutions.

The following comparative statement will show the annual current expenses and cost of subsistence, fuel, and lights, per inmate, in the several benevolent and penal establishments of the State:

STATE PRISON.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$229 22
Subsistence, "	.....	65 32
Fuel and lights, "	.....	21 00

REFORM SCHOOL.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$149 76
Subsistence, "	.....	48 76
Fuel and lights, "	.....	6 07

BLIND INSTITUTE.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$343 72
Subsistence, "	.....	84 86
Fuel and lights, "	.....	26 62

DEAF AND DUMB INSTITUTE.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$356 20
Subsistence, "	.....	66 64
Fuel and lights, "	.....	33 23

ORPHANS' HOME.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$158 16
Subsistence, "	.....	46 [illegible]
Fuel and lights, "	.....	18 39

HOSPITAL FOR THE INSANE.

Current expense, per inmate	.....	$220 05
Subsistence, "	.....	68 30
Fuel and lights, "	.....	35 09

The National Military Asylum, for disabled volunteer soldiers, was formally dedicated in the early part of October, 1869, and is now in successful operation. This is one of three national institutions intended as a home for soldiers disabled in the late war. The other two are situated, one at Augusta, Maine, and the other at Dayton, in the State of Ohio. The site of the present institution was selected near Milwaukee, and comprises 425 acres. Temporary buildings were provided in the year 1864, and in the spring of 1868 the erection of a commodious permanent edifice, with convenient accommodations for 500 persons, was begun, which, with the exception of the wings, is now completed. The whole amount expended on the asylum to September 1, 1869, including the cost of the land, was $291,881.97, a portion of which was contributed by citizens of Wisconsin, and the balance appropriated by Congress.

The finances of the State are represented to be in a sound condition. The receipts of the General Fund for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1869, were $874,995.70, which, with the balance of $44,946.38 in the Treasury at the beginning of the year, amounted to $919,942.08. The amount of the disbursements for the same period was $919,372.33; leaving a balance of $569.75 in the General Fund September 30, 1869. Of the above disbursements, $314,405.86 were for the ordinary current expenditures of the State.

The State debt is considered small, being about $200 *per capita* for each inhabitant of the State; and, excepting a small proportion, is in the form of certificates of indebtedness to the Trust Fund of the State. During the past year there was no decrease in this debt, but merely a change in the form of investment, which is now classified as follows:

State bonds unpaid	$104,800
Certificates of indebtedness	2,147,200
Currency certificates	57
Total	$2,252,057

The assessed valuation of the real and personal property of the State, as returned by the assessors, for the year 1869, was $427,627,356, which is more than double the amount of any previous assessment. Had the State tax for 1869 been levied upon the assessed valuation of this year, instead of that of 1868, it is estimated that the ratio of taxation would have been only a trifle more than a mill on the dollar. The State taxes for the last four years, together with the assessed valuation of the real and personal property of the State upon which the rate of taxation was based, are given in the following statement:

	Valuation.	State Tax.	Rate per cent.
1866....	$162,820,153	$312,816 34	1 925-1,000 mills.
1867....	196,851,161	649,958 86	3½ "
1868....	244,140,774	544,389 12	2 21-100 "
1869....	242,641,124	515,961 13	2½ "

The number of acres of land sold by the State during the past year was 183,960; while the sales of the preceding year amounted to 212,662 acres, and those of 1867 to 163,451. The number of acres held by the State on the 30th of September, 1869, are classified as follows:

School lands	429,847.53
University lands	11,733.15
Swamp lands	2,100,742.15
Agricultural College lands	152,387.12
Military road lands	13,382.71
Marathon County lands	39,448.85
Total acres	2,746,542.04

The political campaign of this year was inaugurated by the assembling of the Republican State Convention at Madison on the first of September. The convention nominated Lucius Fairchild for Governor, Thaddeus C. Pound for Lieutenant-Governor, Eli A. Spencer for Secretary of State, Henry Baetz for State Treasurer, S. S. Barlow for Attorney-General, G. F. Wheeler for State Prison Commissioner, and A. J. Craig for Superintendent of Public Instruction. Mr. Breese subsequently became the candidate for Secretary of State.

The principles of the party were fully set forth in the following resolutions, which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That we acknowledge, with gratitude, the care of that superintending Providence, which, having built us up a great and free nation, and having preserved us amid the perils of revolution and war, has now crowned the labors of the year with an abundant harvest, and filled the land with plenty.

Resolved, That this convention, representing the Union Republican party in Wisconsin, in the same spirit which has made that party the uncompromising foe of injustice and oppression, and the steadfast supporter and defender of liberty and Union, renews the pledge it has heretofore given, and reaffirms as cardinal tenets of its political faith the following:

1. The inalienable right of all men to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness.

2. As enunciated in that wise provision known as the "fifteenth amendment," no discrimination at the ballot-box, founded on property, birthplace, creed, or color.

3. Liberty of speech and of the press as the best guarantees for the security of republican institutions.

4. Free schools and the diffusion of education among all classes of the people.

5. The just subordination of State and local authorities and interests to the authorities and interests of the nation.

6. Prompt acquiescence in the decisions of the people at the ballot-box.

7. Maintenance inviolate of the national faith as pledged to its creditors.

8. Such adjustment of the burdens of taxation, by revisions and modifications from time to time of the revenue laws, as will cause them to fall equitably upon all classes of the people.

9. Retrenchment and economy in the administration of the national Government.

Resolved, That it is the well-known aim of the Republican party more clearly to define, and to establish firmly, and forever, that perfect civil and religious liberty which is now guaranteed by our State and national Constitutions, and that we are in favor of the largest measure of individual liberty consistent with the public good, and opposed to any legislation in derogation thereof, except to prevent acts which infringe the equal liberty of others.

Resolved, That, while the necessary burdens of taxation are great, we require the most rigid economy in the administration of affairs, both of the nation and of the State; yet we also know that the strength of the nation is in the national faith; that the loyal millions of this land were in earnest when they declared that they would put down the rebellion at whatever cost; and that they will never consent to repudiate the debt which was incurred to meet that cost.

Resolved, That we renew the expression of our gratitude to the heroic soldiers of the Republic, by whose patriotism, fortitude, and valor, the nation's life was defended, and the supremacy of its flag triumphantly asserted, and we again pledge to them, and to the widows and orphans of those who died in the service of their country, our sympathies and substantial support.

Resolved, That the upholders, in the reconstructed States, at the late elections, of the principles for which the country struggled and suffered in the recent great conflict, have our hearty sympathy in their efforts to maintain in their midst, inviolate, through defeat as well as success, the regular organization of the National Republican party of the Union.

Resolved, That we have reason to congratulate the country upon the increased revenues arising from a faithful enforcement of the laws, and upon the great economy and saving to the Government, in the collection of the same, by the present national Administration, and that we point with pride to the rapid reduction of the public debt by the judicious management of our national finances, at the hands of a Republican President and his constitutional advisers; and that, in view of this fulfilment of his pledges to the people, and his faithfulness to the avowed principles of the Republican party, the Administration of General Grant meets with our cordial indorsement.

Resolved, That the State administration, in its general conduct of the affairs of the State, has realized the best expectation of its friends, and has earned the approval of all.

Resolved, That the improvement of the navigation of the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers, and the canal connecting the same, is a great national work; that, if completed, it would add greatly to the prosperity not only of this State, but of the entire Northwest, by increasing and cheapening the facilities for marketing our vast agricultural, mineral, and lumber products, and that we therefore favor the early completion of said improvement by the General Government.

On the 8th of September the Democratic

Convention assembled at Milwaukee, and nominated a full State ticket, with Charles D. Robinson as candidate, for Governor, and H. H. Gray for Lieutenant-Governor. The following resolutions were adopted as the platform of the State Democracy:

Resolved, That the unity of the nation and the permanence of Republican institutions depend upon the subordination of the Government to the popular will, upon the cheerful and implicit obedience of rulers and people to law, upon the reservation to the several States of the sacred and imperishable right to local self-government, upon the inalienable right of citizens to life and liberty, upon freedom of speech and of the press, and upon a rigidly honest and economical application of the public revenues; and that we solemnly protest against those acts of the Republican party by which these fundamental conditions of national freedom and prosperity have been repeatedly and ruthlessly violated.

Resolved, That we entertain the most grateful remembrance of those true and noble men who laid down their lives in defence of the integrity of the Union, and that we will ever cherish the highest admiration of the living who have survived the shock of arms.

Resolved, That the financial disorder and depression apparent to all business-men, the corruption which confessedly attends the administration of the laws, the ingenious and burdensome system of taxation, by which enterprise is paralyzed, and the vast surplus wealth of the State is fruitlessly squandered and consumed, are evils which demand less of partisanship, more of statesmanship, a purer morality in our rulers, and a radical reform in the administration of the State and Federal Governments.

Resolved, That the continued and persistent imposition upon the people of the tariff laws, avowedly designed to tax the masses of the people for the benefit of the accumulated capital of the Eastern States, whereby millions of dollars are annually abstracted from Wisconsin, without any corresponding gain to the common Government, is a wanton and intolerable abuse of Federal power, for which the only effective remedy is the complete union of the friends of free labor and our domestic industry at the ballot-box.

Resolved, That we lament that chronic infirmity of the dominant party, by which the exercise of its long-continued and abundant power to "adjust the burden of taxation by revisions and modifications, from time to time, of the tariff and other revenue laws," is limited to pretentious confessions of the consequences of its own misrule, and to periodical resolutions deploring the evils which it persistently refuses to abolish.

Resolved, That we believe the honor and welfare of the nation alike require the rapid and complete extinction of the national debt by the full payment of the principal and interest thereof, in exact accordance with the terms of the contract between the Government and its creditors; but that we oppose, with all the influence at our command, the ill-disguised efforts of the party in power to convert the debt into a permanent burden for the aggrandizement of special classes, by discriminating legislation against the people and the lesser creditors of the Government in behalf of incorporated capital.

Resolved, That the public avenues, on which move the commonest products of the States, are the highways to wealth and the general prosperity of the people; that, kindred with the numerous improvements that have received the protection of the General Government, is the work of enlarging the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers, in order to secure a permanent channel of water communication between the great lakes and the Mississippi; that we ask the aid of the General Government for this purpose; and, in addition, will unite with our sister States of the West, equally to be benefited with Wisconsin in securing the completion of the same, as a matter of State enterprise, should the General Government fail to aid us therein; and that the continuous failure of the party in power, after many years of ample opportunity, to contribute effective legislative aid to this enterprise, leads us to doubt its sincerity, or its capacity to fulfil its professions.

Resolved, That we protest against the narrow partisanship and pervading greed for spoil which characterizes all the influences surrounding our State government, against the exaction of exorbitant fees in the State departments, and against that indifference to the burdens of the people which compels the taxpayers to contribute the enormous sum of nearly one million dollars per annum for the support of the State government and its partisan dependants.

Resolved, That the Democratic party of Wisconsin rejoices in the extinction of slavery; in the prompt and general acquiescence of the Southern people in the results of the war; in every well-directed effort for the enlightenment and elevation of oppressed humanity at home and abroad, and in every measure, compatible with good government and public order, to broaden the basis of suffrage and extend the blessing of free institutions to all classes of people; and that, in strict fidelity to this spirit of progress and patriotism, we deplore the many and inexcusable infringements of our national Congress upon the liberty of the citizen and the freedom of the ballot; its failure to recognize the equitable right of foreign-born residents to an early participation in the privileges of the ballot-box, on terms as liberal as those prescribed by the Democratic constitution of Wisconsin; its constant effort to burden labor and encourage monopoly, and its covert purpose to centralize and enlarge the powers of the Federal Government.

Resolutions were also adopted by both conventions, recommending that some plan be devised for the promotion of European immigration to the States of the Northwest.

The election was held on the 2d of November, and resulted in the success of the entire Republican ticket. The whole number of votes cast was 130,866, of which Lucius Fairchild received 69,582, and Charles D. Robinson 61,239, making the majority for the former 8,343. Of the total number of votes (143,510) cast at the preceding State election, in 1867, Governor Fairchild received a majority of 4,764 votes, while at the Presidential election in 1868 there were 103,584 votes cast, of which General Grant received a majority of 24,150.

The Legislature for 1870 is composed of 18 Republicans, 12 Democrats, and 3 Independents, in the Senate, and 54 Republicans, 39 Democrats, and 7 Independents, in the House.

During the past year active efforts have been made by the citizens of this State in favor of the improvements in the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers, which are intended to effect a great change in the freight transportation system between the Northwestern and the Eastern States. This movement is prompted by the belief that the cost of transporting freight from the Northwest to Eastern markets will be greatly reduced by the establishment of a water communication between the Mississippi River and the northern lakes through the Wisconsin and Fox Rivers, thus securing an ade-

quate and convenient outlet for the vast products of the Northwestern States. A convention for the discussion and adoption of measures to secure this improvement was held in October at Portage, which was attended by delegates mostly from Wisconsin, Iowa, and Minnesota. It was the opinion of the convention that this important improvement should be undertaken by the General Government, and that Congress should be memorialized to that end. Of the series of resolutions adopted, the following are the most important:

Resolved, That a water route, by which the steamboats of the Mississippi River can run to the harbors and unload into the vessels of the great lakes, is a public necessity.

Resolved, That, as it has been shown by Government surveys that such route can be made through the Fox and Wisconsin Rivers, the original policy of our Government to make them public highways shall be carried out. It subtantially pledged itself to do this when it kept the control of those streams by the act which admitted Wisconsin as a State into the Union.

Resolved, That, as the late surveys made by the General Government show that the cost of uniting the Mississippi River with the great lakes by a steamboat channel will not greatly exceed four millions of dollars, which is not as much as the saving such route would make in each year in the carrying-trade of the Northwest, it would be great injustice and gross wrong to put off this great work.

Resolved, That, as the Erie Canal, with its contracted channel, its numerous and small locks, the slow movement of its boats, with horse-power, which cannot exceed thirty-six miles in twenty-four hours, has, with these great drawbacks, kept down freight-charges, it is therefore clear that a river route, with a few large locks, which can be navigated by steamboats moving one hundred and fifty miles in twenty-four hours, would protect the Northwestern States from unreasonable charges or dangerous combinations.

Resolved, That the great and growing commerce of the Erie Canal, in the face of the greatest competition in our country, shows that water routes are demanded. Without them, the values of many coarse productions are lost, as they cannot be carried to market otherwise. Railroads, by giving activity to the business of the country, and by filling it with population, have made water routes necessary to meet the varied commercial wants of a great and prosperous community.

Resolved, That the want of the Northwest is cheap transportation; that this can only be secured by a water route which all have a right to use, with their own vessels, upon equal terms, thus giving the public the benefits of free competition.

Resolved, That the Committee on Memorial be authorized to add to or incorporate in the memorial to Congress, prepared under the direction of the convention at its Prairie du Chien session, statistics upon the comparative cost of the Wisconsin and Fox River route, the channels by rail, and the other projected water routes; upon the distances which the value of Western products will bear transportation at present rates; and upon such other questions as, in the conduct of their investigations, shall be deemed important.

Resolved, That the Legislature of Wisconsin be requested to make terms with the Green Bay and Mississippi Canal Company, by which, in the event of an appropriation by Congress, the rights and franchises of said company be surrendered to the General Government or to the State.

The session of the Legislature this year was one of the shortest on record, having extended from the early part of January to the middle of March. The most important measures adopted were the ratification of the fifteenth amendment to the Constitution of the United States by a vote of 15 to 11 in the Senate, and 62 to 29 in the House; the proposed amendments to the State constitution authorizing the abolition of the grand-jury system, the increase of the salary of the Governor to $5,000, and of the Lieutenant-Governor to $1,000 per annum, and the establishment of the township system of school government.

Matthew H. Carpenter was elected to the United States Senate for the full term commencing March 4, 1869. The appropriations for the various State institutions amounted to $275,000.

During the year the dome to the State capitol has been completed, at a cost of $90,828.05. The total cost of the capitol to the present time is $541,447.93.

The question as to the power of the Legislature to raise money, or authorize it to be raised, by taxation, for the purpose of granting aid to railroad companies, was decided by the Supreme Court of this State, which holds that the Legislature does not possess that power. This principle of law was at issue in a recent case, where the citizens of Fond du Lac County had voted to give the Sheboygan Railroad Company county bonds to aid in the construction of a railway from Sheboygan to Fond du Lac. The court held that "though a railroad company may be, as to its capacity to assume and exercise in the name of the State the power of eminent domain delegated to it, so far a public or *quasi* public corporation, yet in all its other powers, functions, and capacities, it is essentially a private corporation, not distinguishable from any other of that name or character." It was added, however, that cities, counties, and towns, had the power to subscribe for stock in railroad companies, and levy a tax to pay for such subscriptions, provided the road be situated in or pass through the corporate limits of the municipality to be taxed; the court affirming that "the city, county, or town, is directly interested and benefited by the money expended in the work, the same being a matter of public concern, and it is upon this principle, and this alone, that the taxation in that class of cases can be sustained."

WOODWARD, Bernard Bolingbroke, F. S. A., Librarian to her Majesty at Windsor Castle, and an industrious antiquarian and author, born at Norwich, England, May 2, 1816; died in London, October 12, 1869. His father was an eminent geologist and antiquary, author of several very valuable geological works, and the son inherited in some measure his father's tastes. Mr. B. B. Woodward received his early education in Norwich, and entered when yet a youth the banking-house of Messrs. Gurney at Great Yarmouth. He was at this time devoting considerable portions of

his leisure hours to antiquarian studies, and, being brought under deep religious influences (his family were Independents), he resolved to devote himself to the work of the ministry. For this purpose he withdrew from the banking-house, and entered Highbury College, an Independent theological school, and passed his examinations and graduated at the University of London. He was settled for some years over an Independent congregation at Harbston, near Bungay, and was, while residing there, consulted and employed by the Messrs. Childs, printers and publishers of Bungay. For them, among other works, he revised and reëdited, with large additions, "Barclay's Universal English Dictionary." In the year 1850 he removed to London, in order to devote himself to literary pursuits. Here he prepared a "History of Wales;" completed W. H. Bartlett's "History of America," in three volumes, two of them being wholly from his pen; began a "History of Hampshire," etc., etc. In 1860 Mr. Woodward was appointed to the responsible position of Librarian in Ordinary to the Queen, and Keeper of the Collection of Prints and Drawings at Windsor Castle, and rendered important services to the queen, and the late prince-consort, both of whom frequently sought his counsel in matters pertaining to art and literature. All who were brought in contact with him were favorably impressed by his genial manners, and the wide extent of his literary and artistic culture. He was here, as everywhere else, constantly occupied with intellectual labors. He founded, and edited, from 1863 to 1867, the *Fine Arts Review;* was a frequent contributor to the *Eclectic Review*, and the *Gentleman's Magazine;* had prepared and published five elementary school-books, on Astronomy, Geography, Natural History, History, and Evidences of Christianity; edited "Maunder's Treasury of Knowledge," prefixing a compendious English Grammar to it; and had prepared, for immediate publication, an elaborate illustrated "Life of Leonardo da Vinci;" a "Cyclopædia of History and Chronology;" a translation of the "*La Terre*," of Elise Riches; "Specimens of the Drawings of Ten Masters," with photograph illustrations; and a "Monograph of Windsor Castle," illustrated by photographs.

WOOL, Major-General JOHN ELLIS, U. S. A., a brave and gallant officer of the Regular Army, born in Newburgh, N. Y., in 1789; died in Troy, N. Y., November 20, 1869. He was of Revolutionary stock, his father, his grandfather, and four of his uncles, having been engaged in the War of the Revolution, and some of them falling in that struggle. General Wool received a good academical education, and removed to Troy, in his youth, where he was proprietor of a book-store before he came of age. Having lost his stock by fire, he determined in the beginning of 1812 to study law. While pursuing his legal studies, the War of 1812 commenced, and Mr. Wool applied for and obtained, through the good offices of Governor De Witt Clinton, a commission as captain in the Thirteenth Infantry. He first distinguished himself at the storming of Queenstown Heights, where he was shot through both thighs, and he was soon after promoted to be major in the Twenty-ninth Infantry. For gallantry in the battle of Plattsburg, he was brevetted lieutenant-colonel. At the close of the war he was appointed Inspector-General of the Northern Division; in 1818 lieutenant-colonel; in 1821 inspector-general of the whole army, and in 1826 brevet brigadier-general for ten years' faithful service. In 1832 the Government sent him to Europe to examine the military system of some of the principal nations, and he was present at the siege of Antwerp. For a year or two after his return he was engaged in inspecting all the coast defences, from Maine to the delta of the Mississippi. In 1836 he was charged with removing the Indians to Arkansas, and in 1838, during the Canadian difficulties, made a reconnoissance through the wilds of Northern Maine, with a view to the defence of the frontier. He obtained the full rank of brigadier-general, June 25, 1841. At the commencement of the Mexican War he was ordered to the West to organize the volunteers (May 30, 1846), and in less than six weeks had dispatched to the seat of war no less than 12,000 troops fully armed and equipped. He then collected 3,000 troops at San Antonio de Bexar, under his personal command, crossed the Rio Grande October 8th, and reached Saltillo after a march of 900 miles, having lost hardly a man, and preserving such admirable discipline in his army as to gain the general good-will of the inhabitants. He selected the ground on which was fought the battle of Buena Vista (February 23, 1847), made the preliminary dispositions, and commanded in the earlier part of the action until the arrival of General Taylor, who, in his official report of the victory, attributes a large share of the success "to General Wool's vigilance and arduous services before the action, and his gallantry and activity on the field." For his conduct on this occasion, General Wool was brevetted a major-general in 1848. He remained in command at Saltillo until November 25, 1847, when, on the return of General Taylor to the United States, he succeeded to the command of the Army of Occupation, and retained it until the conclusion of the war, his headquarters being at Monterey. In this capacity, civil and military duty devolved upon him, and he speedily cleared the country of robbers and guerrillas. According to an eye-witness in Monterey, he enforced more perfect order than was to be found in the United States. After his return home in July, 1848, he commanded the Eastern Military Division, with his headquarters at Troy, until the reorganization of the commands in October, 1853, when he was placed at the head of the Department of the East, with his headquarters

at Baltimore. In 1854 he received the thanks of Congress, and the presentation of a sword, for his services in Mexico. In the same month he was transferred to the Department of the Pacific. In 1856 he put an end to Indian disturbances in Washington and Oregon Territories, in a campaign of three months. At the close of General Pierce's Administration he was recalled to the Department of the East, with his headquarters in New York. When civil war broke out in 1860, he hastened to offer his services to the Government, and after the attack on Fort Sumter he went to New York to organize, equip, and send to Washington the first regiment of volunteers. He took the responsibility of reënforcing Colonel Dimick at Fortress Monroe, thus saving that post from seizure by the Confederates. On the 1st of May he was ordered to return to Troy. In August he was sent to Fortress Monroe as commander of the Department of Virginia, and from that port led an expedition which occupied Norfolk, May 10, 1862. On the 2d of June he was transferred to the command of the Middle Department, with his headquarters at Baltimore. He was promoted to be full Major-General in the Regular Army, May 16, 1862. At the close of the war he was retired from active service, and subsequently resided in Troy. General Wool was a rigid disciplinarian, and as an organizer of troops had no superior in the service. In private life he was an unostentatious citizen, a cordial neighbor, a genial, courteous, and exemplary Christian gentleman. He was much attached to Troy, which had been his home except when duty called him elsewhere, from his youth, and left a considerable bequest to the Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, and smaller sums to the Troy Orphan Asylum, the Day Home, the Catholic Orphan Asylum, and Williams College.

WYCKOFF, Rev. Isaac Newton, D. D., a clergyman of the reformed (Dutch) Church, eminent for scholarship, executive ability, and goodness, born in Hillsborough, Somerset County, N. J., August 29, 1792; died in Albany, March 28, 1869. He was fitted for college under the care and instruction of the late Theodore Frelinghuysen and his brother Frederick, and subsequently at the Somerville (N. J.) Academy. The death of his father, just before he entered college, left him without the means of support, but by diligent labor, both in teaching and other pursuits, he was enabled to enter Rutgers College in an advanced standing in 1810, and graduated with honor in 1812. He taught for two years after his graduation to pay the debts he had incurred for his education, one year in the Franklin Street Commercial Academy, New York City, and one year in Somerville, N. J. During this period he was in doubt in regard to his profession, and read medical works, and studied law, during his intervals of leisure. But in 1814 his religious convictions became more decided, and he determined to enter the ministry. He accordingly removed to New Brunswick, where he became principal of the Young Ladies' Academy, prosecuting his theological studies at the same time in the seminary. In 1817 he graduated from the Theological Seminary, and was licensed to preach. On the 1st of January, 1818, he was ordained and settled as pastor of the First Reformed Dutch Church in Catskill, N. Y. Here he remained for more than eighteen years, a very successful and laborious pastor. In November, 1836, he accepted a call to the pastorate of the Second Reformed (Dutch) Church in Albany, N. Y. Here he labored diligently for more than thirty years, and received a thousand communicants into his church. He was an able, interesting, and at times eloquent, preacher, and preëminently successful and beloved as a pastor, counsellor, and friend. In all the benevolent and charitable enterprises of the city he was specially active and earnest, and the numerous Hollanders who emigrated to this country, and especially to the vicinity of Albany, from 1845 to 1865, found him a volunteer commissioner of immigration, untiring in his zeal and labors for their welfare. He was a director or manager in most of the great national benevolent societies, and always faithful in the discharge of his duties. Dr. Wyckoff, among his other abundant labors, found considerable time for literary work. The number of his published occasional sermons, lectures, and addresses, was large, and he was a frequent and valuable contributor to Rev. Dr. Sprague's "Annals of the American Pulpit," as well as to several religious periodicals.

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